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ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT**

**FOREIGN LANGUAGE SPEAKING TEST ANXIETY
AND THE INVESTIGATION OF POTENTIAL UNDERLYING SOURCES**



**THESIS BY
Hüseyin KOÇ**

**SUPERVISOR
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şehnaz ŞAHİNKARAKAŞ**

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APPROVAL PAGE

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.....
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DEDICATION



To my precious daughter, Elif Duru...

ETHICS DECLARATION

Student's
Name & Surname: Hüseyin KOÇ
Number: 20138066
Department: English Language Teaching
Program: Master Thesis (x) Ph.D. Thesis ()
Thesis Title: Foreign Language Speaking Test Anxiety and the Investigation of
Potential Underlying Sources

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I cited all sources to which I made reference in my thesis,

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22.09.2017

Hüseyin KOÇ

ÖZET

YABANCI DİL KONUŞMA SINAVI KAYGISI VE ALTINDA YATAN MUHTEMEL SEBEPLERİN ARAŞTIRILMASI

Hüseyin KOÇ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı

Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. Şehnaz ŞAHİNKARAKAŞ

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Bu çalışma, Harran Üniversitesi'nde isteğe bağlı hazırlık programı eğitimi gören öğrencilerin yabancı dil konuşma sınavı kaygısı hissedip hissetmediklerini ve eğer hissediyorlarsa, bu kaygının altında yatan sebepleri ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır. Ayrıca, bu çalışmada, tecrübe edilen konuşma sınavı kaygısıyla öğrencilerin cinsiyetleri ve fakülteleri arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığı da araştırılmıştır. Çalışma, Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi, İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi, Mühendislik Fakültesi ve Ziraat Fakültesi'ne yeni kayıt yapıp isteğe bağlı hazırlık programına dâhil olan 81 öğrenciyle gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Araştırma sorularını cevaplandırabilmek için hem nicel hem de nitel veri toplama yöntemleri kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada yer alan 81 isteğe bağlı hazırlık okulu öğrencisine iki adet anket uygulanmıştır. İlk anket Wang ve Liao'nun (2012) çalışmasında kullanılan Genel İngilizce Yeterlilik Testi Kaygı Ölçeği'nin uyarlaması olup, bu anketle, öğrencilerin konuşma sınavı kaygısı tecrübe edip etmediği ve kaygı seviyeleri ölçülmüştür. İkinci anket ise Timina'nın (2015) çalışmasında kullanılan anketin bir uyarlaması olup, bu anketle, öğrencilerin konuşma sınavı kaygılarının altında yatan sebepler araştırılmıştır. Her iki anketten toplanan veriler SPSS 23.0 istatistik analiz programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Anketlerin yanı sıra, konuşma sınavı kaygısının sebepleriyle alakalı daha nitelikli bilgiler toplamak adına, 12 öğrenciyle görüşmeler yapılmış, bu görüşmeler kayıt altına alınıp içerik analizine tabi tutulmuştur.

İlk anket vasıtasıyla toplanan nicel verilerin analiz sonuçları, katılımcıların orta derecede yabancı dil konuşma sınavı kaygısı tecrübe ettiklerini göstermiştir. Analizler, kız öğrencilerin erkek öğrencilere göre daha fazla konuşma sınavı kaygısı yaşadıklarını

da ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ancak, öğrencilerin fakülteleri ve tecrübe ettikleri konuşma sınavı kaygısının seviyesi arasında herhangi bir anlamlı fark bulunamamıştır. İkinci anket, öğrencilerin konuşma sınavı kaygılarının kişisel, sosyokültürel ve performans temelli sebeplere dayandığını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Sebeplerle alakalı daha detaylı bilgiler toplamak amacıyla gerçekleştirilen öğrenci görüşmelerinde ise sebeplere dair daha farklı temalar edinilmiş ve bu temalar kategorilere bindirilip, oluşturulan kategoriler, nicel verilerin analizi sonucu ortaya çıkan kategorilerle birleştirilmiştir. Sonuç olarak, öğrencilerin konuşma sınavı kaygılarının altı kaynağa dayandığı ortaya çıkarılmıştır: performans ve eğitime dayalı kaynaklar, sosyokültürel kaynaklar, kişisel kaynaklar, fiziksel çevresel kaynaklar, negatif değerlendirilme korkusu ve mükemmeliyetçilik.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yabancı dil kaygısı, yabancı dil konuşma kaygısı, yabancı dil konuşma sınavı kaygısı, yabancı dil konuşma sınavı kaygısının kaynakları

ABSTRACT**FOREIGN LANGUAGE SPEAKING TEST ANXIETY
AND THE INVESTIGATION OF POTENTIAL UNDERLYING SOURCES****Hüseyin KOÇ****Master Thesis, Department of English Language Education****Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Şehnaz ŞAHİNKARAKAŞ****September, 2017, 130 pages**

This study aimed to investigate whether non-compulsory preparatory program students of Harran University experienced foreign language speaking test anxiety, and if so, what the potential underlying sources were. Besides, the study also aimed to investigate whether there were any significant differences between the students' foreign language speaking test anxiety and their genders and faculties. The study was conducted with 81 students who were enrolled in the Faculty of Science and Letters, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Faculty of Engineering and Faculty of Agriculture.

Both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were utilized as to clarify the research questions of the study. Two different surveys were administered to the 81 students who participated in the study. The first survey was an adapted version of Wang and Liao's (2012) General English Proficiency Test Anxiety Scale; and it aimed to measure the existence and the level of the participants' foreign language speaking test anxiety. The second one was adapted from the survey utilized in Timina's (2015) study; and it aimed to investigate the sources underlying the students' speaking test anxiety. The data, collected through the both surveys, were analysed with the help of the version 23.0 of SPSS. Besides the surveys, 12 of the students were randomly selected as to have semi-structured interviews together to collect more detailed information regarding the sources of speaking test anxiety. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, translated and they were subjected to content analysis.

The analysis results of the quantitative data collected through the first survey demonstrated that the participants experienced a moderate level of foreign language speaking test anxiety. It was also revealed that the female participants were significantly

more speaking test-anxious than their male counterparts. However, no statistically significant differences were found between the students' speaking test anxiety and their faculties. The second survey demonstrated that the students' speaking test anxiety stemmed from personal, socio-cultural and performance-based sources. Some more detailed and diverse themes were obtained from the content analysis of the student interviews and these themes were put into categories. The categories were, later on, combined with the ones that were revealed from the quantitative analysis. As a result of the combination of quantitative and qualitative findings, it was concluded that the students' foreign language speaking test anxiety stemmed from six main sources: performance-based and instructional sources, socio-cultural sources, personal sources, physical environmental sources, fear of negative evaluation and perfectionism.

Key words: Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA), Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety (FLSA), Foreign Language Speaking Test Anxiety (FLSTA), sources of Foreign Language Speaking Test Anxiety

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ABBREVIATIONS

FLA	: Foreign Language Anxiety
FLCAS	: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
FLLAS	: Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale
FLRAS	: Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale
FLSAS	: Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale
SLSAS	: Second Language Speaking Anxiety Scale
OETAS	: Oral English Test Anxiety Scale
OCA	: Oral Communication Anxiety
FLSA	: Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety
CA	: Communication Apprehension
TAS	: Test Anxiety Scale
TAQ	: Test Anxiety Questionnaire
WAT	: Writing Apprehension Test
SLWAI	: Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory
GEPTAS	: General English Proficiency Test Anxiety Scale
FE	: Faculty of Engineering
FEAS	: Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences
FA	: Faculty of Agriculture
FSL	: Faculty of Science and Letters

CHAPTER I

1. INTRODUCTION

It is an indisputable fact that our world is getting more globalized each day. This swift globalization, thus, has led to a much smaller world (Rohmah, 2005). With the help of developed transportation technologies, one can easily have her/his breakfast in Ankara, join a great lunch in Paris, eat dinner back in Athens and enjoy a fiesta in Madrid if she/he wishes. As a result of these daily world tours, meeting people of different countries with different backgrounds has been a part of our lives.

When people of different cultures come together, a mutual language is necessarily the main tool to provide communication between them. There are six thousand spoken languages today (Comrie, 2009), and amongst them, English, which is also called as “Lingua Franca”, is the most widely preferred mutual language around the world in terms of usage by non-native speakers (Chang, 2006; Crystal, 2012). The way how English language gained its position as the “Lingua Franca” is still a matter of debate and there are many reasons why and how English became the leading one amongst the others. Tsui and Tollefson (2007), for example, enounce to explain this leadership that English language has been one of the most important tools that drive globalization since its beginning; and to be able to catch up with the developments, all nations have done their best to make sure they are sufficiently equipped with it. Grabe (1988), in a similar vein, states that the quick expansion of English language around the world in the last few decades mostly depends on the demand for access to technology, economic development and information as the internet presents over ninety per cent of its content in English (Wang, 2002). Lysandrou and Lysandrou (2003) also clearly explain the rise of English to a supreme position as the global language of communication. Due to the fact that English is the primarily preferred language in international relations, travel, communication, education and media, calling it a global language instead of an international language would be more appropriate. As Crystal (2012) states, “a language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country” (p. 3), and nobody can actually deny the impacts of English in every country in the world.

Just like almost all around the world, English language has long been the major foreign language in Turkish schools and universities, too. As stated in Kırkgöz’s (2009)

study, “the role of English as the most prominent foreign language in the curriculum has been to function as a mediating tool for Turkey to achieve its globalization goal” (p. 681). This position of English as the leading foreign language did not actualize rapidly; on the contrary, it was a long period of time. After the foundation of Turkish Republic, the governments started to have strong relationships with western countries, especially with France, for the sake of modernisation, which led the administrative policies to be shaped in accordance, making French the leading foreign language in Turkey till 1950s and it was used in diplomatic relations, education systems and art activities for decades (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998). With the undeniable impact of English in and around the country in terms of economic and military power, Turkish governments started getting closer to English in the 1950s and it had the chance to contend with French. As stated in Doğançay-Aktuna’s (1998) study, “the developing Turkey felt pressured to gain better access to English in order to improve trade relations and make progress in technology” (p. 27) just like all other countries. All these gave English language the chance to be the number one foreign language preferred in Turkey.

Mari (2016) states that “people need to have a grip on English language to avail more and better opportunities” (p. 276). Hence; despite the fact that English is not an official second language but a foreign language in Turkey, learning it sufficiently is almost a must for everyone who wishes a brighter academic career, a better living status and a higher salary. Kızıltepe (2000) also argues that English language plays a vital role for people, that is, a way of having a more satisfactory education and a more advantageous occupation both with pleasant profits. Under these circumstances, mastering English in both academic and professional fields has been an urgent requirement for a Turkish individual hoping to have a brighter future.

Learning a foreign language is an endless, complex and sometimes a tedious adventure. As Brown (2000) states, “your whole person is affected as you struggle to reach beyond the confines of your first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling and acting” (p. 12). A total self-sacrifice of oneself, thus, is the basic necessity on the road to master the target language. However; since there exist a lot of variables germane to language learning process (Cotterall, 1999), and affective domain variables have the same influence as cognitive domain variables (Brown, 1994) at this point, foreign language learners may face significant challenges and even failures throughout their adventures. Foreign language anxiety, which was described by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) and studied on in a lot of

researches, is one of the most influential amongst these challenges. However; as the nature of foreign language anxiety is rather complicated and the phenomenon is pretty broad in scope, Aydın (2009) informs that the related research on the field in Turkey is limited and needs contribution. Indeed, a review of the relevant literature also suggests that more research is required as to sufficiently figure out the phenomenon. Hence, both depending upon the current literature and trying to explore more than available, this specific research study targets to find out whether non-compulsory English preparatory school students at Harran University School of Foreign Languages experience anxiety during the speaking components of the midterm and proficiency tests; and if so, what the potential underlying sources are. The study, thus, gives the students an opportunity to express their ideas and share how they feel about the speaking parts of the examinations they take throughout the year.

1.1. Background of the Study

Tomlinson (1999) asserts that living in a globalized world is quiet similar to living in a small neighbourhood. To be able to live in peace, an individual needs to get on with her/his neighbours, thus, speak with them. Since the world is becoming more globalized each day, people feel obliged to learn languages other than their mother tongues for various reasons, communication being in the first place (Harmer, 1991). Despite the fact that there are individual exceptions, people usually learn another language either because it is their second official language, and it is an obligation, or it is the most preferred foreign language in their countries, and they do not want to miss the opportunities provided by it. In other words, some people learn a foreign language as it is a governmental requirement, while some want to master in it due to professional, educational, or personal reasons. No matter what the motivation behind the demand is, it is a fact that millions of people are in the process of learning a second or a foreign language either in state schools or in private institutions.

When language learning is the case, the field is in a close relationship with human psychology and related individual variables since people, as the learners, are at the heart of the process (Tercan & Dikilitaş, 2015). This fact might actually be the same for all courses; however, since language courses are the most anxiety-provoking ones that students take (MacIntyre, 1995), the issue of language learning should be examined separately and elaborately (Kayaoğlu & Sağlamel, 2013). Indeed, it has been intensively

studied, and consistently shown in the relevant literature that success or failure in language learning process depends substantially on several learner attitudes, which are traditionally called as “individual differences” in psychology (Dornyei, 2005). These individual differences, which may aid some learners in attaining their goals, but may also prompt some to end up with underachievement or even failure in tasks, are very broad in scope, and they have got different sources. In their study, Ehrman and Oxford (1995) notice that although most of the studies in the literature investigate the cognitive sources (e.g., language aptitudes, study styles, cognitive skills), demographic (e.g., ages, genders), personal (e.g., likes, dislikes, interests), and affective (e.g., self-perceptions, motivation, anxiety) variables are also closely germane to second or foreign language learning performance. In other words, the variables which constitute students’ affective states, such as their beliefs, hopes, and attitudes, are very important and influential in terms of their language learning performance, too (Aydın & Zengin, 2008).

Along with motivation and self-confidence, language anxiety, which differs inherently from one person to the other (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004), is one of the most frequently researched variables that have impact on language learning process (Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997). The term “language anxiety” has been identified by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), and it has been investigated in a number of research studies (Gardner, 1987; Young, 1991; Ellis, 1994; Kaya, 1995; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999; Horwitz, 2001; Von Worde, 2003; Park & Lee, 2005; Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham, 2008; Thompson & Khawaja, 2016). The researches in the related literature prove that language anxiety exists and it significantly affects individuals’ language learning performance, including both global and more specific measures of the target language. The reason why learners get anxious during language learning is that they feel insufficient in terms of the skills and competences to complete the given tasks (Brown, 1994). Thus, they frequently show withdrawn attitudes during the process, in other words, they get anxious when they are required to take part in a language activity since the nature of the activity is prone to emergence of anxiety (Price, 1991). Campbell and Ortiz (1991), in relation to this, state that the level of this anxiety is considerably high, and about fifty per cent of all language learners experience it.

The studies conducted to correlate language anxiety with several variables (e.g., language performance, proficiency levels, learning and teaching strategies, genders, ages) show that there are statistically significant differences in between. In terms of the

correlation between language anxiety and global language performance, it can be deduced from Horwitz's (2010) timeline study that language anxiety has a consistent negative effect on language learning performance in general. Instead of concentrating on the tasks to be done, language learners with high levels of anxiety unavoidably give their attention to the possible failure consequences that they make up in their minds, and they eventually end up having true underperformance results in their hands (MacIntyre, Noels & Clément 1997). To briefly summarize, the higher the level of language anxiety increases, the lower the level of language learning performance decreases (Aida, 1994).

The findings of the studies conducted to investigate the relationship of language anxiety with diverse second or foreign language skills have revealed that there exist negative correlations between the level of anxiety experienced by learners and the performance levels of those specific skills, too. On the basis of the currently available literature, it can be concluded that language anxiety has particular negative impacts on the language skills of reading (Oh, 1992a; Saito, Garza & Horwitz, 1999; Sellers, 2000; Shi & Liu, 2006; Huang, 2012), writing (Daly & Miller, 1975; Daly & Shamo, 1976; Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999; Cheng, 2002; Argaman & Abu-Rabia, 2002), and listening (Vogely, 1998; Kim, 2000; Elkhafai, 2005; Bekleyen, 2009; Zhang, 2013). According to the findings, learners, suffering from high language anxiety show apprehensive behaviours towards the assigned tasks of these language skills, and as a result, they put in poorer performance than they would normally be able to do.

With regard to speaking skill; however, the challenge gets worse, and the level of anxiety experienced by learners reaches to its peak, which makes speaking skill the highest anxiety-provoking one amongst the four language skills (Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009). Indeed, conducting speaking activities and dealing with the oral aspects of a second or foreign language are the most frequently stated reasons of high language anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Price, 1991; Aida, 1994; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Mak, 2011). Koch and Terrell (1991) state according to their findings that more than half of the learners in their study find speaking activities, oral presentations, speaking quizzes, and the possibility of being chosen to answer a question verbally to be the most anxiety-provoking language learning matters. Similarly, Horwitz and Young (1991) argue that although reading, writing, and listening skills are all natural sources of language anxiety for some students, speaking skill seems to be the most stressful one to be dealt with. Last but not least, in an interview study conducted by Young (1992), all of the four foreign language

specialists (i.e., Krashen, Hadley, Terrell, and Rardin) articulated with reasons that speaking skill is the most anxiety-producing second or foreign language skill for language learners.

As for the reasons of the fact that foreign language speaking anxiety is higher than that of the other skills, the complicated and simultaneous stages of speaking in a foreign language (i.e., conceptualization, formulation, articulation, and self-check) might be given as examples (Balemir, 2009). In a similar vein, Young (1991) indicates that speaking skill requires a higher level of attention as learners have to process the input first, and then, respond to it in a relatively limited time, which increases the pressure on language learners to higher levels.

Attaching the more importance to the speaking skill as the basic role of languages is to communicate, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) have divided foreign language anxiety into three types of performance anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Since this current research study concentrates upon the type of anxiety experienced in foreign language speaking tests, the term “test anxiety”, which is the tendency of worrying about failure under testing situations (Calvo & Carreiras, 1993), will be focused and cited more.

Testing and evaluation are prevalent not only in educational fields but also in every stage of our whole lives (Trifoni & Shahini, 2011). Casual things like enrolling a course, getting a job, graduating from a school, and winning or losing a competition all depend on test scores. It can be deduced from this classic practice of testing that evaluation via testing is a vital issue in an individual’s life. As a result, as Spielberger and Vagg (1995a) stated, “examination stress and test anxiety have become pervasive problems in modern society” (p.xiii).

To consider the issue of testing from the educational aspect, it is a well-known fact that kinds of examinations have been utilized in educational systems for hundreds of years now for both making learners aware of their positive or negative progresses and changing them into critic thinkers. However, since examinations have become the matchless tools to make accurate decisions on learners’ works, test anxiety has eventually become one of the most important influencing factors germane to achievement or failure in learning (Spielberger, 1972; Wolf & Smith, 1995). Thus, as evaluating by testing in order to take students’ measures demands several variables (e.g., student psychology, curriculum, examination type, and so on) to be taken into

consideration, teachers and instructors around the world have developed different ways for testing in accordance with their needs.

Just as it is in all learning situations, being tested and evaluated by language teachers or instructors has always been a frightening experience for language learners, too. And researchers have been looking for solutions to this problem for a very long time in order to improve students' language performance (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012). When all language skills are taken into consideration, speaking skill seems to be the most anxiety-provoking one due to the fact that students feel much more nervous during speaking tasks, and the speaking components of the examinations (Huang, 2005). As a result of this, students with high levels of language anxiety are far less willing to participate in speaking class tasks and oral parts of the examinations.

This current research study investigates foreign language speaking test anxiety, and its possible reasons on EFL speaking test performance of preparatory program students at Harran University. Despite the fact that there are countless studies on the topic "foreign language anxiety" around the world, Aydın (2008) warns that the relevant studies carried out in Turkey, with Turkish language learners are far too limited. When the case is limited specifically to the speaking skill and the relevant type of anxiety, it can be seen in the currently available literature that there is a remarkable necessity to shed light on these issues, especially at university levels. Moreover, the possible sources of mentioned anxiety also need to be investigated taking diverse variables into account.

As a result, this research study genuinely contributes to the related literature as it investigates both the existence and the possible reasons of speaking test anxiety experienced by university level, non-compulsory preparatory school students.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

School of Foreign Languages of Harran University has been providing non-compulsory English language preparatory program for the students since 2012, and the fact that the program is not compulsory is because the faculties do not comprise English courses currently.

Once the students get enrolled in the one-year intensive English Preparatory Program, they take a placement test in order for classification, and this test consists only of listening, reading, writing, and grammar. Since most of the students take up the program as total beginners, the placement test does not include the speaking component.

Throughout the academic year, they have Grammar, Main Course, Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking courses, and each course has its own evaluation means as quizzes, portfolios, and presentations. Apart from these subtests, they also have to take two mid-term examinations in a semester and these mid-term examinations include speaking test parts besides the written skills and listening.

That the preparatory program students always get more nervous before and during the speaking parts of the examinations than they actually do in the other parts has long been arousing the instructors' interests. The main purpose of this current study is to see whether the students really get anxious in the oral parts of the examinations and if so, why this happens.

Thus, considering the various effects, the purposes of the study are listed below:

1. To investigate whether the students experience anxiety before and during the speaking parts of the mid-term and/or proficiency examinations.
2. To investigate whether gender and faculty have any effects on the students' speaking test anxiety.
3. To try to find out why they experience anxiety before and during the speaking parts of the examinations although they are non-compulsory students.

1.3. Research Questions

As Agee (2009) states, only satisfactory research questions can give a start to studies. Keeping this in mind, three research questions to guide this study were put forward in accordance with the goals of the study. These research questions are listed as following:

1. Do the preparatory school students experience anxiety in the speaking parts of the midterm and/or proficiency examinations?
2. Do gender and faculty have any effects on the students' speaking test anxiety?
3. What are the sources, if any, of the speaking test anxiety that non-compulsory preparatory program students experience?

CHAPTER II

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter two basically covers the literature review of the study. It consists of the parts anxiety and learning, trait, state and situation-specific anxieties, facilitative and debilitating anxieties, foreign language anxiety, sources and effects of foreign language anxiety, foreign language anxiety over the reading, writing and listening skills, foreign language speaking anxiety, test anxiety and learning, test anxiety in foreign language learning, its sources and effects, and foreign language speaking test anxiety.

2.1. Anxiety and Learning

Since scientists and scholars believed learning was predominantly related to the cognitive domain variables, they underestimated the vital importance of affective domain variables in learning for a very long time (Zembylas, 2005). With the more developed research techniques and better understanding of human psychology in education, however, measurement of affective variables became easier, and the frequency of them being mentioned in research studies increased. It was realized that learners were complete birds in themselves with their cognitive and affective wings, and that without either wing being given less importance, they would never have the chance to fly thoroughly, and thus, affective domain variables became much more considerable than they were in the past. Moreover, giving “learning motivation” as an example initiator factor, some scholars even asserted that affective domain variables had more influence on learners than cognitive domain variables did (Djigunović, 2006). However, Volet (1997) states that personal differences are the yields “of complex and dynamic interactions between cognitive and affective variables” (p. 235). Similarly, Labouvie-Vief and Diehl (2000) argue that these two domains are related and dependent although they deal with different developmental issues. Due to the fact that its impacts on diverse kinds of learning have been proven, and the phenomenon has been one of the most frequently investigated affecting factors in psychological and educational terms (Horwitz, 2001), anxiety is one of the most important and most pervasive affective domain variables in terms of learning situations (Liu & Huang, 2011).

The term “anxiety” is a very complicated psychological situation that can get affected by a number of factors. Due to its sophisticated form, defining it in a simple,

clear, and standard sentence is almost impossible. Indeed, Sarason (1986) complains that although anxiety is generally agreed to be a vital component of human life, scholars and researchers have not come to an agreement in terms of a standard definition for it. Thus, there are many different forms of definitions by different scholars regarding anxiety in the literature. Freud (1924), one of the earliest psychologists, for example, defines anxiety as a particular, undesired emotional situation, including apprehension, worry, and tension. Blau (1955) also states that anxiety is an uncomfortable feeling, and it prompts an individual to experience tension in dangerous situations. For Scovel (1978), anxiety is “a state of apprehension or a vague fear” (p. 134), and it definitely has particular effects on individuals. Finally, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) define anxiety as the high feeling of tension, nervousness, fear and panic in the nervous system of anatomy.

Taking the key definition words (e.g., uncomfortable feeling, tension, apprehension, fear, nervousness) into consideration, it can be deduced that anxiety is one of the most crucial affecting factors in human life in general. In other words, it may have detrimental effects on individuals’ social, professional, private, or academic lives. Indeed, it has been consistently shown in the literature that anxiety has significant negative impacts on learners’ global learning performances. Rosenfeld (1978), as one of the earliest researches on the issue, asserts that anxiety influences academic achievement unfavourably, and it should be minimized for more effective and successful learning. To corroborate this assertion, Weinstein, Cubberly and Richardson (1982) conducted a research study with ninety college students, and found out that low-anxious students’ learning task performances were significantly better than those shown by the high-anxious students. In the following year, Head and Lindsey (1983) carried out a suchlike study, ending up with the conclusion that the level of anxiety experienced by learners significantly affected their academic progresses, and that low-anxious learners were more prone to show better performances than those with high anxiety levels.

Due to the fact that the phenomenon “anxiety” is too broad in scope, it has been divided into several types by scholars and researchers. Five of the most well-known types of anxiety will be reviewed in the below headings.

2.1.1. Trait Anxiety, State Anxiety and Situation- Specific Anxiety

Although situation-specific anxiety is not mentioned of in the early studies (Spielberger, Gorsuch & Lushene, 1970; Metzger, 1976), it can be seen in the currently available literature that anxiety is mainly divided into three types by the researchers: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety.

Trait anxiety is known as the propensity of individuals to be anxious regardless of circumstances and so called danger possibilities. Scovel (1978) indicates that trait anxiety is an inseparable part of an individual's personality, and it forces her/him to feel anxious all the time. Similarly, Spielberger (1983) and Brown (1994) state that trait anxiety is stable and more permanent. Thus, it can be explained as an individual's characteristic tendency to feel anxious. Goldberg (1993) asserts that people with high levels of trait anxiety are usually nervous, and they lack sensual balance. Besides its effects on affective aspects, it has been demonstrated in the literature that trait anxiety impairs individuals' cognitive abilities, too (Watson & Clark, 1984; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). In a research study, conducted by Eysenck, MacLeod and Mathews (1987), it was found out under certain situations that there were statistically significant differences between the individuals with high and low anxiety levels in terms of their cognitive performances.

The second type, called state anxiety, occurs when individuals petrify in an unexpected case. Contrary to the trait anxiety, state anxiety is temporary and it does not have a long lasting effect on individuals. Young (1991) indicates that state anxiety is a kind of temporary reaction to certain situations, and emphasizes it is not a continuous case. Thus, state anxiety can be described as a temporarily experienced type of anxiety triggered by particular stimuli (Brown, 1994). Although the two types of anxiety are usually reviewed separately, some researchers have discussed them without separation, too. Aydın (2000), for example, indicates that trait anxiety and state anxiety strongly correlate with each other. However, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) found out in their study that although individuals have the same or almost the same levels of trait anxiety, they might response differently to different conditions.

Upon finding out that anxiety may specifically affect individuals' lives; another type of anxiety has been identified and termed as "situation-specific anxiety" in the literature. Situation-specific anxiety is different from trait anxiety and state anxiety because individuals suffering from it have problems in one specific factor whether they

are anxious in general or not. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), situation-specific anxiety prompts individuals to get anxious during certain types of conditions like taking tests, dealing with math problems, and speaking a foreign language. Yuen and Chu (2004), in a similar manner, define situation-specific anxiety in their study as “the specific forms of anxiety occurring consistently within a given context” (p. 188). Foreign language anxiety, which is considered as a situation-specific type of anxiety by Oh (1992a), is experienced due to learners’ deficient knowledge in the target language. The reason why second or foreign language learning anxiety should be investigated under the situation-specific type is that it provides researchers with more coherent and complete conclusions since diverse aspects of the researched phenomenon can be examined separately and specifically (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Speaking in public, taking written examinations, and performing learning tasks are some of the situations during which learners experience situation-specific anxiety (Zhanibek, 2001). Taking language anxiety as a situation-specific type, researchers may have the chance to focus on one of these situations, and find out more detailed and consistent results.

2.1.2. Facilitative Anxiety and Debilitative Anxiety

Considering “anxiety” as an affecting factor in learning, another separation of anxiety into two other types has been proposed: facilitative anxiety and debilitative anxiety. Alpert and Haber (1960) were the first scholars to discuss anxiety in this respect. They applied scales of general anxiety and academic situations anxiety to college students, and found out that the two specific tests that aimed to investigate participants’ academic situations anxiety were actually measuring different things. As a result of the negative and positive responses, they distinguished one from the other, naming the first as “facilitative anxiety” and the second as “debilitative anxiety”. As to corroborate the earlier findings, Scovel (1978) has also investigated anxiety from different aspects, and divided learner anxiety into two kinds, terming them in the same way as Alpert and Haber (1960) did. These two types of anxiety are called “helpful anxiety” and “harmful anxiety” by Oxford (1999) in his study.

Facilitative anxiety encourages students to confront the educational tasks provided by the teachers, thus, it motivates them to face the difficulties of the tasks and overcome them. Brown (2000) asserts that this type of anxiety affects individuals in a positive way, and that experiencing a little bit of anxiety during some tasks might help

learners keep trying more and eventually perform better. Bailey's (1983) study, which included learner diaries, demonstrated that learners experienced a facilitative type of anxiety when they compared themselves with other students. The reason why the experienced anxiety was called "facilitative" was that the students studied harder upon realizing that some of their fellows were better at performance. Indeed, several other studies have also shown that facilitative anxiety is closely related to high language performance, successful word pronunciation, and good grades in language classes (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Kleinmann, 1977; Chastain, 1975).

Debilitative anxiety, on the other hand, forces students to evade learning tasks and creates unwilling and unsuccessful bulks of students for teachers. In his study, Wilson (2006) states that debilitative anxiety is closely related to underperformance in academic life. Indeed, this type is more frequently investigated and cited in the literature than the previous one. Aida (1994), for example, found out that anxiety had a negative effect on students' grades in language courses. Similarly, another study conducted by Young (1986) revealed that anxiety affected learners' speaking skills in a negative way. Taking the issue further, Horwitz (1991) asserted that anxiety did not have a facilitative role in learning at all, and it only impaired students' learning performances.

It can be deduced from the literature that the difference between the two kinds of anxiety arises from the level of anxiousness felt. Nicaise (1995), to clarify this, states that feeling anxious to some extent may have some positive effects on students and get them ready for the tasks or tests, and thus, it improves their learning performance. However, this is not observable in students with high levels of anxiety. Learners that get impaired by some unwelcome feelings experience debilitative anxiety, and it inhibits them from performing the assigned tasks properly. As a result, underperformance and failure becomes inevitable.

2.2. Foreign Language Anxiety

It has been consistently proven in countless studies that the phenomenon "anxiety" is an unwelcome sense which may sometimes ruin individuals' educational lives. Many years of research into the field show that scholars consider anxiety as a vital variable affecting learning. As mastering a foreign language is also a kind of learning, language teachers, scholars and researchers have not failed to notice its distressing effects on language learning, too. Indeed, it has been asserted by several researchers in a

number of studies that a foreign language class is probably the most difficult and anxiety provoking one for most of the students (MacIntyre, 1995; Liu, 2007). In the light of this knowledge, a number of research studies have been carried out by researchers, language teachers and even students themselves as to clearly make sense of anxiety and its effects on people in the process of language learning.

Although the current terminology “foreign language anxiety” is more modern, research into foreign language anxiety dates back to 1930s. Stengel (1939), as one of the earliest researchers to realize and discuss the timidity shown by language learners, indicated that using a new language might prompt learners to experience some shyness due to their feelings of inadequacy. This detection appeared quite similar to and generated the foundations of the more modern detections and definitions that were introduced by several other researchers in the following decades.

Finding some positive and negative correlations, studies on anxiety and foreign language learning continued extensionally; however, they were incomplete in consistency and significance. Chastain (1975), for example, investigated the affective variables and their involvement in foreign language learning; but although his findings presented positive and negative correlations, they were too complicated to interpret and had no significance at all. Another study, conducted by Tucker (1976), also revealed connections between anxiety and a particular French test; however, the connections disappeared when other language achievement measures stepped in.

The inconsistent results provided by the earlier research studies were not natural, and thus, they attracted the attentions of related researchers and scholars. Scovel (1978) was one of the most important pioneer researchers in the field as he successfully detected the exact source of significance problems seen in the previous research studies. Another pioneer researcher, Horwitz (2010), describes Scovel’s (1978) study as a turning point in the study of anxiety and language learning since his detections shed light on the dark path of the following researchers. In an attempt to investigate the earlier findings and their consistency problems, Scovel (1978) examined the then available literature on language anxiety. As stated above, although there were studies in the field, their results were not rational as they revealed unexpected results and lacked consistency and significance. More precisely, some of the earlier studies ended up with the intriguing conclusion that high-anxious students performed better at language tasks than those with low levels of anxiety. According to Scovel (1978) the reason underlying the mystery was the misapplication of different anxiety scales (e.g., general anxiety

scale, test anxiety scale, facilitative anxiety scale, debilitating anxiety scale) on language learning contexts. He asserted that it was inevitable to eventuate in conflicting results as long as the researchers implemented irrelevant anxiety scales to measure foreign language learning anxiety. As a result, Scovel (1978) suggested that researchers concerning foreign language consider the numerous types of anxiety available in the literature, and be crystal-clear about the anxiety type they would like to investigate.

Utilizing the earlier suggestion, Gardner (1985) put forward the claim that foreign language learning was impaired by a form of anxiety that was neither trait nor state; but instead, was specific to language learning contexts. One year later, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) made a significant contribution to the literature and took it a step further by introducing the Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) which they described as a situation-specific type in their study. According to Horwitz and her colleagues, foreign language anxiety was a situation-specific one because it was “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128). This definition of foreign language anxiety changed gradually into a classic, and was cited in a number of studies. However; other more recent definitions were also set forth in the following years. Oh (1992a), for example, also considered foreign language anxiety as a situation-specific anxiety experienced during in-class learning which resulted from individual beliefs, feelings of insufficiency, and worry about possible failures. Young (1999), in a similar vein, defined it as the fear of and negative affective response to learning and using a new language.

Together with the genuine definition, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) also introduced a particular scale to measure the specific kind of anxiety experienced in foreign language learning contexts: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The scale, later on, became one of the most frequently utilized foreign language anxiety measurement tools due to the consistent results it provided (Cheng, 2004). Since they conceived that foreign language anxiety stemmed from the fear of performance evaluation in academic and social situations, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) associated foreign language anxiety with three other specific performance anxieties, and included items in their scale to specifically measure those anxiety types: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. It should be kept in mind, however, that Horwitz and her colleagues did not conceive foreign language anxiety as solely the composition of those three specific types of anxiety, but

instead, they asserted that foreign language anxiety was too broad in scope to be studied as a whole (Ohata, 2005a).

Communication apprehension is defined by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) as “a type of shyness characterized by fear or anxiety about communicating with people” (p. 127). Actually, it associates both with a native and foreign language. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) indicate that communication apprehension or reactions corresponding with it have a significant role in terms of foreign language anxiety. Indeed, it has been consistently found out that communication apprehension and its debilitating face have detrimental effects on individuals’ foreign language performances (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 2000). These impairing effects might be attributed to the fact that language learners with communication apprehension generally evade communicative situations, and they are less willing to take part in communication activities (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). As a result of this avoidance, they fall behind their peers, and eventually give up trying more. Besides its impacts on academic situations, communication apprehension seems to impair individuals’ social interactions, too (McCroskey, 1992). Individuals with communication apprehension generally show timid behaviours, and they fail to make friends easily.

Fear of negative evaluation becomes evident when language learners feel incomplete as to leave the necessary social impression on their peers in their social networks (Aydın, 2009). Since some language learners conceive performance in the target language as something to be evaluated by others, they generally worry about being ridiculed. As a result, they end up avoiding communication. Just like communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation has been found to impair individuals’ foreign language performances, too. Kitano (2001), for example, in an attempt to investigate the effects of fear of negative evaluation on speaking, found out that the higher the level of fear of negative evaluation got, the higher anxiety the participants experienced in speaking. Similarly, Aydın (2008) also investigated the correlation between foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation with a group of 112 language learners. He ended up with the conclusion that the participants suffered from both, and that fear of negative evaluation was a vital source of foreign language anxiety all by itself.

Finally, test anxiety refers to a kind of performance anxiety which results from fear of failure in tests taken in academic situations (Gordon & Sarason, 1955). Learners

with a high level of test anxiety suffer from not being able to do well in tests even though they have sufficient knowledge of the contents. As a result, learners with test anxiety are afraid of being academically evaluated as they believe they will fail (Horwitz & Young, 1991). Due to the fear it causes, test anxiety has also been reported to impair learners' language test results, their global language achievements, and specific language skill performances (El-Banna, 1989; Julkunen, 1992; Haskin, Smith & Racine, 2003).

2.2.1. Sources and Effects of Foreign Language Anxiety

Due to the fact that foreign language anxiety results in unfavourable reactions, and it has the potential of demoralizing learners and even deterring them from language learning (Phillips, 1991), researchers and scholars have been busy investigating, defining, and sufficiently measuring it (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012) for a long time. In order for a phenomenon to be comprehended clearly, and treated in accordance, it should be discovered in all terms. Thus, finding out the sources and effects of foreign language anxiety is of vital importance as for the researchers to make reasonable suggestions out of their studies.

It is understandable that language instructors and teachers are desirous of ascertaining the sources underlying foreign language anxiety so that they have the chance to modify their classes for a more relaxed environment (Horwitz, 2001). To assist language teachers, a large number of studies have been carried out with the intention of discovering the potential sources and effects of learners' global foreign language anxiety. However, the findings are not explicit just like the phenomenon itself is not; thus, the literature presents several alternatives.

In an attempt to search for the sources of foreign language anxiety, Bailey (1983), for example, found out that comparison, language tests, and relationship with teachers were the factors that learners related their language anxiety experiences to. In her review article, Young (1991) suggested that the sources of foreign language anxiety be identified in order to look for ways to reduce it, and she offered six potential sources: "1) personal and interpersonal anxieties; 2) learner beliefs about language learning; 3) instructor beliefs about language teaching; 4) instructor-learner interactions; 5) classroom procedures; and 6) language testing" (p. 427). It can be seen that her list of potential foreign language anxiety sources comprises the earlier suggestions. Chan and

Wu (2004) conducted a suchlike study with 601 students from 205 elementary schools in Taipei County, and as a result of their research, they grouped the sources of foreign language anxiety into five categories: “low proficiency, fear of negative evaluation, competition of games, anxious personality, and pressure from students themselves and parents” (p. 306). Interpreting that most of the items in Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) were offering researchers to focus on native language performances, Sparks, Ganschow and their colleagues (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991; Ganschow, Sparks, Anderson, Javorshy, Skinner & Patton, 1994) directed their attention to the role of native language performance in foreign language learning anxiety. They asserted that foreign language learning problems might be derived from learners’ native language performances, and that deficiencies in native language could have a vital causal role in foreign language anxiety (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991). To prove their assertion, they conducted a research study, and indeed, they found out statistically significant differences between the three groups which they identified as high-anxious, average-anxious, and low-anxious. The students with high and average levels of anxiety were observed to get worse marks in both native and foreign languages than those with lower levels of anxiety (Ganschow, Sparks, Anderson, Javorshy, Skinner & Patton, 1994). So, it can be deduced from their study that foreign language anxiety might as well stem from language learners’ native language problems. With the purpose of finding out the sources, as perceived by the learners themselves, another research study was conducted by Von Worde (2003). Her mixed-method study demonstrated that students perceived “non-comprehension”, “speaking activities”, “pedagogical and instructional practices”, “error-correction”, and “native speakers” (p. 3) as the major sources of anxiety experienced during language learning process. She suggested, as a conclusion, that language anxiety be reduced as to increase language performance and learner motivation. Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) considered the matter from a different angle in their study, and found out that perfectionism might also correlate with foreign language anxiety. Anxious participants in their study revealed higher levels of interest in their language mistakes than those without anxiety, which denotes that perfectionism and foreign language anxiety might have mutual features that could impair foreign language learning (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). Besides those aforementioned potential situational sources, several other research studies have revealed that although they are not direct sources, some learner variables like gender (Hismanoglu, 2013); age (Bailey, Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 2000); ethnicity (Woodrow,

2006); learning style (Bailey, Daley & Onwuegbuzie, 1999); self-efficacy (Anyadubalu, 2010); and self-confidence (Park & Lee, 2005) also correlate with foreign language anxiety, and thus with foreign language performance. In brief, the related literature presents countless studies and diverse findings in terms of the potential sources and affecting factors of foreign language anxiety, which might be interpreted that the phenomenon is considerably sophisticated.

As for the effects of foreign language anxiety, there exists a dichotomy in the relevant literature since research findings have divided the effects of foreign language anxiety into two separate forms as “facilitative” and “debilitative”. As described in above parts, facilitative effects of anxiety have the potential of motivating language learners. Gaudry and Spielberger (1971), for example, deduced from their research findings that anxiety played a motivating role in terms of easy tasks while its effects turned into impairing and demotivating on more complicated and difficult ones. Ehrman (1996) also describes this facilitative effect in her study by giving example quotations from her interviews with the participants which demonstrate that a little bit of anxiety helps students motivate tasks. Bailey (1983) relates these motivating effects of anxiety to competitive natures of those language learners who make constructive use of their low-anxieties. Seeing that debilitating and impairing effects of anxiety were more frequently reported by learners in studies, researchers and scholars began attaching the more importance to those negative effects. Tobias (1986), for instance, asserted that anxiety impaired learners’ performances in three phases: input, processing, and output. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) borrowed her idea of cognitive processing stages, designed three tasks for each stage, and created a new scale to measure anxiety at all those three stages. They ended up with the conclusion that anxiety and the stage-specific tasks had statistically significant correlations. According to their research study, the first stage is the input stage. At this stage, learners are provided with the new information, and they code it in their memories. However, when the pace and difficulty of the presentation are beyond the learners’ depths, they get bewildered, and as a result they feel anxious. Since the stages are interconnected, and learning is accomplished when three of them are completely fulfilled (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a), experiencing anxiety and performance problems at the first stage might impact the other two stages, too. The latter stage is the processing stage, during which learners place the input they have already been provided. At this stage, students actually learn the target language and they start thinking in it, thus, they experience apprehension due to their

feelings of inadequacy (Bailey, Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 2003). The final stage is the output stage. According to Chan and Wu (2004), learners mostly feel anxious at the output stage because it “has been regarded by the majority of teachers and parents as the most important indicator of students’ learning” (p. 295). In short, since learners are required to use the information in a written or spoken way to show others that they actually learned, they produce anxiety. A number of other studies have also been conducted as to investigate the detrimental effects of foreign language anxiety on global language achievement; however, their results vary as those of studies investigating the potential sources of foreign language anxiety. Horwitz (1986), one of the earliest scholars on the field, enounced that foreign language anxiety and language achievement had a significant negative correlation, which meant high levels of anxiety caused underperformance in the target language. MacIntyre (1999) elaborated the effects of anxiety on foreign language learning, and he suggested grouping those under four categories: academic effects, cognitive effects, social effects, and personal effects. Later studies to investigate separately those effects demonstrate that their negative correlations with global language achievement are also statistically significant (Kayaoğlu & Sağlamel, 2013). Another study conducted by Aida (1994) among Japanese language learners also revealed connections between anxiety and language achievement. Her results demonstrated that high-anxious learners were less successful than those who were more relaxed. To corroborate Aida (1994), Yamashiro and McLaughlin (2001) carried out a suchlike research study with 220 university students, and came to the conclusion that lower levels of language achievement are significantly associated with higher levels of anxiety. In an attempt to investigate the effects of foreign language anxiety on Taiwanese university students’ English language achievement, Kao and Craigie (2010) divided their participants into three groups in accordance with their English language performances. The results indicated that “Group A” students, whose English achievement scores were in the top of all of the participants, felt less anxious than “Group B” and “Group C” students. Focusing on a more advanced group of language learners, who were intended English teachers, Rodriguez (1995) reached the conclusion that students’ final grades and their anxiety scale scores had significant negative correlations. In relation to this, Horwitz (1996) put forward the claim that even language teachers might be prone to experiencing foreign language anxiety. The idea was later on borrowed by Hismanoglu (2013) in an attempt to see whether English language teacher candidates of Turkish university students experienced

foreign language anxiety. He ended up with the conclusion that although it was at a low level, foreign language anxiety existed among the participants.

As a result, although most of the relevant studies focus on academic achievement, foreign language anxiety has been found to correlate with several negative effects on psychological, physical, and social dimensions, too. Some symptoms of psychological effects may be listed as shyness, feeling fear, petrifying, and having memory problems; while fast heartbeat, tension, and dry mouth can be observed in individuals suffering from physical effects. As for the negative social effects, silence in classes, reluctance to tasks, absenteeism, and desistance from language learning process can be given as examples (Andrade & Williams, 2009).

2.2.2. Foreign Language Anxiety over the Reading, Writing and Listening Skills

Following the conceptualization of foreign language anxiety as a separate and unique type of anxiety existing in second or foreign language learning situations, it has been consistently revealed with the help of numerous research studies that anxiety usually correlates negatively with global foreign language achievement. However, its engagement in specific language skills has also been wondered by scholars and language teachers. This curiosity has inspired scholars to take up investigating whether anxiety experienced during specific skill tasks is distinguishable from general foreign language anxiety or not. With the aim of answering their research questions, some scholars have even invented specific language skill anxiety scales to measure the possible particular type of anxiety.

Saito, Garza and Horwitz (1999), for example, separately defined the foreign language reading anxiety in all dimensions, and offered a genuine scale to specifically measure it: Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS). The preliminary study to use the scale for the first time showed that reading in the target language might also produce anxiety, and that learners' grades got worse in accordance with the negative correlation of their foreign language reading anxiety levels (Saito, Garza & Horwitz, 1999). Following the development of the scale, Sellers (2000) conducted a suchlike research study in a different context with 89 university-level Spanish language learners. Applying the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) in her study together, she ended up with the analogue conclusion that more high-anxious learners recalled fewer text-related

contents. Zhao (2009), in a more recent research study carried out with 125 Chinese learners, found out that there existed a significant negative correlation between foreign language reading performance and the specific type of anxiety related to it. Her study also revealed that the levels of general and reading-specific anxieties were the same, which meant that the two types were interconnected although they were separate.

Daly and Miller (1975) were the first scholars to investigate anxiety in particular relation to the writing skill. They adapted the items of several other anxiety and apprehension scales, developed an original tool as to specifically measure writing skill anxiety, and termed it as Writing Apprehension Test (WAT). The initial experiments of the test were made on 164 undergraduate students with the results revealing that foreign language writing anxiety was distinct from general foreign language anxiety, and that it significantly affected performance in writing tasks in a negative way. Believing that Daly and Miller's (1975) Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) was unidimensional and lacked construct validity, Cheng (2004) invented a newer and more modern writing anxiety scale: Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI). The 27-item inventory was pilot-tested, and the results indicated that it was both valid and reliable enough as to be used in the further research studies. Cheng's (2004) study also concluded that the type of anxiety specific to foreign language writing had significant negative correlations with its sub-factors like somatic anxiety, cognitive anxiety, and avoidance behaviour (Cheng, 2004). Last but not least, Yan and Xiaoqing (2010) also targeted to investigate the effects foreign language writing anxiety among 453 non-English undergraduates, and found out that there were significant negative correlations between the participants' writing performances and their foreign language writing anxiety levels.

In an attempt to investigate anxiety over the listening skill, Vogely (1998) provided the participants with a blank questionnaire, and asked them to write down whether they experienced anxiety during listening tasks, what made them feel so, and how it could be reduced. She found out that the students actually experienced anxiety during listening tasks due to several factors. However, her study lacked significance as it was not statistical at all. With the purpose of ending up with more statistical and significant results, another study was conducted by Kim (2000). She designed a valid and reliable scale (Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale – [FLLAS]) specifically to measure listening anxiety, and conducted a mixed-method research study in an attempt to investigate the effects of foreign language listening anxiety on Korean

language learners' performances. Her study revealed that listening anxiety was specific, and that listening proficiency and listening anxiety were significantly and negatively correlated. Another study with the same purpose was conducted by Elkhafaifi (2005). By applying the relevant modifications, he changed the already available Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (Saito, Garza & Horwitz, 1999) into the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS), and made the first use of that new foreign language listening anxiety measurement tool in his study. Although they were namesake, his scale was actually different from Kim's (2000) scale. The results of his study, still, revealed the analogue consequence that general foreign language anxiety and foreign language listening anxiety were distinguishably different, but were also interrelated, and they both impaired language achievement.

As a conclusion, the currently available literature presents the adequate information that anxiety is a vital affecting factor on learner performances of the specific language skills although it has not been discovered in all dimensions completely yet. Moreover, limited research studies have shown that although they are not specific language skills, grammar courses (VanPatten & Glass, 1999) and vocabulary learning (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b) might also correlate significantly and negatively with foreign language anxiety.

2.2.3. Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

Both because the major aim of this research study is to investigate university-level students' foreign language speaking test anxieties together with the potential sources, and because the speaking skill is considered to be the most anxiety-provoking one amongst the four skills (Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009), reviewing the speaking skill separated from the others seemed more expedient and reasonable.

Except for the general foreign language learning anxiety, a lot of learners have the fear of taking part in speaking tasks or tests of the target language (Subaşı, 2010). Indeed, it has been found out that high-anxious language learners tend to be less willing than their low-anxious classmates to answer questions orally (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). In their sacrosanct study, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) consider this fear together with the "communication apprehension" category of general foreign language anxiety, and term it as "oral communication anxiety" (p.127). They take a psychological approach to the matter, and indicate that individuals with characteristic problems in

public speeches are liable to face even more challenges when they take part in communicative situations in the target language since they know they are being watched constantly. In addition, they state that oral communication anxiety might also derive from the self-perception that one will not be able to understand others, and in relation, not be able to express herself/himself in a desired way. Finally, giving the speaking tests as example situations, they suggest that oral communication anxiety be considered under the “test anxiety” component of foreign language anxiety, too (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). As a result, it may be deduced, from their views, that foreign language speaking anxiety holds three components (e.g., communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety) as does general foreign language anxiety.

Some other researchers have also attempted to investigate and interpret the foreign language speaking anxiety as to enrich the relevant literature. Tanveer (2007), for example, defines this anxiety as the excess feeling of fear triggered when an oral communication starts. Young (1992) asserts that developing speaking skill is the most challenging task of foreign language learning, and thus, it is the most anxiety-provoking skill. In her another study, Young (1991) also sequences the reactions of language learners suffering from foreign language speaking anxiety as petrifying when asked to perform, rejecting to speak or keeping in silence, and not being able to remember the necessary vocabulary to conduct a dialogue. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), in a similar vein, argue that the production phase of speaking skill causes the highest level of language anxiety, and that dealing with the oral aspects of the target language is directly related to feeling anxious. To corroborate the earlier findings, Wilson (2006) also indicates that speaking is one of the major sources of general foreign language anxiety.

Arnold (2002) acknowledges that speaking in the target language is certainly the most difficult task, and connects this difficulty partly with inadequacies in linguistic knowledge. However, he asserts that other three skills would also get impaired by anxiety if linguistic knowledge were the only affecting factor, and questions the distinction of the speaking skill. What differentiates speaking from the other skills, for Arnold (2002), is simply “the public nature of the skill, the embarrassment suffered from exposing our language imperfections in front of others” (p. 53). Thus, the probability to end up with negative evaluation from teachers or peers crucially intensifies the anxiety experienced during speaking (Arnold, 2002). Due to the fact that foreign language speaking anxiety is a frequently encountered specific type of foreign

language anxiety, the literature, although in a fewer number, presents some studies investigating the nature, sources, and effects of this specific type of anxiety.

Balemir (2009), for instance, believes that the nature of speaking should be examined with priority, and introduces speaking itself as a source of anxiety. He also asserts that the sophisticated form of “communicative competence” may give rise to troubles and prompt language learners to experience anxiety during speaking. The reason why learners get anxious while speaking the target language might partly be the fact that they are also required to take into consideration the sub-categories (i.e., grammatical, discourse, socio-linguistic, and strategic competences) of the communicative competence (Balemir, 2009). Another study, conducted by Aydın (2000) to investigate the sources of foreign language speaking and writing anxieties revealed four anxiety-producing factors: personal reasons, learners’ beliefs, teachers’ manners, and teaching and testing procedures. Kitano (2001) was another researcher to inquire why language learners felt anxious during speaking tasks. However, instead of investigating the sources in general, she preferred examining the correlations of two specific factors (i.e., fear of negative evaluation, and self-perceived speaking ability) with foreign language speaking anxiety. Her study, conducted with 212 university-level Japanese students, revealed that language learners’ levels of speaking anxiety and fear of negative evaluation correlated significantly and positively. More clearly, the participants were inclined to feel more anxious as they were more afraid of being negatively evaluated. Another revealing of the study was that students’ self-perceptions of their speaking abilities were also factors to correlate speaking anxiety. However, this significant correlation was negative, and denoted that as students felt their abilities were lower than those of their peers, they became more anxious about speaking (Kitano, 2001). In a more recent study, Luo (2014) aimed at finding out whether learners of Chinese as a Foreign Language experienced foreign language speaking anxiety, and if so, what the potential affecting variables behind were. Her study concluded that the average score of participants’ speaking anxiety levels was not high; however, it also demonstrated that the number of students experiencing foreign language speaking anxiety was still considerable. As for the affecting factors, it was revealed that gender, perceived difficulty level of the target language, and self-perceived language learning ability and achievement had significant effects on foreign language speaking anxiety, while proficiency level did not have any significant influence on it (Luo, 2014). In an attempt to examine the level and potential sources of foreign language speaking anxiety,

Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014) conducted a mixed-method case study in a Turkish context with 383 university-level preparatory school students. The quantitative findings of their study, quite similar to those of Luo's (2014), indicated that Turkish preparatory school students had a low level of foreign language speaking anxiety on average; however, the qualitative arm revealed that they actually found speaking in the target language to be anxiety-producing. The participants cited pronunciation, instant questions, and the fears of negative evaluation and making mistakes as the major sources of their foreign language speaking anxiety (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014). Last but not least, reframing the phenomenon, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) inquired the relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and perfectionism. By examining the participants' reactions to their own video-taped oral performances, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) realized that anxious and perfectionist language learners have mutual worries. Thus, they ended up with the conclusion that along with the aforementioned factors, perfectionism might also get involved into the matter, and impair the oral performances of language learners. Their research study seems of particular importance in relation to this one as the participants in this study are not expected to worry about their academic achievements due to the fact that they are not compulsory preparatory school students, and that they may still move on to their faculties even in failure conditions.

Interestingly, the related literature presents less research studies to investigate the effects of foreign language speaking anxiety on oral achievement than those targeted at seeking the potential sources behind. There exist, however, some appreciable researches that significantly correlates anxiety with oral performance in debilitating ways. Phillips (1992), for an early instance, in an attempt to investigate the effects of anxiety on learners' foreign language oral test performances, found out that anxiety had a significant and negative effect on oral achievement. Although the researcher did not utilize a particular foreign language speaking anxiety inventory, participants' Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) scores revealed that there existed significant negative correlations between their anxiousness and abilities to show performance on the speaking test. These negative correlations denoted that higher-anxious language learners were more prone "to say less, to produce shorter communication units, and to use fewer dependent clauses and target structures" (p. 18) than their low-anxious peers (Phillips, 1992). A suchlike research study was conducted by Xianping (2004) in China with 97 non-English college students with the intention to investigate the effects of foreign language anxiety on oral performance in classroom.

The mixed-method study revealed the analogue conclusion that the quality of the students' oral performances was negatively affected by the anxiety they experienced. Woodrow's (2006) research study seems of vital importance because, contrary to the earlier researchers, she made a distinction between general foreign language anxiety and foreign language speaking anxiety in her study. By taking into consideration the in-class and out-of-class anxiety variables, she developed the Second Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (SLSAS), and implemented it instead of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The findings of the study revealed that target language speaking anxiety was a distinguishably significant predictor of oral performance and achievement. Some other research studies have also shown that foreign language speaking anxiety is gaugeable, it exists in a visibly separated form, and it has a close negative relationship foreign language speaking performance (Tianjian, 2010; Gai & Yang, 2010).

As a result, in condition that language learners are supposed to take part in communicative activities and required to speak in the target language, they usually become anxious causing themselves to worry excessively (MacIntyre, 1995). Research studies have shown that although it is within the scope of general foreign language anxiety, this worry is distinguishably particular, and is cited in diverse terms such as "Oral Communication Anxiety (OCA)", "Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety (FLSA)", and "Communication Apprehension (CA)". Together with the aforementioned academic effects, some physical symptoms also stem from it. Koçak (2010), for example, states that fear of speaking may lead even to stomach-ache problems. However, sweating, trembling and wobbling are also amongst the major symptoms to cause problems for the learners during the spoken tasks and tests.

2.3. Test Anxiety and Learning

Due to the fact that testing is an inevitable part of many tasks like getting a job, graduating from a school and winning or losing a competition, the specific kind of anxiety related to being tested also becomes inescapable for people. According to many researchers, test anxiety is one of the most significant factors that have impact on test results, and it is also considered to be a pre-indicator of test performance (Zeidner, 1998; Eysenck, 2001).

In terms of learning, test anxiety is a very common phenomenon that generally occurs due to fear of failure, lack of confidence in tested abilities and other affecting factors that work while students are taking an examination. It is felt and lived by a significant number of students that take examinations in their educational lives (Zarei, Fini & Fini, 2010). Like aforementioned other specific types of anxiety, test anxiety has also been separated from trait anxiety, and it has long been investigated as distinguished from the trait anxiety and others.

Studies on test anxiety date back even to the beginning of the twentieth century. However, Mandler and Sarason's (1952) study was a milestone because they were the first scholars to discuss test anxiety as a distinct type of general anxiety. According to them, test anxiety was an unpleasant response to the perceived threatening nature of tests. In an attempt to investigate the effects of anxiety on tests, Mandler and Sarason (1952) first developed a questionnaire as to specifically measure learners' test anxieties, and termed it as the "Test Anxiety Questionnaire" (TAQ). In accordance with their answers to the questionnaire, the participants were divided into categories as high-test-anxious and low-test-anxious students. The findings of their study demonstrated that high-test-anxious students had significantly worse test scores than their low-test-anxious friends on particular intelligence tests. Sarason (1958), later on, developed another test anxiety measurement tool: Test Anxiety Scale (TAS). He obtained the analogue result that test anxiety and learners' performances were inversely correlated, and that low-test-anxious learners were more likely to end up with better performance scores.

In one of his later studies, Sarason (1977) defined test anxiety as the proneness to view "the consequences of inadequate performance in an evaluative situation" (p. 214) as alarming and threatening. Depending on the results of his Test Anxiety Scale (TAS), he asserted that learners' performances on difficult and complex tasks were significantly and negatively correlated with their high levels of test anxiety. However, he also stated that the effects of test anxiety decreased as the complexity and difficulty of the tasks lessened (Sarason, 1977). Spielberger (1980) and Zeidner (1998), in a similar vein, believe that test anxiety is a physiological and behavioural expression of the stress felt during the evaluation part of a test or task. It might be deduced from the early interpretations that test anxiety is directly concerned with undesired failure results. Indeed, according to Sarason, Sarason and Pierce (1990), a high-test-anxious learner does not need to worry about failing when she/he is not in an assessment environment.

Mentioned fear becomes activated, however, in condition that students are to be tested with the aim of grading.

Oh (1992a) considers test anxiety as a situation-specific one that occurs during performance and originates from feelings of inadequacy in tested skills and fear of failure. However, Spielberger and Vagg (1995b) indicate that “state anxiety is conceptualized as a situation-specific form of test anxiety” (p. 9) including worry and emotionality. Hancock (2001), on the other hand, informs that test anxiety is considered as a trait anxiety by some scholars and researchers. Depending on the definitions, however, it can be interpreted that test anxiety is a situation-specific one due to the fact that it is not permanent like the trait anxiety and does not happen randomly like the state anxiety; but it occurs all the time learners are required to perform specific tasks like presentations and oral examinations.

Like the phenomenon “anxiety” itself, test anxiety has also been investigated in a number of research studies for its effects and sources to be discovered. As to clearly make sense of its effects, Liebert and Morris (1967) conducted a research study and ended up with the conclusion that test anxiety was made up of two main components: emotionality and worry. According to the researchers, emotionality was connected with different physical responses to tests such as sweating, continually looking at the furniture in the examination room, pen-juggling and nail-biting. Worry, on the other hand, involved the psychological and cognitive aspects of test anxiety and it could not be observed like emotionality. The study also concluded that worry played a more powerful role in students’ performance overalls than emotionality, which might be interpreted that cognitive and psychological aspects have a greater effect on students’ test performances. Culler and Holahan’s (1980) study revealed that test anxiety correlated significantly and negatively both with the students’ grades and their study skills. According to the study, high-test-anxious students possessed poorer studying habits than their friends. Moreover, high-test-anxious students were also found to have problems in deciding and organizing the necessary learning material (Naveh-Benjamin, McKeachie & Lin, 1987). In a more recent study by Salehi and Marefat (2014), it was revealed, once more, that test anxiety and learners’ performances in tests were inversely correlated. Finally, Hembree’s (1988) detailed review of the then available literature on test anxiety ended up with the conclusion that test anxiety consistently and significantly impaired performance, and that it caused poorer test results.

As for the sources of test anxiety, Hill and Eaton (1977) assert that limitation of time in tests is the major logical reason behind. They found out that high-test-anxious students solved mathematics questions as quickly as their low-test-anxious friends without time limitation. However, they tended to make more mistakes, spend more time on questions, and cheat when the exams were delivered in a limited time. In an attempt to investigate the correlations between test anxiety and several factors, Rezazadeh and Tavakoli (2009) found out that females had higher levels of test anxiety than males, and that test anxiety correlated significantly and negatively with performance. Hembree's (1988) aforementioned review of studies also revealed that gender, ability, and school grade level were among the factors producing test anxiety. Moreover, test validity, time limit, test format, test environment, and test techniques are also amongst the affecting factors of test anxiety (Young, 1999).

Although test results were considered as the main criterion in the earlier studies, it has been demonstrated that test anxiety does not only affect the results of tests. It may also have a negative impact on students' academic learning performances (Everson and Millsap, 1991). Abulghasemi (2008), in a similar vein, states that test anxiety and learners' academic performances correlate significantly and negatively. Students with high level of test anxiety are generally passive in learning, they do not attach enough importance to their assignments, and thus, they end up collecting low grades (Mohammadyari, 2012).

Considering test anxiety as a consequence of studying a lot is a mistake for some researchers (Gürses, Kaya, Doğar, Güneş and Yolcu, 2010). What actually brings test anxiety is the fact that students worry excessively about not being able to succeed in the examinations. Worrying about the possible bad results of examinations is quite natural, and as stated in one of the above parts, a small amount of anxiety may even be facilitating. However, keeping it below the maximum limit is a very difficult task to handle for students. When the anxiety is experienced too much before or during tests, and it becomes debilitating, it may cause failure in the abilities tested (Zinbarg & Barlow, 1995).

As a result, high levels of test anxiety and test performance are significantly correlated, and the correlation is negative according to Hembree's (1988) literature review. The recommendation is that research should be increased, and the phenomenon "test anxiety" be suppressed before it starts spreading in waves.

2.3.1. Test Anxiety in Foreign Language Learning, Its Sources and Effects

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) assert that test anxiety is not specific to foreign language learning situations, but it is a general anxiety problem instead. Aida (1994) also found out in a research study that test anxiety was not a significant source of foreign language anxiety. However, together with global performance and other specific skill performances, it has been consistently shown that test performance is also impaired by anxiety during foreign language learning process. Indeed, test anxiety has been considered as an important component of general foreign language learning anxiety by some scholars and researchers. According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), for example, test anxiety is a distinct component of general foreign language anxiety due to the fact that most foreign language classes feature performance evaluation. Students with significant levels of test anxiety set non-realistic goals for themselves, and conceive imperfect test scores as underperformance. Due to the abundance of tests and quizzes in foreign language learning situations, test anxiety has been a considerably important affecting factor of foreign language learners' language learning performances (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Some other studies have similarly revealed that test anxiety and foreign language anxiety are significantly and negatively correlated, which denotes that taking foreign language tests is conceived as an anxiety-provoking situation for language learners, and test anxiety is a considerably vital affecting factor in terms of foreign language learning (Önem, 2010; Tsai, 2013).

Several studies in the related literature evidence that test anxiety in foreign language learning contexts stems from various causal factors, and correlates significantly with diverse variables. An early study by Young (1991), aimed at finding out effective ways to reduce foreign language classroom anxiety, for example, indicates that together with some other factors, language tests also cause anxiety among foreign language learners. Two major sources of foreign language test anxiety for language learners are briefly described in the study. Accordingly, learners suffer from test anxiety when they study the material delivered during the classes, and end up being tested through irrelevant test content. Being required to take a test prepared in an inappropriate technique is another factor contributing to test anxiety in foreign language contexts. If learners are delivered the input in a communicative environment, but given a grammar test afterwards, they naturally feel anxious (Young, 1991). In a deeper view, Young (1999) puts forward seven factors that contribute to the existence of test anxiety in

foreign language contexts: test validity, time limits, test formats, test techniques, test length, clarity of test instructions and test environment. To corroborate her findings, Ohata (2005b) also exemplified the time limit as an anxiety-producing factor during language tests. He indicated that fear of ending up with bad scores is also a considerably vital source of test anxiety among language learners. Inquiring whether language proficiency levels had any significant correlations with test anxiety, Rotenberg (2002) found out that less proficient language learners were indeed more anxious about their test performances, which might be denoted, language proficiency is also amongst the affecting factors. Qashoa (2012), in a similar vein, assert that “linguistic competence, poor study skills, time limit, test techniques, formats, teacher and social considerations” (p. 7) might be listed as main reasons for test anxiety. The relevant literature indicates that some other situational variables concerning physical environment, demographic background, and academic implementations are also amongst the associated affecting factors. Bushnell (1978), for example, implemented high-anxious and low-anxious students’ mid-term and final tests in two different physical conditions: large halls and small language classrooms. The findings revealed that the physical environment is a significant determinant of foreign language test anxiety. In his large scale study with 1,348 UK schoolchildren, Putwain (2007) investigated the correlations of socio-demographic variables with test anxiety. He ended up with the conclusion that test anxiety had significant correlations with gender, ethnicity and socio-economic background of learners. Finally, several studies have shown that the emergence and increase of test anxiety depend substantially on diverse test techniques, formats, and instructions, too (Hansen, 1984; Oh, 1992b; Mandelson, 1973).

The detrimental effects of test anxiety on foreign language learners have also been demonstrated consistently. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), as an early instance, assert that although high-test-anxious language learners have the necessary grammatical knowledge, they forget, due to the test anxiety, what they know during tests. To corroborate their findings, Naveh-Benjamin, McKeachie and Lin (1987) also indicate that anxious language learners are not able to recall the necessary information during test situations. In an attempt to investigate the debilitating effects of test anxiety on language learners, Madsen (1982) administered six different language tests to 114 learners. His study ended up with the conclusion that the most anxiety-provoking language tests were both physically and academically debilitating, denoting that high-test-anxious language learners’ test performances were significantly worse than their

low-anxious peers. Julkunen's (1992) study did not only find a link between anxiety and foreign language learning performance, but it also revealed that test anxiety significantly impaired language learners' actual language abilities, and prevented them from performing in tests. His findings might be interpreted that together with general foreign language anxiety, test anxiety might as well pose an obstacle to better performance. More recently, Salehi and Marefat (2014) administered the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and the Test Anxiety Scale (TAS) to 200 language learners, and correlated the gathered anxiety scores with the participants' final test scores. They came to the conclusion that both types of anxiety were in significant and strong correlation, and that both had negative effects on students' final test scores. Saha's (2014) study demonstrates how test anxiety impairs language learners before and during tests. Accordingly, before the tests, anxiety distracts learners from studying and reviewing crucial points, and directs them to memorize the information. Due to the fact that the information is memorized, it slips from their minds, and the learners find themselves left with nothing during tests. Aydın, Yavuz and Yeşilyurt (2006) also came to the analogue conclusion that test anxiety had debilitating effects on foreign language learners. Their study revealed that test anxiety resulted in physical and psychological problems, affected motivation and performance negatively, prevented learners from making use of their actual information, and it discouraged learners from learning. Finally, a skill-based study by Tsai and Li (2012) indicated that foreign language reading performance was also negatively correlated with test anxiety, which might be interpreted that test anxiety is a pervasive phenomenon in terms of foreign language learning.

2.3.2. Foreign Language Speaking Test Anxiety

Due to its complex nature, speaking might be considered as an anxiety-producing task itself, as described earlier. Studies demonstrate that under testing and evaluation circumstances of the speaking skill, the challenge gets worse, and language learners face the highest levels of foreign language anxiety. This might also be attributed to the fact that complicated competences and higher levels of proficiency are required simultaneously in order for a learner to speak. Indeed, as Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) assert, "oral tests have the potential of provoking both test anxiety and oral communication anxiety" (p. 128) at the same time. Their view seems precisely true;

however, since speaking tests are conducted in partners or groups, fear of negative evaluation by learners' peers might also get involved into the situation, and make the process more difficult than expected. Paker and Höl (2012), in their study, found out that speaking exams made up the most challenging and anxiety-producing parts of foreign language tests for learners. According to their study, language learners are impaired by concentration problems, self-confidence lacks, limited time periods, and tester attitudes during speaking tests. Since tests are inseparable instruments for the evaluation of the material taught, taking them away seems not possible. Thus, the phenomenon "anxiety" over foreign language speaking tests is being tried to be discovered in all dimensions, and the related researches usually focus on its sources and effects.

Although speaking in public in the target language is commonly accepted as the most stressful task during the process of foreign language learning (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Young, 1986), speaking skill seems to attract less attention of researchers. General speaking anxiety and test anxiety are measured separately by means of diverse inventories; however, the literature seems too limited in terms of the specific type of anxiety scale related to speaking tests.

In an attempt to investigate English learning Chinese university students' speaking test anxiety, Liu (2007) developed an Oral English Test Anxiety Scale (OETAS), and implemented it to her students together with interviews. The findings of the mixed-method study concluded that the participants felt anxious during the speaking tests. It was also proven that oral English test anxiety was significantly and negatively correlated with students' test performances, denoting that the higher-test-anxious students' scores were actually worse than those of their lower-anxious counterparts. Another study by Shomoosii, Kassaian and Ketabi (2009) compared the levels of anxiety experienced during speaking and listening tests. The research study ended up with the conclusion that anxiety played a more significant role over oral tests than did it on listening comprehension tests. To corroborate the earlier findings, a study by Paker and Höl (2012) also revealed that students cited speaking tests as more anxiety-provoking than those of other skills.

With the aim of investigating the effects of foreign language anxiety on oral exam performance, Phillips (1992) conducted a study with French learners. The findings of her study revealed a moderate negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and oral performance, which denotes that high levels of test anxiety results in

underperformance in tests. She also asserted, as a conclusion of her research study, that high-test-anxious and badly-influenced language learners also tended to have negative attitudes towards language classes, and they did not want to take more classes than they were required to. It might be deduced from her assertion that foreign language speaking test anxiety is a factor which affects language learners' decisions whether to continue or give up language learning. To replicate the study by Phillips (1992), Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) also carried out the same study. They ended up with the analogue conclusion that the correlation between foreign language anxiety and the participants' oral test scores was statistically significant, and it was negative.

In a research study with Hungarian advanced level language learners, Tóth (2012) compared high-anxious and low-anxious students' oral performance scores. The findings revealed that language learners with higher levels of speaking test anxiety got poorer scores on formal oral tests. In their study with 75 freshman students, Yuen and Chu (2004) attempted to investigate the relationship between students' perceived anxiety and their English oral test scores. They ended up with the conclusion that their findings were in support of the debilitating effects of anxiety, meaning that anxiety had a significant negative correlation with the participants' oral test scores.

In an attempt to find out whether her students experienced speaking test anxiety, and if the level of anxiety differed in accordance with the way the oral tests were administered, Sayin (2015) came to the conclusion that the participants had high levels of speaking test anxiety. However, she could not find any significant differences between the scores of face-to-face oral exams and computer-based ones.

Although the effects of anxiety on speaking tests are usually cited as negative and debilitating, some studies have been unsuccessful in finding out any significant negative correlations in between. On the contrary, the findings of these research studies indicate that the kind of anxiety experienced during the oral tests is facilitative (Zhang & Liu, 2013; Mari, 2016).

In an attempt to investigate the existence and sources of foreign language speaking test anxiety, Subaşı (2010) conducted a research study with 55 first year students of English Language Teaching department. Her mixed-method study revealed that the future language teachers experienced anxiety during speaking tests, and their anxiety correlated significantly and positively with their fear of negative evaluation. As for the sources, the participants' interviews suggested four categories: personal reasons, teachers' manners, teaching procedures, and previous experience on language. Another

study by Park and Lee (2005) targeted to find out whether foreign language learners' oral exam performance was affected by anxiety and self-confidence. They ended up with the conclusion that self-confidence and anxiety were significantly and negatively correlated, and that they separately correlated language learners' oral performance. Accordingly, higher-anxious learners gained lower grades, and lower-confident learners ended up with lower grades in oral tests.

As a result, the currently available literature suggests the existence and dominant debilitating effects of foreign language anxiety over speaking tests. However, there exist some particular research studies with inconsistent and surprising results, too. The fact that they reveal positive correlations between anxiety and oral exam performance might simply be attributed to the immaturity and inadequacy of foreign language speaking test anxiety scales available in the literature. Another reason for those conflicting results might be the way of measurement. To see language learners' foreign language speaking test anxiety, a general foreign language anxiety scale and a test scale are applied separately, which may be decreasing the efficiency of measurements. Thus, it might be suggested that more detailed and multi-dimensional foreign language speaking test anxiety scales be developed for a better understanding of the nature, sources and effects of this specific kind of anxiety.

CHAPTER III

3. METHODOLOGY

This current research study is a mixed-method study and it aims to investigate whether non-compulsory English preparatory program students of Harran University experience anxiety before and during speaking tests and if the students' departments and genders have any significant effects on their speaking test anxiety. It also aims to find out what the possible reasons behind the anxiety they experience are.

Third chapter deals with the methodological aspects of this research study. It encloses the research design, participants and context of the study, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis parts of the study.

3.1. Research Design

Studies that work through language anxiety and try to find out certain variables in relation to it (Phillips, 1992; Woodrow, 2006; Hişmanoğlu, 2013; Sayın, 2015) usually utilize both quantitative and qualitative methods; in other words, researchers collect the necessary data for their studies through quantitative and qualitative arms at the same time, which is why these studies are called mixed-method studies. Since both quantitative and qualitative methods have certain weaknesses together with characteristic strengths, it is proposed by relevant researchers that they should be integrated as to make up for their limitations (Kelle, 2006). O'Cathain (2010), in a similar vein, states that utilizing techniques that make use of both the quantitative and the qualitative methods may provide researchers with the opportunity to collect more and better data for their analysis in condition that they combine the findings together. Indeed, compiling the obtained quantitative and qualitative data findings enables researchers to achieve a deeper perception of their research areas (Bryman, 2007).

This research study aims to investigate the participants' speaking examination anxiety, its relationship with the students' departments and genders, and the possible reasons behind the anxiety they experience. The methodology to be applied in the study was chosen as the mixed-method in order to make use of the advantages of quantitative methods to compensate for the lacks of qualitative methods, or vice versa. In other words, it is a research study which utilizes both quantitative methods to collect statistical information from the participants in fixed assets, and qualitative methods to

gather more detailed and open-ended responses from the students in order to look for the reasons behind the investigated phenomenon. Two different surveys make up the quantitative arm of the study, while the qualitative part consists of a five-item interview.

3.2. Participants and Context of the Study

The study was carried out at the School of Foreign Languages of Harran University, with non-compulsory English Preparatory Program students of Basic English Department. A total of eighty one students from four different faculties participated in the study and they were all first-year students. Since all of the students from the six classrooms of School of Foreign Languages were asked to take part in the survey part of the study, no random or systematic selection was applied in this first phase. These non-compulsory preparatory school students, who age from 17 to 33, demanded to get enrolled in the one-year intensive English Preparatory Program provided by the School of Foreign Languages, and took the placement test at the beginning of the academic year. After they were placed into six classrooms in accordance with their test results, they studied the target language, English, in all aspects (main course, grammar, reading, writing, speaking and listening) throughout the year for 30 weeks and 900 hours in total. However, as the results of the placement test the students took at the beginning of the year did not differ on a large scale, they were all categorized as beginner level students although they were placed in different classrooms. Throughout the year, they were required to take ten quizzes from main course, and grammar, reading, and listening courses; they were demanded to prepare a writing portfolio consisting of ten tasks for writing course; and they presented three presentations in speaking course. In addition to those, they had to take four midterm examinations, which were aimed at testing their general English proficiency levels. The scores they collected throughout the year were calculated in certain ratios, and at the end of the year, those whose overall scores were able to pass the limit score (60/100 Points) had the chance to take the proficiency examination. The ones to get scores on and above the limit (70/100 Points) in the proficiency examination successfully completed the preparatory program, and they deserved to get certificates at pre-intermediate levels.

As it was mentioned above, the surveys were applied in the first part of the study, and all of the students were asked to participate in this part regardless of their

genders, ages, faculties, departments, classrooms, levels and grades. According to the demographic items of the surveys, 61.70% of the participants were females (n=50), and 38.30% of them were males (n=31). Table 1 shows the gender information of the participants.

Table 1. Distribution of the Participants' Genders

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	31	38.30	38.30
Female	50	61.70	100.00
Total	81	100.00	

Since the students were all first-year students, most of them were of or about the same ages. More specifically, 66 of the students were between 17 – 20 ages; 14 of them were between 21 – 24 ages, and only one of them was between 29 – 33 ages.

As for the faculties, the participants were from four different majors. 53.10% of them were from Faculty of Engineering (n=43); 30.90% of them were from Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (n=25); 12.30% of them were from Faculty of Agriculture (n=10), and 3.70% of them were from Faculty of Science and Letters (n=3). Table 2 shows the information about the departments of the students.

Table 2. Distribution of the Participants' Faculties

Faculties	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Faculty of Engineering	43	53.10	53.10	53.10
Faculty of Agriculture	10	12.30	12.30	65.40
Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences	25	30.90	30.90	96.30
Faculty of Science and Letters	3	3.70	3.70	100.00
Total	81	100.00	100.00	100.00

The second part of the study aimed to gather more detailed data through the interviews, and provide the researcher with a broader insight into the reasons behind the researched phenomenon. For the interviews, 12 of the 81 students (3 females and 9

males) were selected in accordance with the random sampling technique. According to Dornyei (2007), random sampling is the most important component of probability sampling, and the fact that the selection of the participants is completely based on probabilities here is expected to minimize most of the exterior factors making the sample more representative. Thus, the reason why the random sampling technique was preferred in this part of the study is that it is expected to create the most similar sample to the whole group of the students.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

In this research study, three sets of different data were obtained from two separate data collection instruments: two surveys and a semi-structured interview. The first survey was utilized to measure the anxiety that the students experienced during the speaking tests, and the second one was applied as to gain insight into the reasons of it. Both of the surveys were conducted following the final mid-term examination. As for the interview, it aimed to give some of the randomly selected students the chance to share their ideas and feelings on the reasons of their anxiety problems. The interview was carried out just after the students took the speaking part of the spring proficiency examination when their feelings were still fresh.

3.3.1. Surveys

As mentioned in the previous part, two different surveys were utilized to obtain the quantitative data of the study. The first one was an adapted version of the General English Proficiency Test Anxiety Scale (GEPTAS) of a research study conducted by Wang and Liao (2012). It originally consisted 36 items to cover all of the four skills (listening, reading, writing and speaking); however, the items that were related to listening, reading and writing skills were taken out as to shape the survey in accordance with the purpose of the current study. The adapted form of the survey consisted of two main parts: Part A and Part B. Demographic information of the students (gender, age and faculty) was obtained in Part A (See Appendix 1) and the 23 items dealing with the speaking examination anxiety were delivered in Part B (See Appendix 2). Just before the students took the survey, they were informed that they were going to use a 5-point Likert type scale in which 1 meant “Strongly Disagree” and 5 meant “Strongly Agree”.

The second survey was applied to investigate the reasons behind the anxiousness that the students experienced before and during the speaking parts of the examinations. It was adapted from a study carried out by Timina (2015), and originally consisted 16 items regarding the reasons why the students felt anxious when they had to speak English. However, the items were altered in accordance with the necessities of the current study, and the modified survey (See Appendix 3) consisted 13 items that aimed to investigate why the students got anxious before and during the speaking parts of the examinations. Just like the first one, the second survey had a 5-point Likert type scale and the students were informed to use numbers from 1 to 5 as to express their reasons in fixed forms as “Strongly Disagree” and “Strongly Agree”.

Since both of the surveys were originally in English, they were translated into the students’ native language, Turkish, so that any misunderstandings could be prevented. Two other instructors checked and compared the translated forms of the surveys with the original ones to see whether there were any translation mistakes. And finally, with the aim of piloting, five students were invited to the researcher’s room and delivered the surveys to complete. It was observed that the students could finish the two surveys in about 15 minutes without any understanding problems.

3.3.2. Interview

As Opdenakker (2006) states, the fact that a face to face interview is totally synchronized in time and place makes it by far the most advantageous interview technique since physical cues like body language, voice, and intonation are also observable in it. Another preference reason to use interviews for data collection is that they can also give the interviewers the opportunity to guide the interviewees by explaining the complicated items or help the participants express themselves better by asking detail or follow-up questions. Thus, aforementioned two surveys were backed up by a face to face interview which was consisted of four semi-structured questions (See Appendix 4). The questions were adapted from a research study carried out by Balemir (2009) and aimed to investigate what the reasons behind the students’ speaking anxiety problems were.

Twelve students (three females, and nine males) were randomly selected and invited to the interviews which were all carried out in Turkish. Before each interview,

the students were informed that it was going to be recorded as later on to be transcribed and utilized in the study and their statements would have no impact on their grades.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

The research study was carried out in the spring semester of the year 2017, and collecting the data for the study lasted about three weeks.

Having received the necessary permissions (See Appendix 5 and Appendix 15) from the relevant authorities, the study took up with the surveys being handed in to the supervisor instructors to be delivered to the students just after the final mid-term examination. Since some of the students were still total beginners, the original surveys were translated into their native language, Turkish, so that they could easily and smoothly understand each item. The students were informed that the data to be collected via the surveys was really important for the study and they were also delivered consent forms before filling out the surveys.

A week after the implementation of the surveys, the interview part of the data collection was carried out with 12 of the students. Since the interview aimed to investigate the reasons of their anxiousness before and during the speaking parts of the examinations, it was conducted right after the speaking component of the spring proficiency examination. The interviews were also in Turkish; they were recorded, transcribed and translated into English so that they could be used in the study (See Appendix 6 for a sample transcription in Turkish, and Appendix 7 for one in English).

3.5. Data Analysis

Analysing the obtained data effectively is of vital importance in terms of understanding the phenomenon researched. The data collected through the surveys and the interviews were analysed and explicated with the help of data analysis methods and procedures. Version 23.0 of Statistic Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), which is one of the most widely used computerized data analysis program, was used to analyse the data obtained from the surveys.

Factor analysis and reliability tests were carried out as to check the reliability and validity of the surveys, factors and the items. Descriptive statistics were utilized to analyse the frequencies of the survey takers' answers for each item in the surveys, and finally, means, medians, variables, and common tendencies were also described as to

clearly explain the answers of the research questions. Inferential methods were also utilized to investigate the comparisons and relations of the sub-categories.

Finally, thematic content analysis method was used for the interpretation of the data gathered from the interviews. The interviews were pinpointed, examined and separated into patterns as to shape themes out of them. More specifically, the data was familiarized; initial codes were suggested; and themes were searched, reviewed and finally named. The obtained theme groups were, later on, utilized to generate more general categories.

3.5.1. Factor Analysis of the Surveys

In an attempt to identify the sub-categories, both of the surveys, utilized to collect the quantitative data, were subjected to Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA). However, we made some initial calculations beforehand as to figure out whether the variables were sufficient for factor analysis or not.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value for the first scale to measure the participants' speaking test anxiety was calculated as .82. Considering the fact that the literature accepts the values above .60 as adequately, and above .80 as excellently (Kaiser & Rice, 1974) suitable for factor analysis, we decided that our speaking test anxiety scale could be subjected to factor analysis. The Bartlett's Test score (Chi-Square=793.03; df=190; $p < 0.05$), in addition, revealed the correlation matrix to be different from the unit matrix, denoting that the variables were adequately correlating with each other. We utilized The Principal Component Analysis method for factor analysis, and the Varimax method for factor rotation. As a result, after eliminating the items numbered 5, 7, and 9 since they had more than one factor loadings, we found out five factors to explain 66.84% of the total variance.

Although the scale was statistically suitable for factor analysis on SPSS and the analysis provided us with five factors, we realized, by examining the scree plot and the items, that the number of the factors could be reduced down to three. Since The Rotated Component Matrix also demonstrated that most of the items came together under three main categories, and the rest fell into other categories with lower levels of correlation, we decided to decrease our factors down to three categories. Reviewing the related literature and examining the items of the scale one by one, we found out that our three categories of the speaking test anxiety scale were perfectly pertinent to Sarason's (1984)

Test Anxiety Factors Theory. According to his theory, the construct of test anxiety involved four factors: bodily symptoms, tension, worry, and test irrelevant thoughts (Sarason, 1984). We carried out consultations with the supervisor of the study and some colleagues, and arrived at the decision that none of the items in our scale were related to test irrelevant thoughts. As a result, we eliminated that factor, and generated three categories for our speaking test anxiety scale: bodily symptoms, tension, and worry. Accordingly, bodily symptoms are physiological reactions to speaking tests (e.g., headache, sweat, nausea, faster heart beats); tension covers the emotional aspects (e.g., stress, anxiety, unease); and worry deals with the thoughts related to test performance (e.g., failure, underperformance, consequences).

We applied the same procedures for the survey related to the reasons of speaking test anxiety, too. As a result of the calculations, we found out that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of the second survey was .60, which indicated that the scale had a lower level of adequacy for factor analysis on SPSS. Indeed, by eliminating the uncorrelated two items (i.e., items 6 and 7), we obtained four factors. However, since the number of the items was only 11, two of the factors consisted only two items, and their correlations were rather low. So, by comparing the original and the adapted versions of the survey, we found out that the two different surveys actually involved the same number of factors. Thus, under the guidance of Timina's (2015) study, we divided our reasons survey into three categories: personal reasons, socio-cultural reasons, and performance-based reasons. Since items 6 and 7 decreased the internal reliability of the factors as they did not have significant correlations with the rest of the items, we decided to exclude those two from the further analysis.

3.5.2. Reliability Check of the Surveys

Cronbach's Alpha values were calculated as to find out the internal reliability levels of both of the scales as a whole, and the obtained factors under those scales.

The analysis on the speaking test anxiety scale demonstrated that the Cronbach's Alpha value for the scale as a whole was .91, denoting that all of the items in the scale had particular significant contributions to the reliability and validity of the survey. Besides, the Cronbach's Alpha values of the sub-categories signified that the factors were also high in reliability: bodily symptoms, .80; tension, .81; and worry, .78. Table 3

presents the item information and Cronbach's Alpha values of the sub-categories which demonstrate their internal reliability.

Table 3. Cronbach's Alpha Values of the Sub-Categories in the Speaking Test Anxiety Scale

Sub-Category	Number of Items	Items	Cronbach's Alpha	SD
Bodily Symptoms	7	5, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16, 20	.80	5.85
Tension	7	9, 12, 13, 18, 19, 21, 22	.81	6.04
Worry	9	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 17, 23	.78	6.08

The correlation matrixes of the items in bodily symptoms (See Appendix 8), tension (See Appendix 9), and worry (See Appendix 10) also revealed that their inter-correlations were statistically significant.

As for the survey to investigate the reasons of speaking test anxiety, the Cronbach's Alpha value for it as a whole was calculated as .64, which seemed to suggest a lower level of reliability. Correspondingly, the Cronbach's Alpha values of the sub-categories signified that the obtained factors were similarly lower in reliability: personal reasons, .54; socio-cultural reasons, .54; and performance-based reasons, .64. Table 4 presents the item information and Cronbach's Alpha values of the sub-categories which demonstrate their internal reliability.

Table 4. Cronbach's Alpha Values of the Sub-Categories in Speaking Test Anxiety Reasons Scale

Sub-Category	Item No	Items	Mean	Cronbach's A.	SD
Personal Reasons	3	3, 8, 10	7.74	0.54	2.81
Socio-Cultural Reasons	4	9, 11, 12, 13	10.67	0.54	3.53
Performance-Based Reasons	4	1, 2, 4, 5	13.43	0.64	3.22

The correlation matrixes of the items in personal reasons (See Appendix 11), socio-cultural reasons (See Appendix 12), and performance-based reasons (See Appendix 13) also indicated that the reliability levels of these categories were indeed lower than those of the first scale.

Reviewing the literature, we found out that the correlation between the Cronbach's Alpha value and the number of items is positive. Carmines and Zeller (1979), for example, assert that "as the number of items increases, the value of alpha increases" (p. 45), too. As a result, we attributed the lower levels of reliability in the sub-categories of the second survey to the fact that it consisted fewer items than did the first one both as a whole and in terms of sub-categories.

CHAPTER IV

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS

Chapter four presents the results and findings of the data obtained through the surveys and the semi-structured interviews. The findings of the three data sets are briefly described in guidance of the research questions of the study. Accordingly, the chapter covers three main sub-sections to clarify each of the three research questions in turn.

4.1. Preparatory School Students' Foreign Language Speaking Test Anxiety

This section clarifies the first research question of the study. To achieve this aim, we utilized an adapted version of the General English Proficiency Test Anxiety Scale (GEPTAS) to measure the extent to which the students experienced speaking test anxiety. Originally, the scale had 36 items to cover all of the four skills. However, only the items that were related to the speaking skill were left as to shape the survey in accordance with the purpose of the current study. As a result, the final form of the survey consisted two sections. Information about the students' demographic variables (i.e., gender, age and faculty) was obtained in Part A, and the 23 items dealing with the speaking test anxiety were delivered in Part B. The scale was a 5-point Likert type scale in which 1 meant "Strongly Disagree" and 5 meant "Strongly Agree". Since some of the items were inversely formed, they were reversely scored; and the students' total scores demonstrated their levels of general speaking test anxiety.

The descriptive analysis on the students' responses to all of the 23 items revealed that almost all of the mean scores were above the average, and that they suffered from anxiety before or during the speaking tests they took on the whole. Taking into consideration the fact that the highest score that could be obtained from the survey was 115, we ended up with the conclusion that the participants had a moderate level of speaking test anxiety since the mean and the median scores were distinguishably higher than half of the possible highest score (Mean=71.36, Median=72.00 > 115/2).

Table 5. The Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of General Speaking Test Anxiety Items

Item Number	Mean	SD
1	3.16	1.10
2	2.73	1.05
3	3.00	1.10
4	2.69	1.19
5	3.44	1.27
6*	3.56	1.08
7	2.98	1.17
8*	2.95	1.00
9	3.40	1.18
10	2.47	1.28
11	2.32	1.09
12	2.90	1.29
13	3.19	1.23
14	3.43	1.25
15	3.20	1.33
16	3.56	1.20
17*	3.31	1.25
18	3.31	1.24
19	3.44	1.30
20	2.56	1.19
21*	3.27	1.28
22	3.27	1.27
23*	3.23	1.11

* The items that were reversely scored.

Table 5 demonstrates the mean and the standard deviation scores of the items that aim at measuring the participants' overall speaking test anxiety levels. Considering the average score for the items as 2.50 (5.00/2), it could be seen in a more detailed way in the table that none of the items were below the average except for only two of them (i.e., items 10 and 11) which fell under bodily symptoms category. Accordingly, the participants stated, in general, that they did not experience substantial amounts of nausea and sleep problems prior to the speaking tests. However, it might be interpreted, from the table, that they were actually moderately anxious about the speaking tests in general.

The highest mean scores were observed to be pertaining to the items 5 (I'm worried that my mind will go blank during the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.44]),

6 (I never worry about the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.56]), 14 (I expect to feel my heart beating quickly while taking the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.43]), 16 (I expect to have butterflies in my stomach before or during the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.56]), and 19 (I'm worried that I will be so nervous that I will forget what I know during the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.44]). Keeping in mind that item 6 was reversely scored and it held one of the two highest mean scores, it might be deduced that the participants had significant levels of worry about the speaking tests they were required to take. They also strongly emphasized that they were afraid of freezing up, of having palpitations, and of not being able to recall the learnt material, all of which might be exemplified as speaking test anxiety indicators. By looking at item 9 (I'm worried that I will find myself thinking of the consequences of failing during the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.40]), we might remark that the students mostly focused more attention on the potential failure scenarios than did they on the speaking test tasks.

As a conclusion of the students' responses, we can enounce that they were anxious about the speaking tests on the whole. They expected to experience some physiological, emotional and instructional concerns before and during the speaking tests they took. Moreover, they misbelieved that they could show the adequate performance as to have a good score in the speaking tests; and thought, as a result, that they would let down their parents. To provide better insights into the students' speaking test anxiety, we distributed the items of the scale into three sub-categories through the factor analysis. Some more detailed descriptions of those factors will be provided in the below headings.

4.1.1. Bodily Symptoms

Ascertaining that the participants experienced anxiety to some extent during the speaking tests they take, we grouped their responsive statements under three sub-categories through factor analysis as to better understand what the students specifically felt when they experience speaking test anxiety, and to present the findings in an orderly manner. By examining the items related to the bodily symptoms, we realized that the students were fraught with the potential existence of some physiological reactions. Table 6 presents the mean and standard deviation scores of the items that are related to bodily symptoms.

Table 6. Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of the Items Related to Bodily Symptoms

Item Number	Mean	SD
5	3.44	1.27
10	2.47	1.28
11	2.32	1.09
14	3.43	1.25
15	3.20	1.33
16	3.56	1.20
20	2.56	1.19

As can be seen in the table, item 16 (I expect to feel sick at my stomach before or during the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.56]) holds the highest mean score. We interpreted this fact that the students were mostly worried about feeling nausea prior to or during the speaking tests, and that nausea was the most frequently cited indicators of anxiousness.

Table 7. Distribution of the Students' Responses to the Items Related to Bodily Symptoms

Item Number	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
5	7	16	10	30	18
10	22	25	15	12	7
11	19	33	17	8	4
14	6	15	18	22	20
15	10	18	15	22	16
16	5	13	15	28	20
20	15	31	17	11	7

Indeed, as Table 7 demonstrates, positive responses (i.e., agree and strongly agree) to item 16 were almost three times more frequently cited than the negative responses (i.e., disagree and strongly disagree). Only 18 out of 81 students implied the non-existence of nausea, while 48 of them, on the contrary, expected to suffer from it.

Item 5 (I'm worried that my mind will go blank during the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.44]) had the second highest mean score; however, as seen in Table 7, positive responses to it were not fewer than those of item 16. Accordingly, a greater part of the students stated that they were afraid of being left with nothing to speak during the oral tests.

Together with those, item 14 (I expect to feel my heart beating quickly while taking the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.43]) also revealed that the participants' expectations to end up with unfavourable physiological reactions to speaking test anxiety were substantially noteworthy. As Table 7 demonstrates, almost half of the students predicated that they worried about suffering from palpitations during speaking tests. Moreover, it might be deduced, by reviewing item 15 (I expect to have sweaty palms, shaky hands, or other signs of nervousness right before the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.20]), that the participants expected to experience visible reactions such as shaky hands and sweaty palms as well.

The fact that only 12 of the participants gave positive responses to item 11 (I expect to have trouble sleeping the night before the speaking part of the midterm [m=2.32]) might signify that feel more relaxed as they still have plenty of hours to take the test. However, by looking at the increase of positive responses to item 20 (I expect to not be able to eat anything before the speaking part of the midterm [m=2.56]), we might infer that the closer the speaking tests get, the more anxious the students feel.

As a result, the items to compose bodily symptoms and the responses given to them explain that speaking test anxiety comes to existence in an expectation of diverse physiological reactions, and it prompts the students to become afraid of and nervous about those unpleasant reactions.

4.1.2. Tension

The items under the tension category deal with the students' emotional attitudes towards speaking tests. Since the phenomenon is anxiety, which is commonly conceived as unwelcome, the feelings are also naturally negative. Feelings of jitter, unease, distress, fear and doubt might be exemplified as the indicators of anxiety in the sub-form of tension. The findings of this research study revealed that tension was the second factor of speaking test anxiety, and that it prompted the students to experience unpleasant feelings.

As seen in Table 8, none of the items had lower mean scores than the average, 2.50, which might be inferred that the items related to tension were perceived by the students as more indicative than those belonging to bodily symptoms. Accordingly, the highest mean score belonged to item 19 (I'm worried that I will be so nervous that I will forget what I know during the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.44]), which meant

that the students were mostly afraid of not being able to recall what they learnt due to the feeling of nervousness they expected to experience during the speaking tests.

In furtherance, the mean scores of the responses to items 22 (I'm worried that I will feel anxious about the English speaking section of the midterm [m=3.27]) and 13 (I expect to feel uneasy before the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.19]) also revealed that the participants expected unease and anxiety about the speaking tests, and that they were not pleased to be in such an expectancy.

Table 8. Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of the Items Related to Tension

Item Number	Mean	SD
9	3.40	1.18
12	2.90	1.29
13	3.19	1.23
18	3.31	1.24
19	3.44	1.30
21*	3.27	1.28
22	3.27	1.27

* The items that were reversely scored.

Item 21 (I expect that my emotional feelings will not interfere with my performance during the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.27]) also clearly demonstrated that the students had concerns about the involvement of their feelings into their test performance.

According to Table 9, more than half of the students responded positively to item 9 (I'm worried that I will find myself thinking of the consequences of failing during the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.40]), which indicated their fear of thinking about the potential failure in the speaking tests. As seen in the table, 27 of the students agreed, and 15 of them strongly agreed the idea that they would spend the test time thinking about the failure scenarios that they made up in their minds.

Table 9. Distribution of the Students' Responses to the Items Related to Tension

Item Number	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither		Strongly Agree
			Disagree Nor	Agree	
9	6	13	20	27	15
12	14	22	10	28	7
13	8	17	21	22	13
18	10	10	19	29	13
19	8	13	16	23	21
21*	15	25	18	13	10
22	10	12	20	24	15

* The items that were reversely scored.

The positive responses of 42 students to item 18 (Even though I'm prepared for the speaking part of the midterm, I still feel anxious about it [m=3.31]) clarified the issue by demonstrating that it was not the instructional aspects that created speaking test anxiety but simply their feelings. Finally, 35 students' positive responses to item 12 (The closer I get to the speaking part of the midterm date, the harder it is for me to concentrate on the material [m=2.90]) attested the earlier suggestion provided in the previous section that the correlation between the remaining time to the tests and the involvement of anxiety into the matter was negative.

4.1.3. Worry

The items under worry factor comprise the students' thoughts germane to their test performance (e.g., failure, underperformance, consequences), and contrary to the ones related to tension, these items cover instructional statements. Table 10 presents the relevant mean and standard deviation scores.

Table 10. Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of the Items Related to Worry

Item Number	Mean	SD
1	3.16	1.10
2	2.73	1.05
3	3.00	1.10
4	2.69	1.19
6*	3.56	1.08
7	2.98	1.17
8*	2.95	1.00
17*	3.31	1.25
23*	3.23	1.11

* The items that were reversely scored.

As seen in the table, item 6 (I never worry about performing in the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.56]) held the highest mean score, denoting that a great part of the students felt doubtful about their performance in the speaking tests. According to Table 11, the frequency of the negative responses to this reverse item also showed that more than half of the students were against the idea that they would perform flawlessly during the speaking tests, while a total of only 13 students seemed doubtless in terms of their performance.

Table 11. Distribution of the Students' Responses to the Items Related to Worry

Item Number	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither		Strongly Agree
			Disagree Nor Agree	Agree	
1	3	24	21	23	10
2	9	27	26	15	4
3	4	28	21	20	8
4	13	27	20	14	7
6*	16	30	22	9	4
7	8	23	22	19	9
8	6	12	43	12	8
17*	19	15	26	14	7
23*	12	18	35	9	7

* The items that were reversely scored.

Similarly, the frequency of the students' negative responses to item 17 (I expect to feel confident and relaxed before taking the speaking part of the midterm [m=3.31]) notified that almost half of the participants lacked self-confidence and ease before they took the speaking tests. The fact that the number of neutral students for this item was 43, which is too many, might be attributed to the fact that the students might have failed to notice the item was reverse.

As seen in Table 11, although they rephrased the same content, items 1 (I am worried that I won't pass the speaking part in the midterm [m=3.16]), 2 (I don't believe that I can pass the speaking part in the midterm [m=2.73]), 3 (I think my parents and teachers will be disappointed with my speaking part of the midterm results [m=3.00]), and item 4 (I feel pressure to pass the speaking part in the midterm before graduation [2.69]) seemed to have received contradictory responses. While the total number of positive responses to item 1 (33) surpassed that of negative responses (27); negative responses to items 2 (36), 3 (32), and 4 (40) were observed to have exceeded positive ones. However, by reviewing the mean scores, it might be interpreted that test-anxious students felt uncertain about the eventuality of their successful performance in the speaking tests they took. By examining the mean score and frequency distributions of item 8 (I believe that I can do well on the speaking part of the midterm [m=2.95]), we drew the analogue conclusion that the students were not sure of their potentials to perform well in the speaking tests. The mean score of item 23 (I expect it to be easy to answer the speaking section of the midterm [m=3.23]) also indicated that the students mostly expected speaking test performance troubles. Finally, in accordance with the responses to item 7 (I am worried that I will make mistakes on easy questions during the speaking part of the midterm [m=2.98]), it seemed quite rational to attribute these unwelcome expectancies to the students' negative conception that they would make mistakes while answering even the simple questions.

As a conclusion of the first section, the analysis conducted on the students' responses to the items in the scale revealed that they experienced speaking test anxiety in general, and that speaking test anxiety comprised bodily symptoms, tension, and worry as sub-categories. It was also concluded that their suffering from each of the factors led them, in accordance, to expect some unwelcome physiological reactions, emotional feelings, and instructional concerns. The next section will be clarifying the second research question of the study.

4.2. Effects of Gender and Faculty on Speaking Test Anxiety

This section provides information to clarify the second research question of the study, which queried whether the students' genders and faculties resulted in any significant differences in terms of their speaking test anxiety. Accordingly, the results of the analysis will be presented in two headings: gender difference in speaking test anxiety and faculty difference in speaking test anxiety.

4.2.1. Gender Difference in Speaking Test Anxiety

In an attempt to find out whether the students' overall speaking test anxiety varied across the genders, an independent samples t-test was conducted. As Table 12 signifies, the results revealed normality and homogeneity in terms of data distribution ($F=2.292$, $p>.134$).

Table 12. Independent Samples T-Test for Overall Speaking Test Anxiety

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Overall	Equal variances assumed	2.292	.134	2.372	79	.020	8.26	3.48
Speaking Test Anxiety	Equal variances not assumed			2.271	55.057	.027	8.26	3.64

As seen in the table, there was a statistically significant difference between the participants' overall anxiety and their genders ($t=2.372$, $p<.05$), denoting that the students' experiences of speaking test anxiety depended significantly on if they were males or females.

Finding out that there existed a significant difference between the two variable groups, we conducted the descriptive analysis in an attempt to find out the mean and standard deviation scores of the male and female students' responses to the items. As seen in Table 13, the mean score of the female students' responses ($m=74.52$) was

considerably higher than that of the male students ($m=66.26$), which we interpreted that the female students were significantly more test-anxious than their male counterparts.

Table 13. Gender Difference in Overall Anxiety

	Gender	N	Mean	SD
Overall Anxiety	Male	31	66.26	16.94
	Female	50	74.52	14.09

Since the data was normally distributed for the sub-categories as well, independent samples t-tests, as parametric tests, were separately conducted for each of the factors, too. Table 14 demonstrates the independent samples t-test scores of and mean differences in the three factors: bodily symptoms, tension and worry.

Table 14. Independent Samples T-Test Scores for the Sub-Categories

t-test for Equality of Means					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Bodily Symptoms	2.644	79	.010	3.41	1.29
Tension	2.505	79	.014	3.35	1.34
Worry	1.083	79	.282	1.50	1.39

By reviewing Table 14, it seemed possible to infer that there was a statistically significant difference between bodily symptoms and gender ($t=2.644$, $p<.05$). The analogue significant difference existed statistically between tension and gender ($t=2.505$, $p<.05$), while the difference between worry and gender ($t=1.083$, $p>.05$) seemed to be weak in significance. More specifically, we might conclude that the students' conception of anxiety in the forms of bodily symptoms and tension correlated significantly with their genders; however, their genders did not result in any differences in terms of their reactions to the items that composed the worry factor.

Table 15. Gender Differences in Bodily Symptoms, Tension and Worry

	Gender	N	Mean	SD
Bodily Symptoms	Male	31	18.87	5.55
	Female	50	22.28	5.69
Tension	Male	31	20.71	6.74
	Female	50	24.06	5.23
Worry	Male	31	26.68	6.65
	Female	50	28.18	5.69

In order to investigate the direction of the revealed statistically significant differences between the gender variables and the two factors, descriptive analysis of mean scores and standard deviations were conducted. Table 15 presents the differences between the mean scores of the students' responses to the related items and their genders. The table revealed the parallel conclusion that the mean scores of the female students' responses to the items in bodily symptoms ($m=22.28$) and tension ($m=24.06$) were higher than the males' mean scores of bodily symptoms ($m=18.87$) and tension ($m=20.71$).

4.2.2. Faculty Difference in Speaking Test Anxiety

As could be seen in Table 2 in Chapter III, the participants of the study were from four different faculties: Faculty of Engineering (FE), Faculty of Agriculture (FA), Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (FEAS), and Faculty of Science and Letters (FSL). However, due to the fact that the percentage of the students from the Faculty of Science and Letters was only 3.7%, they were excluded from the further analysis.

In accordance with the second research question, we analysed the effects of faculties on the students' overall speaking test anxiety. As the data was normally and homogeneously distributed, we utilized the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to see whether the students' overall anxiety had any significant correlations with their faculties.

Table 16. Differences between the Faculties and the Students' Overall Anxiety

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1888.39	2	944.19	4.08	.02
Within Groups	17361.61	75	231.49		
Total	19250.00	77			

As Table 16 demonstrates, the ANOVA results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in the correlation between the faculties and the students' overall speaking test anxiety ($F=4.08$, $p<.05$).

Finding out that there existed a significant difference amongst the groups, in an attempt to discover which faculties had significant levels of differences in between, we conducted the Tukey test as a Post-Hoc multiple comparison test. Table 17 presents the Tukey test results of the three faculties.

Table 17. Tukey Test Results of the Faculties

(I) Faculty	(J) Faculty	Mean Difference (I-J)	Standard Error	Sig.
FE	FA	.52	5.34	1.00
	FEAS	-10.44*	3.83	.02
FA	FE	-.52	5.34	1.00
	FEAS	-10.96	5.69	.14
FEAS	FE	10.44*	3.83	.02
	FA	10.96	5.69	.14

As seen in the table, the results of the Tukey test signified that the difference between the Faculty of Engineering (FE) and the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (FEAS) seemed the only one to be statistically significant ($p<.05$). Accordingly, the students from the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences had a higher speaking test anxiety mean score ($m=78.16$) than that of the students from the Faculty of Engineering ($m=67.72$). As a result, we interpreted this fact that the students from the Faculty of Engineering were less-test-anxious than the ones studying in the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences. The mutual

comparisons of the Faculty of Agriculture (FA) with the rest, on the other hand, did not reveal any significant differences.

Although the results of ANOVA and the Tukey test revealed a statistically significant difference between two of the faculty groups and the students' speaking test anxiety, with the earlier knowledge of uneven distribution of the male and female students amongst the faculties, we inquired whether this significant difference could have stemmed from the mentioned non-proportional distribution of the genders.

As seen in Table 18, the numbers of male (n=20) and female (n=23) students in the Faculty of Engineering (FE) are almost the same; however, it is observable that the number of female students (n=20) is four times as high as that of male students (n=5) in the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (FEAS).

Table 18. Cross Tabulation of Genders and Faculties

	Faculty				Total
	FE	FA	FEAS	FSL	
Gender Male	20	4	5	2	31
Female	23	6	20	1	50
Total	43	10	25	3	81

Taking into consideration this vital difference in the distribution of the genders amongst the faculties, we conducted the Multi-Factor ANOVA (M-ANOVA) to see the collective effects of the genders and faculties on the students' overall speaking test anxiety.

Table 19. Multi-Factor ANOVA of Between-Groups Effects

Dependent Variable: Overall Speaking Test Anxiety						
Source	Type III		Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
	Sum of Squares	df				
Corrected Model	3902.19 ^a	5	780.44	3.66	.005	.20
Intercept	226753.82	1	226753.82	1063.75	.000	.94
Faculty	903.59	2	451.79	2.12	.128	.06
Gender	1866.74	1	1866.74	8.76	.004	.11
Faculty * Gender	1084.98	2	542.49	2.55	.086	.07

Table 19 presents the Multi-Factor ANOVA results that were obtained; and as seen in the table, the results of the Multi-Factor ANOVA revealed that faculty variable did not actually have any statistically significant effects ($F=2.12$, $p>.05$) on the students' overall speaking test anxiety. The analysis, however, demonstrated that it was not the correlation of the students' faculties and their overall speaking test anxiety, but it was their genders to have statistically significant effects on their speaking test anxiety ($F=8.76$, $p<.05$). As a result, we ended up with the conclusion that the vast majority of the female students in the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (FEAS) led the faculty to be seen as a significant effector. However, the analysis revealed that it was not the faculty but the large quantity of the female students, and thus gender, to correlate significantly with the speaking test anxiety.

We applied totally the same procedures and conducted the same analysis in the same order to investigate the sub-categories of speaking test anxiety, too. We found out the analogue conclusion that although faculty variable was observed to have significant effects on bodily symptoms ($F=3.70$, $p<.05$) and tension ($F=3.34$, $p<.05$) when alone, the significant effects of gender on bodily symptoms ($F=10.77$, $p<.05$) and tension ($F=9.02$, $p<.05$) invalidated those of ($F=1.86$, $p>.05$; $F=1.45$, $p>.05$) faculty when together. As for the correlation between worry and the faculties, it was found out that there existed no significant differences in between ($F=2.45$, $p>.05$).

In conclusion of the second section, in an attempt to find out whether the students' faculties had statistically significant effects on their overall speaking test

anxiety, we conducted the necessary analysis, and found out that although two of the faculties seemed as if they had been, they were not in a significant correlation indeed. What caused the seeming difference, according to the Multi-Factor ANOVA results, was that the female students, who were formerly proven to be higher-test-anxious, had densely gathered in one of those faculties. Specifically, when the effect of gender got involved, that of faculties disappeared.

4.3. The Sources of Foreign Language Speaking Test Anxiety

This section provides information to clarify the last research question of the study, which inquired the sources of the students' speaking test anxiety. In order to make use of the both methods and compensate one's inadequacies with the other, we utilized both quantitative and qualitative tools to collect the data. Specifically, the sources of the students' speaking test anxiety were investigated through a 13-item questionnaire and a semi-structured interview which was conducted with a randomly selected group of 12 students. Accordingly, the obtained sources will be described under the two following headings: quantitative findings and qualitative findings.

4.3.1. The Quantitative Findings

The survey to collect the quantitative data was adapted from a study carried out by Timina (2015), and originally consisted 16 items regarding the reasons why the students felt anxious when they spoke English. The items in the scale were altered in accordance with the necessities of the current study, and the modified survey consisted one part, made up of 13 items that aimed to investigate why the students got anxious before and during the speaking tests they took. The survey was a 5-point Likert type, in which the students were required to select numbers from 1 to 5 as to express their reasons in fixed forms as "Strongly Disagree" and "Strongly Agree". Table 20, on the following page, presents the mean and standard deviation scores of the items.

According to Table 20 on the following page, item 7 ($m=3.90$) holds the highest mean score with a standard deviation score of 1.25. Although this item was not included in any of the sub-categories because it lacked adequate correlations with the rest, considering the fact that a total of 53 students responded positively to it, we might infer, most of the students related their speaking test anxiety to the inadequacy of their speaking practice.

Table 20. The Means and Standard Deviations of the Items in Speaking Test Anxiety Reasons Scale

Item	Reason	Mean	SD
1	I feel nervous because I am afraid that I will not understand or misunderstand the teacher's question or task.	3.32	1.18
2	It is sometimes hard for me to concentrate on the content of the speaking exam.	3.37	1.18
3	I have had no experience of speaking when other students are listening.	2.74	1.30
4	I make noticeable mistakes and do not know the necessary vocabulary.	3.20	1.12
5	My English is not fluent.	3.54	1.17
6	My teachers of English never/seldom encourage me to speak English during the tests.	2.21	1.08
7	I don't have enough practice; two hours of oral English per a week is not enough for me.	3.90	1.25
8	I am not very interested in English.	2.11	1.20
9	Our people are shy; they don't like to speak in public.	3.21	1.46
10	I do not want to look foolish and "lose my face" in front of the whole group.	2.89	1.40
11	My parents have always told me to be quiet and silent when a teacher is talking to me.	2.52	1.38
12	In our culture, students should listen to what the teacher says.	2.27	1.27
13	In our culture, people do not like to express their opinions in public.	2.67	1.35

As seen in the table, the second highest mean score belongs to item 5 ($m=3.54$). Accordingly, the students' implied that they felt incapable of speaking fluently, and it prompted them to feel anxious before or during the speaking tests. The qualitative findings to be revealed in the following section were also in support of this finding. Seeing that only three of the presented items were unable to pass the average mean score, which was 2.5, we might verbalise that the majority of the students conceived almost 77% of the items in the scale as the sources behind their speaking test anxiety.

Since the factor analysis revealed that some of the items had inter-correlations, we decided to compile the sources under three categories: personal sources, socio-cultural sources and performance-based sources.

4.3.1.1. Personal Sources

The items to compose the personal sources were aimed at finding out whether the students' individual opinions had any contributions to their anxiety experiences during the speaking tests. Seeing that the mean score of the three items in this category is higher than the half of the possible highest score ($m=7.74 > 15/2$), it seems possible to conclude that the students mostly found the items under the category to be in a causal relationship with their speaking test anxiety. Table 21 shows the participants' responses to the items.

Table 21. Distribution of the Students' Responses to the Items Related to the Personal Sources

Item Number	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither		Strongly Agree
			Disagree Nor	Agree	
3	14	29	12	16	10
8	34	21	12	11	3
10	18	18	11	23	11

Accordingly, item 8 (I am not very interested in English [$m=2.11$]) had the lowest mean score with only 14 students to agree or strongly agree. This was quite understandable because the students were non-compulsory preparatory school students; and the fact that they demanded to learn the language themselves explained why the vast majority of them were against the item. Based on the students' responses to item 3 (I have had no experience of speaking when other students are listening [$m=2.74$]), we inferred that the students regarded their inexperience of speaking when being listened to as an alternative source of their speaking test anxiety. Finally, the responses to item 10 (I do not want to look foolish and "lose my face" in front of the whole group [$m=2.89$]) revealed that the students were afraid of being negatively evaluated both by their tester instructors and peers.

As a result, inexperience of public speaking and fear of negative evaluation were concluded to be the two noteworthy personal sources of the students' speaking test anxiety.

4.3.1.2. Socio-Cultural Sources

Socio-cultural sources included the students' social and cultural conceptions. Since the mean score of the items in this category was also slightly higher than half of the possible highest score ($m=10.67 > 20/2$), we might consider this category as a significant source, too.

Table 22. Distribution of the Students' Responses to the Items Related to the Socio-Cultural Sources

Item Number	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither		Strongly Agree
			Disagree Nor	Agree	
9	16	10	16	19	20
11	25	21	12	14	9
12	29	23	13	10	6
13	20	20	19	11	11

As Table 22 presents, 52 of the students agreed with item 12 (In our culture, students should listen to what the teacher says [$m=2.27$]), which signified that the students felt obliged only to listen to what the instructors told since they believed their culture required them to do so. The responses to a parallel one, item 11 (My parents have always told me to be quiet and silent when a teacher is talking to me [$m=2.52$]), revealed the analogue conclusion that the students conceived the negative requirements of their culture as alternative sources of their anxiety in the speaking tests. With the highest mean score amongst the sub-category, item 9 (Our people are shy; they don't like to speak in public [$m=3.21$]) demonstrated that 26 of the students related their shyness to speak in public with the characteristics of the society they belonged, and perceived shyness as a source of feeling anxious during the oral tests. Finally, a total of 40 students were observed to be of the statement in item 13 (In our culture, people do not like to express their opinion in public [$m=2.67$]), which signified the analogue

conclusion that their culture played a vital role in a great number of students' speaking test anxiety experience.

To conclude, the responses in this category revealed the serious causal relationship of society and culture with the students' anxiousness about the speaking components of the tests.

4.3.1.3. Performance-Based Sources

Performance-based sources covered four items that dealt with the students' instructional and pedagogical perspectives. The fact that the items in this category were embraced by the students on a pretty large scale indicates clearly that the students mostly associated their speaking test anxiety to these sources.

Moreover, the qualitative findings that we gathered from the interviews were also in strong support of the results of survey analysis (See Section 4.3.2.). Accordingly, the participants of the study verbalised that they felt anxious during the speaking tests because of their perceived inadequacies in the target language they were trying to learn.

Table 23. Distribution of the Students' Responses to Items Related to Performance-Based Sources

Item Number	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither		Strongly Agree
			Disagree Nor Agree	Agree	
1	5	18	18	26	14
2	7	12	19	30	13
4	7	12	31	20	11
5	5	10	22	24	20

As Table 23 represents, more than half of the students cited their lack in fluency as a source of their speaking test anxiety by agreeing item 5 (My English is not fluent [$m=3.54$]). The enunciation of fluency problems as a significant source of speaking test anxiety was witnessed for several times during the interviews, too. Thus, we concluded that the students considered being fluent as a key factor to speak, and their inadequacy in fluency prompted them to become anxious in condition that they were required to speak.

The students' responses to item 2 (It is sometimes hard for me to concentrate on the content of the speaking exam [m=3.37]), on the other hand, revealed their worries about concentrating on the speaking test tasks.

By reviewing item 1 (I feel nervous because I am afraid that I will not understand or misunderstand the teacher's question or task [m=3.32]) and item 4 (I make noticeable mistakes and do not know the necessary vocabulary [m=3.20]), it might be inferred that the students also had some other concerns about being misunderstood or not understood at all, and that they mostly associated their anxiety in the speaking tests to the insufficient vocabulary knowledge.

As a conclusion of the section, the sources related to the performance-based perspectives include some particular concerns about inadequacy in the speaking skill, misunderstanding by others, concentration on test tasks, and possibility of making mistakes.

In an attempt to statistically find out whether the afore-described speaking test anxiety source factors (i.e., personal, socio-cultural, and performance-based sources) had any significant correlations with the factors in speaking test anxiety (i.e., bodily symptoms, tension, and worry), we conducted the Pearson correlation analysis. To verify our descriptive findings, we included the overall speaking test anxiety as well.

The results of the Pearson correlation matrix analysis (See Appendix 14) revealed that the students' overall speaking test anxiety had significant positive correlations with personal sources ($r=.24$; $p<.05$) and performance-based sources ($r=.42$; $p<.01$). It was also found out that as a sub-category of speaking test anxiety, bodily symptoms, significantly and positively correlated only with the academic sources ($r=.22$; $p<.05$). Tension, similarly, had a significant positive correlation with academic sources ($r=.44$; $p<.01$). Finally, worry correlated significantly and positively both with the personal reasons ($r=.28$; $p<.05$) and the performance-based reasons ($r=.43$; $p<.01$).

Depending on the results of the correlation matrix analysis, we came to the conclusion that the arguments we suggested earlier about the correlations of speaking test anxiety and obtained sources were conformable.

As a result of the quantitative findings, we grouped the sources of speaking test anxiety under three categories: personal sources, socio-cultural sources, and performance-based sources. However, a considerable number of the students cited lack of speaking practice as a source of speaking test anxiety as well, and some claimed that their instructors did not encourage them to speak in the oral tests, and so, they felt

anxious. The qualitative data will be presenting the content analysis of the interviews to identify a few more of these sources.

4.3.2. The Qualitative Findings

In an attempt to have a deeper understanding of foreign language speaking test anxiety through the qualitative arm, we conducted semi-structured interviews with 12 of the students. Nine of these randomly selected students were females, while the rest three were males. The four questions in the interviews were asked in Turkish as to avoid any misunderstandings, and the interviews were all recorded, transcribed, and translated into English. After the interviews were transcribed, the students' responses to the questions were analysed and the contents of the answers were put into themes. As the analysis offered a large number of these themes, they were compiled under more general categories. The descriptions below cover the students' responses to the interview questions which were in close relationship with the sources of foreign language speaking test anxiety.

The first question aimed to find out what made the students nervous or anxious while speaking English. Some of the students' responses to the first question are given below:

If I see someone who is better than me, I can't speak. I feel diffident because my self-confidence gets lost then. For example, just now, I had a speaking test; my partner seemed better than me, I mean, I felt like so. Just because of that, I got nervous and anxious. I could not speak in the test even though I can speak. I got stressed and anxious.

If there are people speaking English better than I do, and if I know this, I generally feel anxious.

I can never be sure of using the appropriate words with the context while speaking English. You know, I sometimes practice English at home with my siblings and family, and the instructors can't always be with us all the time. And this makes me anxious actually because I keep questioning if I use it correctly or not.

Choosing an inappropriate word makes me anxious; I mean, not being able to express what I actually want to.

When we analysed all of the participants' responses to the first question, we found out that the students cited *having better friends at speaking English around* (4 students), *forgetting or finding out the necessary vocabulary* (5 students), *feeling inadequate in grammar, fluency, or vocabulary* (4 students) as the sources of anxiety. It

is important to notify that the students mentioned of these factors as the sources of their anxiety instead of mentioning them as the difficulties they have. Moreover, 3 of the students mentioned *being ridiculed* (fear of negative evaluation) as a considerable source, too. Together with these, 4 students stated that *tester instructors' attitudes* caused speaking test anxiety, and made them feel anxious seriously. Besides, worries about *making mistakes* and *being misunderstood* were also cited by some of the students as the sources of anxiety they experienced. Finally, one of the students stated that *struggling to be better at speaking* had negative impacts on her ability to speak, and made her anxious as a result.

The purpose of the second interview question was to find out the students' strengths and weakness in speaking English. Although these strengths and weaknesses were not direct sources of their speaking test anxiety, we made some inferences from the responses and found out that they could be linked to the phenomenon as causes. Some of the participants' responses to the second question are listed below:

I can't make intonation, I am bad at it. For example, there are imperative sentences, you know, I can't intonate those sentences. I just read them in an atonic way.

In terms of pronunciation, I sometimes have problems. When I hear a word from someone else in a differently pronounced way, I feel bad about it because I see that our pronunciations are different.

I think that my pronunciation is my strong point. I mean, if I know British English better, I believe that I can speak far better. I mean the accent.

Maybe fluency is a little bit problematic, and that will get better in time.

When the responses of all of the participants' to the second question were analysed, it was found out that 8 of the students mentioned *fluency* as their weak points in speaking, while only 2 of them, stating that fluency was their strong points, verbalised having no problems in it. Their further responses to the follow-up questions revealed that the students with weak fluency in speaking actually considered their fluency problems as sources of speaking anxiety which substantially increased in oral tests. Besides, we found out that 2 of the students had *pronunciation* problems while speaking, and considered pronunciation as their weak points; however, 8 of them articulated that they felt strong in pronunciation, and that they did not have serious problems in pronouncing the words they know. Moreover, 7 students stated that *grammar* was their weakest points while speaking, and that it played a significant role in terms of their speaking test anxiety. However, 4 students enounced that grammar was

their strong points, and that they did not have any problems about the grammatical aspects. Finally, the results of our analysis revealed that some of the students had problems in *vocabulary*, *intonation*, and *syntax*, too. The students with vocabulary problems were observed to be relating their vocabulary problems to the fact that they felt anxious while speaking, which denoted that they considered having vocabulary problems as a result of anxiety. An example description of this correlation is given below:

I can easily use my vocabulary knowledge when I do not feel anxious. But if I am anxious, there is no way for me to speak. I can't remember even one word.

As seen in her statements, she claimed having no problems in vocabulary when she was not anxious. She stated, however, that she could not recall any words when she felt anxious. These results were consistent with those of the first question.

In the third question, we asked the participants if they were afraid of making mistakes while taking the speaking tests. The follow-up questions for the third item inquired whether the fear that they felt of making mistakes contributed their anxiety in speaking tests. The results revealed that 9 of the students' were afraid of making mistakes, and they considered fear of making mistakes as a source of their speaking test anxiety, while only 3 of them reported not being afraid of making mistakes at all. Some of the representative responses to the third interview question are as following:

Sometimes, yes, because I have been learning English for a year, and when I make simple mistakes, I feel sorry. I ask to myself "If I do not know these simple things, why am I here?" and I feel bad.

I am pretty afraid. Actually, I know how to answer a question, but I can't remember what to use. Because we always speak Turkish, I feel like I am going to speak in Turkish. Then I get really afraid of not being able to speak and answer. I stay silent for some time, I pause.

In the examinations, yes, I am. I mean, you know that you are going to be graded, and you know that you are going to get a lower mark when you make mistakes. So, I become anxious.

I am afraid because I know it is a minus for me when I make a mistake in the exams.

What we concluded from the students' responses was that although a few of them were not afraid of making mistakes, most of them became afraid when it came to the speaking examinations. Their further answers to the follow-up questions signified

that *fear of making mistakes* was a serious source of speaking test anxiety for most of the students.

The fourth interview question was of vital importance as to clarify the third research question because we questioned the existence and the sources of their speaking test anxiety directly instead of asking indirect questions and making inferences out of them. What the results of the analysis on the students' responses to the fourth question revealed was that all of the 12 students were anxious about speaking tests, which was in support of the quantitative findings that were described in the first section. As for the reasons that made them feel anxious during the speaking tests, several different suggestions were put forward by the students. Some of those reasons are listed below:

I believe that the reason why we feel anxious is that we do not practise enough. When we do not practise speaking, we may feel anxious in the examinations as a result. Lack of self-confidence may also be one of the reasons.

I wish I could choose my tester instructors. I would choose the ones I am sincere with because I really get anxious while taking the speaking exams with some of our instructors. I can't express myself, and I am afraid of making mistakes. I can't talk to them actually, but I wish they were the ones I really like and get on well. I could talk to them in a more relaxed way.

I feel anxious about the classes, about anything in terms of "success" and related things. I feel something in my stomach before an examination, some different ache. It is all about the desire for success. I always want to be successful, and I always want more. I want people to see how good I am.

If there is some distance between me and the instructors, this can make me a little anxious. I feel like I am in an interview, and I get shy, I speak timidly. My voice mostly wobbles then.

We found out, by examining the responses separately and deeply, that almost half of the students cited their *fear of being graded* as a vital source of their speaking test anxiety as seen in the sample responses below:

The reason is that I know I am going to be graded.

Fear of grade. I do not normally care about grades, but here, you need to pass the limit. So you are affected.

We are graded in speaking tests, so, we struggle more. And when you take it more serious and struggle more, you become more nervous and anxious.

The responses of the participants revealed that their *speaking test partners* could as well play a vital role in their anxiousness. More specifically, we concluded that the students felt more anxious when they took the tests with better partners since they compared their speaking performance with that of their partners, and could not focus on the test tasks under that comparison circumstance. Besides, some of the students stated that not knowing about or not being social friends with the partners also caused anxiety as they felt strange.

Together with the test partners, *tester instructors* were also observed to be mentioned amongst the sources of speaking test anxiety. Some students, supporting the responses to the first interview question, verbalised that their tester instructors' personalities, attitudes and speech features contributed to their speaking test anxiety. Some of the sample descriptions are listed below:

There are some instructors, for example, who stress us out. I mean, we are afraid in front of them, and we can't speak as a result.

Some of the instructors, actually, have limits. And you have to pass those limits. And this makes you anxious, of course.

The instructors sometimes speak very fast. I mean, that can also affect the students. The fact that the instructors speak English as it is spoken in its natural environment sometimes feels like it is above our proficiency level.

I can't catch the pronunciations of the words when the instructors speak too fast and fluently for me. I can't understand the word at that moment, and this sometimes makes me anxious.

Another reason to cause speaking test anxiety for the students was that they did not have enough practice in speaking. The results of the quantitative findings also revealed that the students perceived *lack of speaking practice* as a negative effector on their speaking test anxiety. More specifically, due to the fact that they had only two hours of speaking, and that they did not speak outside the school, they believed that they experienced more anxiety in the speaking tests.

We found out that *feeling inadequate in the speaking skill* was also one of the most frequently cited reasons of speaking test anxiety. More specifically, the participants' responses demonstrated that they felt inadequate in vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation and grammar; and accordingly, they got more anxious during the speaking tests.

Fear of being ridiculed (fear of negative evaluation) was also amongst the sources of speaking test anxiety for the students. Accordingly, the students thought that

their partners would laugh at and make fun of them when they made any pronunciation or vocabulary mistakes. Thus, they felt more anxious in the speaking tests because they thought too much on the sentences before articulating.

The desire to be better at speaking, physical environmental conditions (e.g., distance, noise, uncomfortable chairs), and *fear of not being able to understand or being misunderstood* were also mentioned as the sources of the participants' speaking test anxiety. Moreover, some of the students pointed out that they conceived their *personal features* like shyness, timidity and diffidence as the sources of their anxiety in general, and in speaking tests as well.

In conclusion of the section to clarify the last research question, several causes of speaking test anxiety were suggested by the students, and some of these were in line with the quantitative findings. As a result of the content analysis of all of the responses, we came to the conclusion that having better partners at speaking; feeling inadequate in vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation, and grammar; worrying about being ridiculed; fearing of making mistakes; thinking about the possible bad grades and consequences; wishing for better a speaking skill; concerning about being misunderstood; and having inadequate speaking practice were the most frequently cited sources of the students' speaking test anxiety. Besides, some of the students mentioned physical environmental conditions and personal features as sources, too.

When we examined the results of content analysis, we realized that we could place some of these themes under the more general categories that were identified as a result of the quantitative findings. More specifically, we placed *having better partners at speaking; feeling inadequate in vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation, and grammar; fearing of making mistakes; thinking about the possible bad grades and consequences; and having inadequate speaking practice; and concerning about being misunderstood* under the performance-based sources, and altered the name of the category as *performance-based and instructional sources*. We found out that *shyness, timidity and diffidence* were under the *personal sources*. Finally, in consideration that the responses germane to *worrying about being ridiculed* and *wishing for a better speaking skill* were not appropriate to any of the categories, we generated two separate categories for them: *fear of negative evaluation* and *perfectionism*. In addition, to include the reasons like *distance, noise and comfort*, we suggested another category: *physical environmental sources*.

To sum up, utilizing the findings of both the quantitative and the qualitative data, we concluded that the students' speaking test anxiety stemmed from six main sources: performance-based and instructional sources, socio-cultural sources, personal sources, physical environmental sources, and fear of negative evaluation and perfectionism. It should be noted; however, that all of these categories contain diverse themes within themselves.



CHAPTER V

5. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Chapter five is the last part of the study, and it covers the summary of the study, discussion of the findings, pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research, and limitations of the study.

5.1. Summary of the Study

This study aimed to investigate the existence and the sources of foreign language speaking test anxiety. It also aimed to find out whether there existed any significant differences between the students' speaking test anxiety and their genders and faculties. Since the study was a mixed-method study, the data were collected through the quantitative and the qualitative methods. 81 non-compulsory preparatory school students from the Engineering, Agriculture, Science and Letters, and Economics and Administrative faculties of Harran University were the participants of the study.

Initially, the first survey was administered to the participants as to find out whether they experienced anxiety during the speaking tests that they took throughout the year. The students' responses to the items were analysed through the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS), and three factors were obtained as a result of the factor analysis. The factors were checked in terms of reliability and validity through Cronbach's Alpha analysis, and their correlation matrixes were examined. Secondly, another survey was applied to find out the reasons of the students' speaking test anxiety. Through the same analysis processes, three factors were obtained out of the second scale, too. Since two of the items did not have enough correlations with the obtained factors, those two were excluded, and the further analysis processes were conducted without them. Finally, semi-structured interviews were carried out with 12 of the students as to have a deeper and better understanding of their speaking test anxiety. To examine the interviews, content analysis was conducted; themes and categories were generated out of the analysis findings.

5.2. Findings and Discussion

It has been widely agreed that anxiety and achievement in foreign language learning have significant correlations. Although some studies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Kleinmann, 1977) have demonstrated that these correlations might be positive and they have facilitative effects, others (Aida, 1994; Young, 1986; Horwitz, 1991) have revealed that the correlations are significantly negative, and that anxiety debilitates foreign language learning process. Just like in the process itself, anxiety has consistently been proven to be involved in testing and evaluation phases as well, and spoken foreign language tests have been reported to be the most anxiety-producing ones. Indeed, Trifoni and Shahini (2011) state that anxiety in speaking test situations affects a great number of language learners, and impairs their test performance significantly. Designed in accordance with the earlier arguments, this study aimed to investigate the existence and the sources of foreign language speaking test anxiety amongst the non-compulsory preparatory school students of Harran University. To achieve its aim, the study was carried out under the guidance of three research questions which are briefly discussed below:

Research Question 1: Do the preparatory school students experience anxiety in the speaking parts of the midterm and/or proficiency examinations?

The analysis results of the students' responses to the first survey revealed that they experienced speaking test anxiety. When the mean scores of the items in the scale were examined, it was realised that most of the students were worried about performing in the speaking tests they took (Item 6), and that they were afraid of ending up with nausea before or during those tests (Item 16). Another important indicator of their speaking test anxiety was that the students were mostly worried about petrifying during the speaking tests (Item 5), which was closely related to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's (1986) "mental block" (p. 125) theory. Finally, a considerable number of the participants stated that they felt anxious as they worried about forgetting what they knew during the tests (Item 19), and this was quite parallel to Naveh-Benjamin, McKeachie and Lin's (1987) assertion which pointed that test-anxious students were not able to recall what they learnt.

It was also found out, through the analysis of the obtained factors, that the participants expected some physiological, emotional and academic concerns when they took the speaking tests, denoting that their speaking test anxiety revealed itself in three

forms: bodily symptoms, tension, and worry. More specifically, they were worried about suffering from physiological reactions like nausea, insomnia, mental block, palpitation, and eating problems (bodily symptoms); they were afraid of being adversely affected by their emotions (tension); and they had some academic concerns in terms of their performance in the speaking tests (worry). It was realised, through the review of the relevant literature, that these findings were also consistent with Sarason's (1984) Test Anxiety Factors Theory.

Apart from the quantitative findings, the qualitative findings also revealed that the participants felt anxious before or during the speaking tests they took. The examination of the students' responses to the questions in the interviews revealed that all of the 12 participants experienced speaking test anxiety, and that most of them conceived it as a significant factor contributing to their underperformance in the speaking tests.

It was noticed, during the literature review, that there existed several other studies with similar findings, denoting that language learners experienced a moderate level of anxiety during speaking tests. Yuen and Chu (2004), for example, conducted a research study with 75 freshman students, and ended up with the conclusion that the participants suffered from anxiety during the speaking tests. As a result, they concluded that English speaking tests were more complicated tasks than simple, straightforward language tasks. Similarly, Zhang and Liu's (2013) study also revealed that the students had moderate levels of speaking test anxiety. The findings of another study by Phillips (1992), in a similar vein, supported the existence and negative influences of foreign language speaking test anxiety amongst foreign language learners. Finally, Sayın's (2015) study demonstrated that the level of speaking test anxiety might not always be moderate, but it could be high as well.

Research Question 2: Do gender and faculty have any effects on the students' speaking test anxiety?

Along with the existence of speaking test anxiety, its relationships with the students' genders and faculties were also examined. The analysis results demonstrated that the female students were more test-anxious than their male counterparts. Accordingly, the females were more worried about not being able to pass the speaking tests (Item 1), and thus, they were more afraid that their families would get disappointed with their test scores (Item 3). Their expectations to petrify during the speaking tests were significantly higher than those of the males (Item 5), and this, in turn, prompted

them to worry more about performing in the tests (Item 6). These excessive concerns naturally caused them to suffer more from the potential existence of several physiological reactions (Items 13, 14, 15 and 16). As a result, they felt more test-anxious even though they thought they were ready enough for the tests (Item 18).

Several other studies have also shown that female participants were more prone to feel higher levels of anxiety under testing situations. Everson and Millsap's (1991) study, for example, demonstrated that the female participants possessed higher levels of anxiety as well as higher levels of emotionality in contrast to the males. Therefore, it might be deduced that their strong emotionality prompts them to be more liable to suffer from anxiety under evaluation conditions. According to Basso, Gallagher, Mikusa & Rueter (2011), physiological or hormonal elements may be effective in increasing the level of anxiety in females. However, there exists no agreement in terms of the sources of these gender differences.

In another study, Aydın, Yavuz and Yeşilyurt (2006) ended up with the analogue conclusion that the female students experienced higher levels of test anxiety although they prepared for the tests better than the male students. With regard to the findings of this current study, it was found out that the female students were similarly more concerned about their speaking test scores, and thus, they were more anxious about the potential failure scenarios. Moreover, the analysis results of the interviews revealed that the only a few participants to mention success and perfectionism were females. Therefore, it might be deduced that the female students gave more importance to achievement, denoting that they wished for more success. Taking into consideration Gregersen and Horwitz's (2002) assumption to point that perfectionism caused higher levels of anxiety, this finding might not be considered as a surprise. These consistent findings indicate, as aforementioned, that female language learners are willing to attain more success in language learning. As a result of this strong desire, they become more ambitious, and it causes them to experience higher levels of anxiety under testing situations. However, further and more specific research studies are necessary as to prove these assumptions and come to a conclusion that there exists a significant correlation between the students' genders and their speaking test anxiety.

The relationship between the participants' speaking test anxiety and their faculties was also analysed. The final results indicated that the faculties did not have any significant correlations with the students' speaking test anxiety. Although two of the faculties (Faculty of Engineering and Faculty of Economics and Administrative

Sciences) initially seemed to correlate significantly and the students from the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences were observed to feel more anxious, it was found out, later on, that the seeming significant correlation stemmed from the majority of higher-anxious female students in Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences. As a result, it was concluded that the faculties did not have any significant effect on the students' speaking test anxiety levels.

Research Question 3: What are the sources, if any, of the speaking test anxiety that non-compulsory preparatory program students experience?

The analyses on the data gathered from both the survey and the interviews revealed that the participants' speaking test anxiety stemmed from six different main categories of sources: performance-based and instructional sources, socio-cultural sources, personal sources, physical environmental sources, fear of negative evaluation and perfectionism.

First, performance-based and instructional sources, which comprise any concerns related to the students' academic lives, were found to be anxiety-producing by the students. Worries about linguistic competence (e.g., grammar, fluency, pronunciation, vocabulary), instructional conditions (e.g., test techniques, testers' attitudes, partners or groups, practice lacks), and test results (e.g., low grades, failure, disappointment) all fell within this category. Accordingly, the test-anxious students conceived themselves to be inadequate in terms of their linguistic capabilities; felt impaired by the tester instructors and their test-partners' attitudes; and they eventually ended up with pessimistic beliefs, which all led their speaking test anxiety to increase. These findings were in line with the relevant literature. The participants in Balemir's (2009) study were also worried about their inadequacies in the target language, and this, as a result, prompted them to become anxious while conducting spoken tasks.

Second, social and cultural backgrounds of the students were observed to be mentioned amongst the sources of their speaking test anxiety, which was in line with Timina (2015) and Putwain's (2007) findings. Accordingly, the students attributed their speaking test anxiety to the fact that their society and culture set particular bounds preventing them from satisfyingly performing. They stated, for example, that people did not like to clearly express what they wanted to say indeed, which caused a struggle for them, and triggered anxiety. They also stated that their society was shy on the whole, and this led them to display timid behaviours in terms of speaking as they are natural components of their society, and they feature its traits.

Third, the study revealed that some of the students related their speaking test anxiety to some personal characteristics like shyness, timidity, uneasiness and diffidence; and these findings were in close relationship with Subaşı's (2010) findings. Accordingly, the students with speaking test anxiety believed that they were shy and diffident, and that the reason why they experienced anxiety during the speaking tests was the fact that they felt so.

Fourth, some situational variables germane to testing rooms were also cited as alternative sources of speaking test anxiety. Some students pointed that the distracting noise in the test room prevented them from clearly hearing and understanding the tester instructors and test partners, which, as a result, prompted them to feel anxious. Several others expressed that the physical distance between the tester instructors and the test takers also caused anxiety as they felt they would not be able to hear and understand the instructions and questions. These findings were in close relationship with those of Bushnell's (1978) study, which revealed that physical environment is a significant determinant of foreign language test anxiety.

Next to last, the analyses of both the quantitative and the qualitative data demonstrated that most of the students were afraid of being unfavourably evaluated by their peers and instructors, which denoted that they had fear of negative evaluation. This finding was quite similar to almost all of the studies aimed at investigating anxiety over foreign language learning and testing, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's (1986) study being in the first place. Accordingly, the fact that the students felt inadequate in terms of the linguistic competences led them to believe that their peers or instructors would ridicule them by laughing or making fun out of their mistakes. Thus, they did not want to become laugh stocks and preferred, with the contributions of their anxiety, not to speak at all.

Last of all, some of the students' desire to attain more success and become perfect also impaired their speaking test performance, causing them experience more stress and anxiety. This finding was totally the same in Gregersen and Horwitz's (2002) study, too.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

Taking into consideration the earlier findings and the results of this current research study, language instructors should be sufficiently aware that most language

learners experience particular levels of anxiety during the speaking tests they are required to take, and that there exist underlying factors behind their anxiousness. Some suggestions might be put forward in accordance with the debilitating impacts of anxiety on students' speaking test performance.

First of all, instructors should provide their students with a wider range and a larger number of speaking activities before the speaking tests since language learners usually mention their speaking practice as being insufficient for taking oral exams. These activities should be followed positive feedback given in a relaxed physical environment by a friendly instructor as to make learners feel at ease. Besides the in-class speaking tasks, speaking tests should also be administered in more comfortable rooms by more encouraging instructors who should also be sincere with their students.

Secondly, students' personal characteristics, their demographic backgrounds and particular situational variables germane to their test performance should be paid attention during the speaking tests. Instructors should be able to notice any sign of anxiety, and try to remove the triggers if possible. If instructors find themselves incapable of noticing anxiety symptoms, students should be asked to share their feelings through certain tools such as diaries, notes, or letters. This way, it might be easier for both sides to cope with nervousness or anxiety.

Input and testing material should be consistent. More specifically, learners should not be required to take speaking tests with unknown material and content. They might even be given the speaking test topics beforehand, so that they have the chance to get prepared. As for the mistakes, instructors should be totally tolerant, and let their students learn through their mistakes. Considering the fact that fear of making mistakes is a frequently mentioned source of anxiety, language instructors should teach learners not to worry about making mistakes.

Overall, the results and suggestions of the available studies should be examined by instructors, and tests, specifically speaking tests, should be designed in accordance.

5.4. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

This research study was conducted with a group of 81 students from the School of Foreign Languages of Harran University. So, a limited number of language learners from only one university and its four faculties (i.e., Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Faculty of Agriculture and Faculty of Science

and Letters) participated in the study. A deeper and better insight into the phenomenon and the relevant sources could have been obtained with a greater number of students from a wider range of faculties. Therefore, researchers of further studies should take into consideration the sample size and width of their studies.

Another limitation of this study was that, it only focused on the existence of speaking test anxiety. However, the relevant effects could as well be investigated, and more qualified data to end up with richer results could have been obtained. So, further studies should be broader in scope as to reveal blanket outcomes.

Finally, the fact that this study utilized surveys might also be a limitation. Although surveys are considerably important as to collect information from large numbers of groups in limited time periods, items may not always provide the participants with sufficient satisfaction. More specifically, item statements are kept as short as possible, which, in turn, causes imperfection. Therefore, some open ended items, in which participants have the chance to freely express what they want to, might be added into surveys as to make them better and safer data collection instruments.

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7. APPENDIX

7.1. APPENDIX 1: Demographic Information Part of the Survey

Demographic Information

Please mark the most suitable alternative below with “X”.

Gender

1. Male (___) 2. Female (___)

Age Group

1. 17 – 20 (___) 2. 21 – 24 (___) 3. 25 – 28 (___) 4. 29 – 33 (___)

Faculty

1. Faculty of Engineering (___)
2. Faculty of Agriculture (___)
3. Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (___)
4. Faculty of Science and Letters (___)

7.2. APPENDIX 2: Speaking Test Anxiety Scale

N	Questionnaire Items	Strongly Disagree(1)	Disagree(2)	Neither Agree Nor Disagree(3)	Agree(4)	Strongly Agree(5)
1.	I am worried that I won't pass the speaking part in the midterm.					
2.	I don't believe that I can pass the speaking part in the midterm.					
3.	I think my parents and teachers will be disappointed with my speaking part of the midterm results.					
4.	I feel pressure to pass the speaking part in the midterm before graduation.					
5.	I'm worried that my mind will go blank during the speaking part of the midterm.					
6.	I never worry about performing in the speaking part of the midterm.					
7.	I am worried that I will make mistakes on easy questions during the speaking part of the midterm.					
8.	I believe that I can do well on the speaking part of the midterm.					
9.	I'm worried that I will find myself thinking of the consequences of failing during the speaking part of the midterm.					
10.	I expect to feel nauseous before the speaking part of the midterm.					
11.	I expect to have trouble sleeping the night before the speaking part of the midterm.					
12.	The closer I get to the speaking part of the midterm date, the harder it is for me to concentrate on the material.					
13.	I expect to feel uneasy before the speaking part of the midterm.					
14.	I expect to feel my heart beating quickly while taking the speaking part of the midterm.					
15.	I expect to have sweaty palms, shaky hands, or other signs of nervousness right before the speaking part of the midterm.					
16.	I expect to feel sick at my stomach before or during the speaking part of the midterm.					
17.	I expect to feel confident and relaxed before taking the speaking part of the midterm.					
18.	Even though I'm prepared for the speaking part of the midterm, I still feel anxious about it.					
19.	I'm worried that I will be so nervous that I will forget what I know during the speaking part of the midterm.					
20.	I expect to not be able to eat anything before the speaking part of the midterm.					
21.	I expect that my emotional feelings will not interfere with my performance during the speaking part of the midterm.					
22.	I'm worried that I will feel anxious about the English speaking section of the midterm.					
23.	I expect it to be easy to answer the speaking section of the midterm.					

7.3. APPENDIX 3: Speaking Test Anxiety Reasons Scale

Item Number	Questionnaire Items	Strongly Disagree(1)	Disagree(2)	Disagree(3)	Neither Agree Nor	Agree(4)	Strongly Agree(5)
1.	I feel nervous because I am afraid that I will not understand or misunderstand the teacher's question or task.						
2.	It is sometimes hard for me to concentrate on the content of the speaking exam.						
3.	I have had no experience of speaking when other students are listening.						
4.	I make noticeable mistakes and do not know the necessary vocabulary.						
5.	My English is not fluent.						
6.	My teachers of English never/seldom encourage me to speak English during the tests.						
7.	I don't have enough practice; two hours of oral English per a week is not enough for me.						
8.	I am not very interested in English.						
9.	Our people are shy; they don't like to speak in public.						
10.	I do not want to look foolish and "lose my face" in front of the whole group.						
11.	My parents have always told me to be quiet and silent when a teacher is talking to me.						
12.	In our culture, students should only listen to what the teacher says.						
13.	In our culture, people do not like to express their opinions in public.						

7.4. APPENDIX 4: Semi-Structured Interview Questions

1. What makes you nervous or anxious while speaking English?
2. What are your strengths or weaknesses in speaking English?
Prompts: Fluency, accuracy, pronunciation?
3. Do you worry about making mistakes while speaking?
Prompt: When?
4. Do you feel nervous and anxious in speaking tests? Why or why not?



7.5. APPENDIX 5: Research Ethics Committee Approval for the Study



T.C.
HARRAN ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER ETİK KURULU

Tarih: 04.04.2017
Saat: 15:00
Sayı: 2017/11
Konu: Okt. Hüseyin KOÇ

Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Etik Kurulu'nun yaptığı toplantı sonucunda Harran Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okulu Öğretim elemanı **Okt. Hüseyin KOÇ'un** araştırmacı, danışmanı **Yrd. Doç. Dr. Şehnaz SAHİNKARAKAŞ** ile yürüteceği "**Yabancı Dil (İngilizce) Öğrencilerinin Konuşma Sınavı Kaygısı ve Bu Kaygının Arkasındaki Muhtemel Nedenler**" konulu yüksek lisans tez çalışması oybirliğiyle ~~uygun~~ uygun bulunmuş ve 04 Nisan 2017 tarihinde geçerli olmak üzere bir yıl süreyle onaylanmıştır.

Prof. Dr. Murat AĞGÜNDÜZ
Başkan

Dr. Demet KIRBULUT
Başkan Yardımcısı

Prof. Dr. Mehmet ONAL

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Nazmiye Gürel CENNETKUŞU
Üye

Prof. Dr. Ali GÜLLÜ

Prof. Dr. Ayhan İSMAIL YILMAZ

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Adnan KILIÇ

7.6. APPENDIX 6: A Sample of Interview Transcriptions in Turkish

Dördüncü Öğrenci

Görüşme Tarihi: 30 Mayıs 2017

Ö: Öğrenci

A: Araştırmacı Okutman

A: Evet, hoş geldin. Konuyu biliyorsun zaten, sana birkaç sorum olacak sadece. Bu sorulara lütfen açık ve olabildiğince uzun cevaplar vermeye çalış. Yani cevapların, “evet” ya da “hayır” şeklinde kısacık cevaplar olmasın lütfen.

Ö: Olur.

A: İlk soruyla başlıyorum. İngilizce konuşurken seni gergin ya da tedirgin yapan şey ya da şeyler nelerdir?

Ö: Anlaşılmamaktır.

A: Karşıdaki kişi tarafından anlaşılmamak...

Ö: Veya cümleleri kurarken yanlış kurmak. Ve bazı kelimelerin anlamlarını bilmeyince, insan konuşmak da istemiyor açıkçası. Yani mesela, “cümleyi tamamlayamayacağım” derdi.

A: Anlaşılmamaktan ve bilmediğin kelimeler olduğundan korkuyorsun. Başka ne gibi şeyler olabilir?

Ö: Karşımdaki insanın benimle dalga geçeceğinden korkabilirim mesela.

A: Seninle dalga geçilmesinden korkarsın.

Ö: Aynen. Şu şekilde, hani, ülkemizde İngilizce konuşmak pek de şey değil, böyle... İnsanlar, “aa İngilizce konuştu” falan deyip geçiyorlar. Biraz dalgaya alınmış durumda, önemli olmasına rağmen. Yani, konuştuğun ortamda insanlar daha farklı yaklaşıyorlar.

A: Seninle dalga geçecekler diye sen de konuşmak istemiyorsun.

Ö: Yani. Veya şakasına vurup geçiştirecekler diye. Yani, ciddiye alınmak istiyor insan.

A: Ciddiye alınmamaktan da korkuyorsun yani. Güzel. Başka? Daha spesifik örneklerin var mı?

Ö: Söylediklerimin yanlış anlaşılması korkusu da var.

A: Bu da seni korkutup konuşmamaya itiyor, öyle mi?

Ö: Evet.

A: Anladım. Peki, ikinci soruyla devam edelim. İngilizce konuşuyorsun zaten. Peki, konuşma noktasında güçlü olduğunu düşündüğün yönlerin var mı? Bunu biraz açacak olursak yani, İngilizce konuşma becerisi açısından konuşuyorum, akıcı mısındır ya da

gamer anlamında yanlışlar yapmadan konuşabilme özelliğın var mı ya da telaffuz konusunda mı iyisin?

Ö: Telaffuz ve gamer konusunda iyiyim. Ama akıcılık konusunda pek de iyi değilim. Çünkü hani böyle, “ı, mmm, ıı” falan...

A: Çok fazla duraksama yapıyorsun yani.

Ö: Evet, çok fazla duraksama yapıyorum, çünkü hani, aklımda bir iki cümle var, ama onu söylerken böyle, tekrardan dışarıdan birleştirmem gerekiyor. Ve bu gerçekten çok zor oluyor.

A: Anladım. Yani, iyi olduğun yanlar için telaffuz ve gamer diyorsun. Peki, zayıf olduğun yönler neler? Akıcılıktan başka zayıf olduğunu düşündüğün yönlerin var mı?

Ö: Cümleyi hemen birleştiremiyorum. İlk başta böyle aklımda düşünmem gerekiyor onu. Aklımın içinde onu toparlıyorum, ondan sonra dışarı aktarabiliyorum. Ama söylerken bir daha toparlamam gerekiyor, çünkü aklımdakini alıp direkt dışarıya vuramıyorum. Farklı biraz.

A: Peki. Sonraki soruyla devam ediyorum. Konuşurken peki, hatalar yapmaktan korkuyor musun?

Ö: Evet.

A: En çok ne zaman oluyor peki bu? Yani “ne zaman” derken, sınıf içinde mi, aktivite yaparken mi, sınavda mı, quiz’lerde mi?

Ö: İş ciddiye bindiğinde.

A: İş ciddiye bindiğinde?

Ö: Evet, insan gerçekten çok gergin oluyor. Tedirgin olunca da daha çok yanlış yapıyorsun.

A: Ciddiden kastın ne peki?

Ö: Mesela, konuşma quiz’leri.

A: Peki, normal şartlarda, sıfıftayken ya da arkadaşlarıyla konuşuyorken, pratik yapıyorken?

Ö: Yok, hayır. Hiçbir şekilde. Çünkü hani, onlar da benim gibi.

A: Ama sınavlara geldiğinde...

Ö: Sınavlara gelince oluyor, çünkü karşımızda bilen insanlar olunca, insan bir tedirgin olup çekiniyor yani.

A: Anladım. Peki, bu tedirginliğin sebebi nedir sence?

Ö: Aslında bu benden kaynaklanan bir şey. Biraz kişisel bir şey.

A: Az önce dedin ya, “ciddileştiğinde tedirgin oluyorum” diye. Neden?

Ö: Çünkü işin içine bir şeyler giriyor mutlaka. Mesela, konuşma quiz’inde not var. Hani, diyorsun ki, “biraz daha yüksek not alayım” ve “biraz daha yüksek düşün ortalamam”. Bunun için daha çok çabalıyorsun. İnsan böyle, daha çok ciddiye alınca veya daha çok çabalayınca daha bir tedirgin oluyor. Yani, bana göre öyle, ben öyleyim.

A: Kaygının sebebi notlar diyorsun.

Ö: Evet.

A: Yani, not olmasa mesela? Tedirgin hissetmez misin konuşurken?

Ö: Yine hissederim.

A: Demek ki, not değil mi o zaman?

Ö: Yani, şu şekilde, karşımda benden daha iyi bir insan olduğu zaman yanlış yapmaktan korktuğum için bayağı bir tedirgin hissederim.

A: Yani, dinleniyor olmak mı seni tedirgin ediyor?

Ö: Evet. Sizin tarafınızdan dinleniyor olmak.

A: Anladım. Peki, katıldığın için teşekkür ediyorum.

Ö: Rica ederim, ben teşekkür ederim.

7.7. APPENDIX 7: A Sample of Interview Transcriptions in English

Fourth Student

Interview Date: 30 May, 2017

S: Student

R: Researcher Instructor

R: Yes, welcome. You already know the subject matter; I will have only a few questions for you. Try to answer these questions as frankly and lengthily as possible. In other words, do not answer them only by saying “Yes.” or “No.”, please.

S: Of course.

R: I will start with the first question. What are the things that make you nervous or anxious while speaking English?

S: Not being able to be understood.

R: The worry of not being understood...

S: Or forming incorrect sentences. And, when you do not know the meanings of some words, you do not want to speak actually. In other words, you say, “I will not be able to complete this sentence.” and you can’t in the end.

R: You are afraid because there are words that you do not know and you think people will not understand you. Are there any other things?

S: I can also be afraid of being ridiculed.

R: Are you afraid of being ridiculed by others?

S: Exactly. It is, you know, speaking English in our country is not that... People say, “Oh my God, she/he spoke English!” and they ridicule you. Although it is very important, some people ridicule it. You know, people look at you in a different way when you speak it.

R: And you do not want to speak it as you think they will ridicule you, right?

S: Yes. Or they may laugh off. You know, everybody wants to be taken serious.

R: You are afraid of not being taken serious, too, right? Good. What else? Do you have more specific examples for this?

S: I am also afraid of being misunderstood.

R: This worries you, too, and prompts you not to speak, right?

S: Yes.

R: I see. OK, let’s continue with the second question. You speak English here. Are there things that you think you are strong at in terms of speaking skill? I mean, taking

speaking skill into consideration, are you fluent, can you form grammatically correct sentences or are you good at pronunciation?

S: I am good at pronunciation and grammar. However, I am not really good at fluency because I constantly say, “Err, uhmm, mmm...” and things like those.

R: You mean you pause a lot.

S: Yes, I make a lot of pauses because, you know, I have one or two sentences in my mind, and while forming those sentences, you know, I feel I have to form them again and again. And it is really difficult.

R: I see. So, you say that you are good at pronunciation and grammar. What about the weak points? Are there things that you feel you are weak at apart from fluency?

S: I can't form sentences quickly. I need to think on them in my mind first. Make them up there, and after that I can express them. However, I need to form them again while speaking because I can't express the sentences in my mind directly. It is different.

R: Alright. I will continue with the next. Are you afraid of making mistakes while speaking?

S: Yes, I am.

R: When does it happen most? I mean, does it happen in the classroom, during the activities, during the examinations or during the quizzes?

S: When the things turn serious.

R: When the things turn serious?

S: Yes, you really get nervous. And when you become nervous, you make more mistakes.

R: What do you mean by “Serious”?

S: For example, speaking quizzes are serious.

R: Well, what about normal times? Does it also happen in the classroom, while speaking with your friends and practising?

S: No, not at all because, you know, they are also like me.

R: But when it comes to the examinations...

S: It happens, yes, because when you have someone who speaks English perfectly in front of you, you become nervous and withdrawn.

R: I see. Well, what do you think is the reason behind this anxiety?

S: Actually, it is something about me. It is personal.

R: You said “I get anxious when the things turn serious.” right now. Why?

S: Because there are other things involved. For example, we are graded in speaking quizzes. You know, you say, "Let me get a higher grade." and "Let me have a higher overall." and so, you struggle more. And when you take it more serious and struggle more, you become more nervous and anxious. I mean, it works like this for me. I am like this.

R: So, you say that the reason behind the anxiety is the grades. If we do not have grades, don't you feel anxious while speaking?

S: I do.

R: So... Is it not grades then?

S: I mean, when there is someone in front of me who is better than me, I am afraid of making mistakes and I feel much anxious.

R: So, does being listened to make you anxious?

S: Yes, being listened to by you.

R: I see. Thank you for your participation.

7.8. APPENDIX 8: Pearson Correlation Matrix of Bodily Symptoms Factor

		Item5	Item10	Item11	Item14	Item15	Item16	Item20
Item5	Pearson Correlation	1	,208	,300**	,301**	,310**	,440**	,279*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,062	,007	,006	,005	,000	,012
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item10	Pearson Correlation	,208	1	,482**	,200	,299**	,227*	,410**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,062		,000	,074	,007	,042	,000
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item11	Pearson Correlation	,300**	,482**	1	,116	,266*	,347**	,522**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,007	,000		,301	,016	,002	,000
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item14	Pearson Correlation	,301**	,200	,116	1	,737**	,667**	,247*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,006	,074	,301		,000	,000	,026
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item15	Pearson Correlation	,310**	,299**	,266*	,737**	1	,705**	,317**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,005	,007	,016	,000		,000	,004
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item16	Pearson Correlation	,440**	,227*	,347**	,667**	,705**	1	,365**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,042	,002	,000	,000		,001
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item20	Pearson Correlation	,279*	,410**	,522**	,247*	,317**	,365**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,012	,000	,000	,026	,004	,001	
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81

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

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

7.9. APPENDIX 9: Pearson Correlation Matrix of Tension Factor

		Item9	Item12	Item13	Item18	Item19	Item21*	Item22
Item9	Pearson Correlation	1	,436**	,407**	,317**	,413**	,135	,285**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,004	,000	,231	,010
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item12	Pearson Correlation	,436**	1	,478**	,402**	,465**	,175	,366**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000	,000	,119	,001
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item13	Pearson Correlation	,407**	,478**	1	,455**	,511**	,222*	,439**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		,000	,000	,047	,000
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item18	Pearson Correlation	,317**	,402**	,455**	1	,640**	,221*	,626**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,004	,000	,000		,000	,047	,000
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item19	Pearson Correlation	,413**	,465**	,511**	,640**	1	,188	,671**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000		,092	,000
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item21*	Pearson Correlation	,135	,175	,222*	,221*	,188	1	,176
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,231	,119	,047	,047	,092		,117
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Item22	Pearson Correlation	,285**	,366**	,439**	,626**	,671**	,176	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,010	,001	,000	,000	,000	,117	
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81

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

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

7.11. APPENDIX 11: Pearson Correlation Matrix of Personal Reasons Factor

		Item3	Item8	Item10
Item3	Pearson Correlation	1	,250*	,287**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,024	,010
	N	81	81	81
Item8	Pearson Correlation	,250*	1	,297**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,024		,007
	N	81	81	81
Item10	Pearson Correlation	,287**	,297**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,010	,007	
	N	81	81	81

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

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



7.12. APPENDIX 12: Pearson Correlation Matrix of Socio-Cultural Reasons

Factor

		Item9	Item11	Item12	Item13
Item9	Pearson Correlation	1	,113	,043	,468**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,314	,703	,000
	N	81	81	81	81
Item11	Pearson Correlation	,113	1	,381**	,114
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,314		,000	,311
	N	81	81	81	81
Item12	Pearson Correlation	,043	,381**	1	,227*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,703	,000		,041
	N	81	81	81	81
Item13	Pearson Correlation	,468**	,114	,227*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,311	,041	
	N	81	81	81	81

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

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

7.13. APPENDIX 13: Pearson Correlation Matrix of Performance-Based Reasons

Factor

		Item1	Item2	Item4	Item5
Item1	Pearson Correlation	1	,417**	,281*	,269*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,011	,015
	N	81	81	81	81
Item2	Pearson Correlation	,417**	1	,370**	,242*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,001	,030
	N	81	81	81	81
Item4	Pearson Correlation	,281*	,370**	1	,240*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,011	,001		,031
	N	81	81	81	81
Item5	Pearson Correlation	,269*	,242*	,240*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,015	,030	,031	
	N	81	81	81	81

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

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

7.14. APPENDIX 14: Pearson Correlation Matrix of all of the Factors and Overall

Anxiety

		Overall Anxiety	Bodily Symptoms	Tension	Worry	Personal Reasons	Cultural Reasons	Perf.-Based Reasons
Overall Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	1	,874**	,861**	,882**	,254*	-,140	,423**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,000	,022	,214	,000
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Bodily Symptoms	Pearson Correlation	,874**	1	,621**	,675**	,172	-,138	,221*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000	,125	,218	,047
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Tension	Pearson Correlation	,861**	,621**	1	,630**	,211	-,079	,446**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		,000	,058	,486	,000
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Worry	Pearson Correlation	,882**	,675**	,630**	1	,278*	-,149	,433**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000		,012	,185	,000
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Personal Reasons	Pearson Correlation	,254*	,172	,211	,278*	1	,205	,436**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,022	,125	,058	,012		,066	,000
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Cultural Reasons	Pearson Correlation	-,140	-,138	-,079	-,149	,205	1	,157
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,214	,218	,486	,185	,066		,162
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
Perf.-Based Reasons	Pearson Correlation	,423**	,221*	,446**	,433**	,436**	,157	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,047	,000	,000	,000	,162	
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).								
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).								

7.15. APPENDIX 15: Institution Approval

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 26/10/2017-38531



T.C.
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İlgi dilekçeniz müdürlüğümüzce incelenmiş olup, 2016/2017 akademik yıllarının bahar döneminde yaptığımız "Konuşma Sınavı Kaygısı ve Altında Yatan Muhtemel Sebepler" isimli tez araştırma çalışmanıza yüksekokulumuz tarafından izin verilmiştir.
Bilgilerinize rica ederim.

e-İmzalıdır
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Nazmiye GÜREL
CENNETKÜŞÜ
Müdür

Ek:ilgi dilekçe

26/10/2017 Şef
26/10/2017 Fakülte Sekreteri

Müslüm ALİCAN
Hanif ÖNCÜ