

T.C.
BALIKESİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ BİLİM DALI

**A STUDY ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE SPEAKING ANXIETY OF
PRE-SERVICE ELT TEACHERS**

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Merve Nur BOLDAN

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Tez Danışmanı
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Fatih YAVUZ

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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
TEZ ONAY SAYFASI

Enstitümüzün Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda 201612553003 numaralı Merve Nur Boldan'ın hazırladığı "A Study on Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety of Pre-Service ELT Teachers" konulu YÜKSEK LİSANS tezi ile ilgili TEZ SAVUNMA SINAVI, Lisansüstü Eğitim Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliği uyarınca 12 Haziran 2019 tarihinde yapılmış, sorulan sorulara alınan cevaplar sonunda tezin onayına OY BİRLİĞİ / OY ÇOKLUĞU ile karar verilmiştir.

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Yukarıdaki imzaların adı geçen öğretim üyelerine ait olduklarını onaylım.

02.07.2019
Enstitü Müdürü

Prof. Dr. Kenan Ziya TAŞ
Müdür

PREFACE

This study aims to investigate the effect of anxiety coping strategies used by the instructors and learners on learners' foreign language speaking anxiety. It aims to provide an additional perspective to the current researches in the scope of pre-service English Language Teaching (ELT) teachers at Balıkesir University in the context of their speaking anxiety level, their reasons for it, their anxiety coping strategies, and their instructors' role in handling their speaking anxiety; therefore, it aims to provide an additional perspective to the foreign language learning field with the quantitative and qualitative data instruments, researcher plans to figure out the anxiety levels of participants and their strategies to handle it to provide some recommendations both for learners and instructors to overcome speaking anxiety. Moreover, the action research, conducted by the researcher, aims to provide a deeper sight for the significance and influence of the use of anxiety coping strategies utilized by the instructors and learners on speaking anxiety. Since participants are both language learners and teacher candidates, they may both benefit from these recommendations as learners and instructors.

I would like to express my deepest acknowledgments to my supervisor Asst. Prof. Dr. Fatih YAVUZ for his valuable support and guidance in this period. And I would like to express my special thanks to my instructors in Balıkesir University, Prof. Dr. Mehmet BAŞTÜRK, Asst. Prof. Dr. Dilek TÜFEKÇİ CAN, and Prof. Dr. Selami AYDIN. I also present my deepest thanks to the examining committee members, Prof. Dr. Dilek İNAN and Dr. Tolga ERDOĞAN, for their enlightening contributions to my thesis.

And I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my mother Havva ERGİN BOLDAN for her continuous encouragement, support, and her endless love.

Merve Nur BOLDAN

ÖZET

İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN YABANCI DİLDE KONUŞMA KAYGISI ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Bu çalışmada İngiliz dili eğitimi öğrencileri ve öğretmenleri tarafından kullanılan kaygı azaltma yöntemlerinin yabancı dilde konuşma kaygısı üzerindeki etkisinin araştırılması amaçlanmıştır. Bu amaçla, araştırmacı konuşma kaygı düzeylerine göre seçilen 8 İngiliz Dili Eğitimi birinci sınıf öğrencisiyle dört haftalık bir konuşma kulübü düzenlenmiştir. ‘Yabancı Dilde Konuşma Kaygısı Anketi’ (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986) eylem araştırması katılımcılarının konuşma kaygı düzeylerindeki farklılıkları belirlemek için öntest ve sontest olarak kullanılmıştır. Buna ek olarak her bir nitel veri toplama aracının detaylı incelemesi daha kapsamlı bir analiz için sunulmuştur. Bu amaca ek olarak, Balıkesir Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi öğrencilerinin yabancı dilde konuşma kaygısı düzeyleri, bu kaygının sebepleri, üstesinden gelmek için kullandıkları stratejiler ve öğretmenlerinin öğrencilerin konuşma kaygılarını azaltmaktaki rolü ‘Yabancı Dilde Konuşma Kaygısı Anketi’ ve dört açık uçlu soru ile incelenmiştir. Niceliksel veriler betimsel ve çıkarımsal yönden Sosyal Bilimler için İstatistik Paketi ile incelenmiştir. Balıkesir Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi öğrencileri tarafından toplanan nicel veri sonuçları öğrencilerin orta seviyede yabancı dilde konuşma kaygısı yaşadıklarını açığa çıkartmıştır, kız öğrenciler erkek öğrencilere kıyasla daha yüksek seviyede konuşma kaygısına sahiptir. Öğrenim

seviyeleri ve yabancı dil eğitimi ile konuşma kaygısı arasında önemli bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Balıkesir Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi öğrencilerinden toplanan nitel veri sonuçları, en genel konuşma kaygısı sebeplerinin dilbilimsel yetersizlik ve başkalarının önünde konuşmak olarak bulunduğunu göstermiştir, diğer yandan en genel kaygıyla başa çıkma yöntemleri dilbilimsel yetersizliklere çözüm aramak ve dört dil becerisinin pratiğini yapmak olarak bulunmuştur. Eğitimden tarafından en yaygın şekilde kullanılan kaygıyla başa çıkma yöntemleri ise öğrencilerin hatalarını düzeltmek ve derslerde konuşma aktiviteleri sağlamak olarak belirtilmiştir.

Eylem araştırmasına katılan 8 İngiliz Dili Eğitimi birinci sınıf öğrencisinden toplanan nitel veri sonuçları, eğitimden tarafından kullanılan kaygıyla başa çıkma yöntemlerinin öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısını olumlu yönde etkilediğini göstermiştir, sonuç olarak öğrencilerin %75'inin konuşma kaygı düzeyleri konuşma kulübünün sonrasında azalmıştır.

Nitel veri analizleri öğrencilerin tehditkar olmayan destekleyici ve kolaylaştırıcı eğitimden, az sayıda öğrenci, ve ilgi çekici konular ile daha rahat hissettikleri ve kaygısızca konuştuklarını belirtmiştir. Buna ek olarak, olumsuz değerlendirme korkusunun yok edilmesi ve alternatif değerlendirme tekniklerinin kullanılması da öğrencilerin konuşma yeterliklerini geliştirmiştir. Öğrenciler grup üyeleriyle birlik olmaya ve oyunu kazanmaya odaklandığı için oyun kullanımı da öğrencilerin konuşma kaygı düzeylerini azaltmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yabancı dil öğrenimi, konuşma kaygısı, kaygı ile baş etme yöntemleri

ABSTRACT

A STUDY ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE SPEAKING ANXIETY OF PRE-SERVICE ELT TEACHERS

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Master's Thesis, Department of Foreign Language Teaching,
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This study aimed to investigate the effect of anxiety coping strategies used by the instructors and learners on learners' foreign language speaking anxiety. For that purpose, a 4 week speaking club was arranged by the researcher with 8 freshman ELT students, selected in accordance with their speaking anxiety level. Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Questionnaire (FLSAQ) (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986) was conducted as a pretest and posttest in the study to explore the differences in anxiety levels of the action research participants. Moreover, the comprehensive analysis of each qualitative data instrument was presented for an overall analysis. In addition to this aim, the foreign language speaking anxiety level of pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University, their reasons, their anxiety coping strategies for this speaking anxiety, and their instructors' role in decreasing speaking anxiety of learners were examined with FLSAQ and four open-ended questions. The quantitative data were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics via Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS).

The results of the quantitative data revealed that students had a moderate level of foreign language speaking anxiety; female students had a higher level of anxiety in

comparison to male students. There was not a significant correlation between speaking anxiety and class and there was not a significant correlation between speaking anxiety and language education. The results of the qualitative data showed that the most common reasons for speaking anxiety were found as linguistic deficiencies and speaking in front of others whilst the most common anxiety coping strategies were found as finding solutions for linguistic deficiencies and practice of four language skills. The most common strategies used by the instructors were reported as correction of students' mistakes and providing speaking activities in the classes. The findings of quantitative data, gathered from 8 freshman ELT students at Balıkesir University, displayed that anxiety coping strategies used by the instructor influenced the speaking anxiety level of learners in a positive way; therefore, the speaking anxiety level of students decreased (%75) after the speaking club. The results of qualitative data indicated that learners felt more comfortable and spoke unconcernedly in a non-threatening classroom environment, with a supportive and facilitator instructor, smaller classes, and attractive topics. Moreover, the elimination of fear of negative evaluation and the use of informal assessment techniques also enhanced their speaking proficiency. The use of game also decreased their speaking anxiety level since they focused on collaborating with group members and winning the game.

Key words: Foreign language learning, speaking anxiety, anxiety coping strategies.

DEDICATION

To my beloved mother

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE	iii
Özet	iv
Abstract	vi
DEDICATION	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xiv
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background of the Study	1
1.2. Background of the Problem	2
1.3. Statement of the Problem	3
1.4. The Purpose of the Study	6
1.5. Research Questions	6
1.6. The Significance of the Study	7
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.1. Theoretical Concepts Related to Speaking Skill	8
2.1.1. Features of Speech	8
2.1.2. Speaking a Language	10
2.2. Factors Affecting Learners' Oral Communication	15
2.2.1. Age	15
2.2.2. Listening Skills	16
2.2.3. Social Factors	16
2.2.4. Affective Factors	18
2.3. Anxiety	23
2.3.1. Anxiety	23
2.3.2. Types of Anxiety	24
2.3.3. Foreign Language Anxiety	25
2.3.4. Sources of Foreign Language Anxiety	34
2.3.5. Speaking Anxiety	37
2.3.6. Studies Related to Anxiety and Oral Performance	45
2.3.7. Strategies to Cope with Anxiety	51
3. METHODOLOGY	78
3.1. Overview of the Chapter	78
3.2. The Research Design	79
3.2.1. Action Research	80
3.3. Data Collection	81
3.4. Instruments and Procedures	81
3.4.1. Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Questionnaire	81
3.4.2. Informal Assessment Techniques	82
3.4.3. Interview	82
3.4.4. Observation	83

3.5. Participants	83
3.6. The Analysis of the Study	84
3.6.1. The Analysis of Quantitative Data	84
3.6.1.2. The Analysis of the Research Question (RQ) 1	85
3.6.2. The Analysis of Qualitative Data	92
3.6.2.1. Instructor Observations and Reports of 4 Week Speaking Club	94
3.6.2.1.1. First Week Report	95
3.6.2.1.2. Second Week Report	101
3.6.2.1.3. Third Week Report	109
3.6.2.1.4. Fourth Week Report	117
3.6.2.2. The Analysis of the Informal Assessment Techniques	122
3.6.2.2.1. The Analysis of 1 st Week Learner Impressions	122
3.6.2.2.2. The Analysis of 2 nd Week Self-Assessment	123
3.6.2.2.3. The Analysis of 3 rd Week Peer-Assessment	125
3.6.2.2.4. The Analysis of 3 rd Week Learner Impressions	128
3.6.2.3. The Analysis of the RQ 2	130
3.6.2.4. The Analysis of the RQ 3	135
3.6.2.5. The Analysis of the RQ 4	140
3.6.2.6. The Analysis of the RQ 5	143
3.7. Summary	150
4. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION	151
4.1. Discussion	151
4.2. Conclusion	156
5. IMPLICATIONS	159
REFERENCES	162
APPENDICES	177

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation.....	21
Table 2. Primary Research Types	78
Table 3. The Mean Values of FLSAQ	85
Table 4. The Mean Scores of FLSAQ.....	88
Table 5. Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety according to Genders.....	89
Table 6. The Differences in Mean Scores of Items According to Gender	89
Table 7. The Anxiety Differences between Classes	91
Table 8. The Anxiety Differences between 1st and 4th Classes	92
Table 9. Three Aspects for Analyzing Qualitative Data and its Practice.....	93
Table 10. Qualitative Lens and Paradigm Assumptions and their Practice	94
Table 11. Strategies used by the Learners and Exemplar from the Lesson	99
Table 12. The Common Points of Teacher and Peer Observation	100
Table 13. Strategies used by the Learners and Exemplar from the Lesson	105
Table 14. Peer Observation of Second Week.....	106
Table 15. The Common Points of Teacher and Peer Observation	109
Table 16. Strategies used by the Learners and Exemplar from the Lesson	114
Table 17. Peer Observation of Third Week.....	115
Table 18. The Common Points of Teacher and Peer Observation	117
Table 19. Strategies used by the Learners and Exemplar from the Lesson	121
Table 20. The Common Points of Teacher and Peer Observation	122
Table 21. Common Points in Students' First Week Impressions.....	123
Table 22. Self-assessment of Second Week.....	123
Table 23. Common Points in Students' Peer Evaluation	127
Table 24. The Common Points in Learner Diaries	130
Table 25. The Speaking Anxiety Reasons, Causes, and Percentage of Freshman Students	131
Table 26. The Speaking Anxiety Reasons, Causes, and Percentage of Sophomore Students	132
Table 27. The Speaking Anxiety Reasons, Causes,	

and Percentage of Junior Students	133
Table 28. The Speaking Anxiety Reasons, Causes, and Percentage of Senior Students	134
Table 29. The Strategies used by Freshman students	136
Table 30. The Strategies used by Sophomore students	137
Table 31. The Strategies used by Junior students	138
Table 32. The Strategies used by Senior students	139
Table 33. Strategies according to Freshman students	140
Table 34. Strategies according to Sophomore students	141
Table 35. Strategies according to Junior students	141
Table 36. Strategies according to Senior students	142
Table 37. The Mean Score Differences between Pretest and Posttest	143
Table 38. Student I Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies	144
Table 39. Student B Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies	145
Table 40. Student A Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies	145
Table 41. Student E Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies	146
Table 42. Student H Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies	147
Table 43. Student C Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies	147
Table 44. Student G Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies	148
Table 45. Student F Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies	149

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1. Levelt's Speech Production Model (1989)	9
Figure 2. Communicative Competence	12
Figure 3. A part of MacIntyre's (1994) Willingness to Communicate Model....	39
Figure 4. A part of MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) Willingness to Communicate Model.....	40
Figure 5. Conceptualizing Willingness to Communicate in L2: A Situational Model of L2 Confidence and Affiliation	41
Figure 6. The Percentages of Three Speaking Anxiety Groups.....	87
Figure 7. The Reasons of Speaking Anxiety	135
Figure 8. The Strategies for Speaking Anxiety	139
Figure 9. Strategies used by Instructors for Speaking Anxiety.....	142

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

FL	Foreign Language
L2	Second Language
L1	First Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
FLCAS	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
FLSAQ	Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Questionnaire
WTC	Willingness to Communicate

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter of the study presents an overview of the thesis. This chapter includes the background of the study and the research problem, the theoretical framework of the study, and the developmental progress of the thesis along with the purpose and the significance of the study, and research questions. In addition, the description of the participants, data collection procedures, instruments, analyses of the study, and the organization of the whole thesis will be presented briefly.

1.1. Background of the Study

Foreign language learning has become a necessity in contemporary world due to several reasons. In the 21st century, English has become a global and international language due to its political and military power, maintaining and expanding its economic power, making progress in technology and science (Crystal, 2003). With this universal extension, learning English requires the acquisition of good communication abilities. English has been considered as a foreign language in Turkey since Turkey is in the “expanding circle” (Kachru, 1992) as English is not the medium of communication in general and it only has limited and specific purposes. Harmer (2004) utters that the aim of the English as a foreign language (EFL) students is to communicate with other English-speaking individuals around the world and they usually receive education in their own countries. Throughout this education, learners are expected to have proficiency in “language use, what a speaker wants to say, language in text and discourse, grammar, the sounds of the language, and paralinguistic features of the language” (Harmer, 2004), which lead to competence in four basic language skills: reading, writing, listening, speaking. Among those skills, Daly (1991) highlights the importance of spoken language in the educational field by mentioning it as an essential and constructive personal trait. Richards and Renandya

(2002) claim that speaking in a foreign language necessitates not only the knowledge of its grammatical and semantic rules but also recognition of the use of the language by native speakers under different circumstances; consequently, speaking fluently and accurately is a challenging skill for EFL learners, specifically for adults. Similarly, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991b) put forward that among other basic language skills, speaking is perceived as the most anxiety-provoking skill in foreign language learning. Likewise, in his thesis Tanveer (2007) states EFL learners' attitudes towards oral skills as an expression of the feeling of pressure, tenseness or anxiety in addition to the perception of speaking as a 'mental block' regardless of their proficiency level as in some situation even advanced EFL learners, questioning the reason of inefficiency in the intended oral performance despite their great efforts, may experience anxiety not only in classroom settings but also outside of the classroom. As language learners and future language teachers, pre-service English Language Teaching (ELT) teachers may also experience speaking anxiety due to numerous reasons (Bozok, 2018; Karakaya, 2011). This speaking anxiety problem is also present in ELT departments in Turkey; therefore, the aim of the study is to examine the reasons of speaking anxiety for pre-service ELT teachers in Turkey. It is significant to scrutinize the causes of speaking anxiety in ELT before suggesting solutions to difficulties encountered. As a result, exploring the reasons and solutions for speaking anxiety, the effect of anxiety coping strategies used by the learners and the teachers on decreasing this anxiety are crucial for handling speaking anxiety.

1.2. Background of the Problem

In the field, studies about foreign language learning, foreign language anxiety, the relation between these two concepts, and speaking anxiety, in particular, are excessively present (Bailey, and Daley, 1999; Brown, 1994; Daly, 1971; Heyde, 1979; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989; May, 1977; Onwuegbuzie, Pertaub, Slater, and Carter, 2001; Phillips, 1992; Price, 1991; Spielberger, 1983; Young, 1990). The general approach in these studies can be listed as the definition of foreign language learning, anxiety and the types of it, foreign language anxiety, and the specific language skill anxiety (e.g. speaking anxiety). In the definition of foreign language anxiety, its comparing and contrasting features with other anxiety types is

also displayed to illustrate the uniqueness of foreign language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986, 128). It must be noted that foreign language anxiety differs from other types of anxiety since it is defined as “a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process” (Horwitz et al., 1986: 128). With its numerous variables, foreign language anxiety is difficult to be defined; however, three main components of it can be stated as communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. To propose possible solutions, the reasons of anxiety can be examined with questionnaires and interviews as Horwitz (1986), Price (1991), and Young (1990) conducted; therefore, how, to what extent and in what ways foreign language anxiety influences performance in the target language should be examined profoundly.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

In foreign language learning, proficiency in all language skills is required, particularly, speaking is one of the most demanding and anxiety-provoking skills since it necessitates expertise in other language skills. Spielberger (1983) defines anxiety as “subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system”. There are three types of anxiety: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety (Brown, 1994; Phillips, 1992; Scovel, 1978; Spielberger 1983). On the other hand, Young (1999, cited in Duxbury and Tsai, 2010, 4) defines foreign language anxiety as “worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language”; this definition suggests that foreign language anxiety is related to affective feelings due to the use of the target language. After the brief explanation about anxiety and foreign language anxiety, initially it must be noticed that anxiety can be facilitating (beneficial) or debilitating (inhibitory) (Dörnyei, 2005); however, in this study debilitating aspect of anxiety is considered and in literature the negative effects of anxiety on foreign language performance are studied in various research papers (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991; Phillips 1992; Tucker, Hamayan, and Genesee, 1976). Briefly, facilitating anxiety prompts engagement and enthusiasm in learning and it leads to success whilst debilitating

anxiety interferes with achievement and it prevents learners from learning the target language (Dörnyei, 2005). It indicates that debilitating anxiety influence language learning adversely since it blocks the mental capability of learners throughout the three stages in language learning: ‘input’, ‘processing’, and ‘output’ stages (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley, 2000). These three stages demonstrate procedures in information comprehension and production; concisely, the input stage is learners’ first encounter with new information and they should encode the information for comprehending the meaning of it, in the processing stage is learners handle the new information and make an effort to accumulate it, in the output stage learners finally become producers of the language and they utilize the information they have learned (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). Anxiety may interfere in all or some of these stages accordingly learners might fail to notice all of the required information, encode the new information; anxiety may increase the time spending on the processing stage leading to prevention from learning new linguistic forms is possible (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000); and finally anxiety may lessen the quantity or quality of the output since learners retrieve the information more slowly than required.

Young (1991) suggests some possible sources for debilitating foreign language anxiety in a foreign language (FL) classroom:

1. Personal and interpersonal anxieties
2. Learner beliefs about language learning
3. Instructor beliefs about language teaching
4. Instructor-learner interactions
5. Classroom procedures
6. Testing

In detail, communication apprehension, self-perceptions of learners, speaking in front of peers and instructor, oral tasks requiring speaking in group discussions, instructors’ negative attitudes towards mistakes, quality and quantity of course materials, instructional media, and the number of students in the class can be some examples for foreign language anxiety in the classroom setting. High anxiety provoking atmosphere in the classroom might affect learners’ attitude, perspective, attention, and intelligence in a deteriorating way and make learning uninteresting, distressing, and fearsome rather than enjoyable and appealing (Tanrıöver, 2012).

Particularly, speaking a foreign language needs the knowledge of grammar and lexis, accurate and fluent use of the language, and pronunciation rules. Speaking is defined as one of the most anxiety-provoking skills since learners experience trouble in speaking the target language, pronouncing foreign words precisely, and grasping and making the sounds of the target language; as a result, they avoid involving in role-plays, group discussions, peer conversations, and/or drama presentations and they might fail to remember the information they have already memorized (Horwitz et al., 1986). For adults, the linguistic and educational knowledge of the target language is unproblematic while finding the appropriate expressions for communication may be challenging for them (Horwitz et al., 1986) since they feel frightened about negative evaluations of peers and instructors, their peers' competitive manners to foreign language learning process and/or speaking (Bailey, 1983). Similarly Krashen (1981), in his second language acquisition hypothesis, supports Horwitz et al. (1986) and Bailey (1983) that affective factors play a significant role in second language acquisition process and according to "Affective Filter Hypothesis", learners' negative feelings like anxiety, fear, nervousness, boredom, and resistance may affect acquisition adversely since these emotions raise the affective filter leading to blocking or preventing the comprehensible input; therefore, learners with high anxiety might not attain the new input in the target language. Particularly, Krashen (1982) points out three possible sources of anxiety as the instructor's firm attitudes towards early production of the target language, presenting learners an input which is beyond their level, and excessive emphasis on error correction as a result of these attitudes, language learners, with unrealistic and unachievable expectations, suppose that they have to speak in a native-like manner in a short span of time and have to learn to lessen the rate of the mistakes and errors; therefore, these considerations bring about anxiety, apprehension, frustration, and fear in the foreign language learning or acquisition process.

To sum up, the brief literature review of the anxiety displays that anxiety has a debilitating effect on language learning and language performance; speaking is identified as one of the most anxiety-provoking skills in language learning as a result of its inclusiveness of proficiency in multiple language areas. Speaking anxiety, as a

part of foreign language anxiety, will be examined in this study due to its considerable influence on language learning.

1.4. The Purpose of the Study

As mentioned in the previous sections, the definition of anxiety, strategies to cope with it and solutions to lessen it have been all examined in numerous studies (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al, 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner,1989; Tucker, Hamayan and Genesee, 1976); nevertheless, further studies are required since anxiety levels vary according to age, culture, past language learning experience, learner differences, learners' and instructors' attitudes, classroom environment, teaching approaches, earlier experience going abroad/ speaking with native speakers, etc. In addition to these studies, this study aims to provide an additional perspective to the current researches in the scope of pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University in the context of their speaking anxiety level, their reasons for it, their anxiety coping strategies, and their instructors' role in handling their speaking anxiety.

1.5. Research Questions

Having briefed shortly on the shortage and the need for more studies on the current issue, the general aim of the study is to explore pre-service ELT teachers' sources and levels of speaking anxiety. Having this aim in mind, the following research questions are intended to be addressed by limiting the objective of the qualitative and quantitative study.

1. What is the speaking anxiety level of pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University?
 1. a. Is there a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and gender?
 1. b. Is there a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and educational level?
 1. c. Is there a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and language education?

2. What are the reasons for speaking anxiety defined by Turkish pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University?
3. What are the speaking anxiety coping strategies utilized by Turkish pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University?
4. How do the instructors affect learners to cope with their speaking anxiety?
5. What is the influence of anxiety coping strategies on decreasing the speaking anxiety level of learners?

1.6. The Significance of the Study

Pre-service ELT teachers are both future language teachers and advanced level language learners; thus, their mental, psychological, and affective capabilities are important not only for their education life but also for their professional life; as a result, studies about them involve the issues of language learners and language teachers reciprocally. There are many studies about speaking anxiety in Turkey with different contexts and diverse participants from various departments (Balemir, 2009, Çokay, 2014; Karakaya, 2011; Öz, 2017; Tanrıöver, 2012). However, this study aims to provide an additional perspective to the foreign language learning field with the quantitative and qualitative data instruments, researcher plans to figure out the anxiety levels of participants and their strategies to handle it to provide some recommendations both for learners and instructors to overcome speaking anxiety. Moreover, the action research, conducted by the researcher, aims to provide a deeper understanding for the significance and influence of the use of anxiety coping strategies utilized by the instructors and learners on speaking anxiety. Since participants are both language learners and teacher candidates, they may both benefit from these recommendations as learners and instructors.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, firstly, theoretical concepts related to speaking skill will be defined as features of speech and speaking a language, secondly, factors affecting oral performance will be defined as age, listening skills, social factors, and affective factors. Thirdly, anxiety, types of anxiety, foreign language anxiety, sources of foreign language anxiety, speaking anxiety, studies related to anxiety and oral performance, and strategies to cope with anxiety will be reviewed.

2.1. Theoretical Concepts Related to Speaking Skill

2.1.1. Features of Speech

As one of the fundamental language skills, speaking involves numerous processes. For instance, Levelt (1989, cited in De Bot, 2000) states that speech production involves four main processes successively: conceptualization, formulation, articulation, and self-monitoring. Conceptualization is the preparation part of the speech where learners decide the content of the message with the usage of “background knowledge, knowledge about the topic, about the speech situation and on knowledge of patterns of discourse”; formulation is the process in which learners search for the appropriate words and phrases, their sound patterns, and the right syntax (sentence structure) to produce meaningful and accurate statements; articulation process is the utilization of speech organs like tongue, lips, glottis, and teeth to articulate sounds to convey the message to other interlocutors; self-monitoring is learners’ observing and being aware of their utterances and self-correction of these expression when required. Figure 1 represents Levelt’s (1989) Speech Production Model (De Bot, 2000).

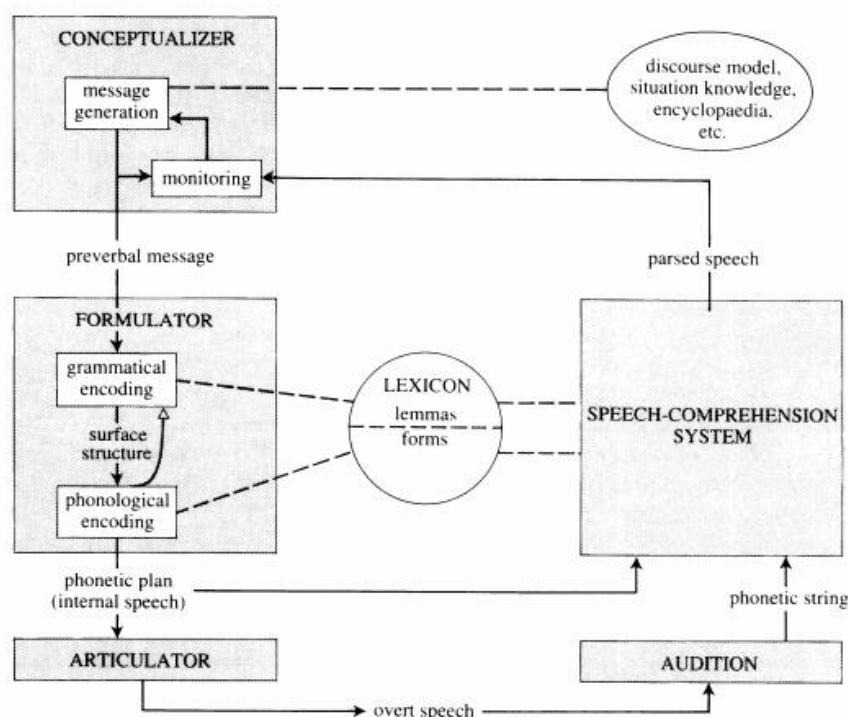


Figure 1: Levelt's Speech Production Model (1989)

Harmer (2004) defines speaking events under three subcategories: transactional/interpersonal functions (Thornbury, 2005), interactive/non interactive, and planned/unplanned speaking events. Transactional/interpersonal functions are illustrated by Thornbury (2005), transactional function aims to transmit the information and assist the exchange of goods and services while interpersonal functions are related to permanence and continuity of good relation between individuals. The difference between interactive and non-interactive speech can be stated as the presence of other interlocutors during the communication; for instance, leaving a message on an answer phone is an example for non-interactive speech (Harmer, 2004). Lastly, Harmer (2004) makes a difference between planned and unplanned speeches: the former has a preparation procedure like lectures and presentations while the latter generally occurs spontaneously like speaking with someone we run into in the street

In addition to these subcategories, in order to communicate successfully learners should use conversational strategies (Harmer, 2004) such as conversational rules and structures such as conversational openings (Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1994), survival and repair strategies like paraphrasing or appealing for help, and real talk

like the involvement of spontaneous face-to-face conversation outside the classroom and be aware of functional language, adjacency pairs and fixed phrases (Harmer, 2004). For achieving this, learners should be acquainted with fixed or semi-fixed phrases (lexical chunks) and turn taking procedures.

Luoma (2004) points out other requirements of speech like intonation, stress and tone of voice, the formality of the speech as well as the knowledge of differences between written-like language and oral-like language. Briefly, intonation, stress and tone of voice are phonological features of language and they are related to the pronunciation of syllables, words, and sentences. The difference between written-like language and oral-like language can be explained as the usage of complex language rules in formal situations in written-like language whilst using short phrases and clauses in daily contexts Luoma (2004).

In conclusion, speech production contains conceptualization, formulation, articulation, and self-monitoring (Levelt, 1989, cited in De Bot, 2000); transactional/interpersonal functions (Thornbury, 2005), interactive/non interactive, and planned/unplanned speaking events (Harmer, 2004); conversational strategies (Harmer, 2004); intonation, stress and tone of voice, the formality of the speech as well as the knowledge of differences between written-like language and oral-like language (Luoma, 2004). As a result, these features show that speech production includes multiple functions and strategies and it differs in accordance with numerous circumstances; therefore, speaking a foreign language is a demanding skill for language learners.

2.1.2. Speaking a Language

Grammatical and semantic rules; paralinguistic components such as intonation, pitch, and stress; and non-linguistic components such as facial expressions, body language, gestures, and posture are essential for speaking a foreign language (Shumin, 2002). Speaking is accepted as a complex task due to its requirement of competence in various skills with different purposes and intentions (Richards and Renandya, 2002) Daily life conversations, direction instructions, descriptions of items, and discussion might be some examples for these purposes along with the form of interaction, knowledge of situation and circumstances,

interlocutors, and their relation (Richards and Renandya, 2002). Although speaking does not necessarily require other speakers as it can be a monologue, it is generally perceived as a dialogue or conversation. Conversations are defined as ‘it begins with greetings and progress through various ordered moves: the speaker’s and hearer’s roles are ascertained, topics are introduced, rights to talk are assumed, new topics are raised, and at the appropriate time, the conversation is terminated in a suitable manner’ by Richards (1983, 118). This definition illustrates complex features of conversation as it involves different aspects such as speaker-hearer roles, turn-taking process, topics-themes, and appropriate timing and actions in a conversation. Underhill (1987, 45) highlights the importance of suitable initiative conversational takings, stating disagreement and asking questions for successful conversation and he states that specific language features are essential for it. Both Richards (1983) and Underhill (1987) indicate the complexity of speaking skill with pointing similar features such as the roles of interlocutors, turn taking rules, and demonstration of opinions.

On the other hand, communicative competence theory by Hymes (1971) is an eminent analysis of speaking a language as it proposes four subcategories: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Briefly, grammatical competence includes, lexis; pronunciation; grammar; word and sentence knowledge; word segmentations; sentence stresses, it lessens hesitation and fosters accurate and fluent speaking; discourse competence is related with formality of the conversation (formal-informal), “intersentential relationships” (Richards and Renandya, 2002), coherence, cohesion, recognizing previous and incoming statements, conveying messages with causes, importance, and discourse markers (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992); sociolinguistic competence is using language socially and culturally in a correct way, the exact encoding and decoding of the message, appropriate comments, correct nonverbal answers in the conversations finally, strategic competence is the ability of compensating the lack of language experience, using strategies to maintain the communication devoid of breaks and difficulties to facilitate comprehension of others’ statements (Hymes, 1971). The following table is an illustration of communicative competence by Richards and Renandya (2002):

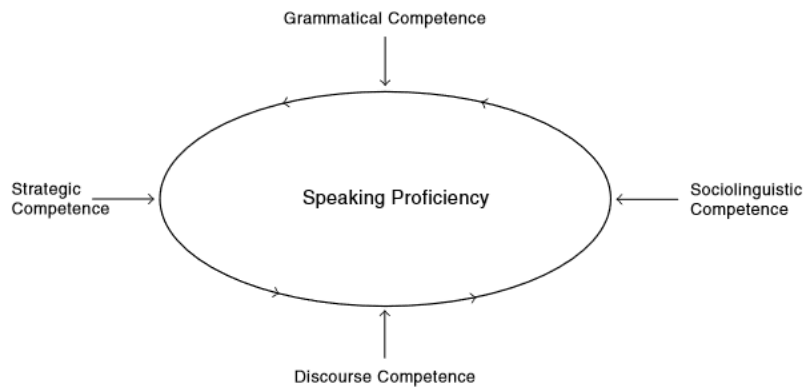


Figure 2: Communicative Competence (Richards and Renandya, 2002)

Furthermore, Halliday (1975) suggests seven basic functions of a language, each of these functions represents a different purpose of the language and speaking a language involves these functions in diverse circumstances. The seven basic functions of a language proposed by Halliday (1975):

1. Instrumental: Using language as a tool for expressing our desires and requirements for instance “Could you possibly find me” is an exemplar for instrumental function of language.
2. Interactional: Using language for communicating and interacting with others for greetings/leave takings etc.
3. Personal: Using language to express individual thoughts, considerations, emotions, and experiences.
4. Informative: Using language to declare affirmative or negative statements, for more precise statements complex and compound versions should also taught to learners.
5. Imaginative: Using language for creative or supposing situations, learners can be supported to write poems for imaginative language use.
6. Regulatory: Learning the rules, orders, regulations, and proposals of language by basic syntax and action games.
7. Heuristic: Using language for asking questions rather than simply replying them.

Bygate (1987) makes a distinction between knowledge and skill in language learning process since knowledge of the language does not guarantee effective production in the target language; therefore, the accurate form of oral speech is the integration of correct grammar and vocabulary use in accordance with social context and the interlocutors in the communication; moreover, oral skills are defined in two ways: motor-perceptive skills and interaction skills, motor-perceptive skills are

correct perception, recalling, and articulation of sounds and structures some activities for these skills may be model dialogues and oral drills; nonetheless, learners may face problems during the transferring of skills into the real life target language use. Therefore learners also require interaction skills to decide about communication: the topic, how to convey the message and whether to enhance it in line with their intentions during sustaining interaction with other interlocutors (Bygate, 1987). The management of interaction and the negotiation of meaning are essential for interaction skills in language learning since the management of interaction is knowledge of the right time and way to turn taking, introducing and altering the topic, inviting other speakers to the communication, maintaining and concluding the conversation (Nunan, 1989), similarly Bygate (1987) also states two aspects of this management as agenda management and turn-taking, the former involves the decision of topic, the length of speech, and the enhancement of the topics whilst the latter is about the correct turn-taking behaviors by using suitable gestures and expressions, the right time to interrupt the speech, comprehending other speaker's purpose of speech, and not losing the turn until expressing the intended message, and giving turn to other interlocutors. In addition, the negotiation of meaning is other interlocutors' correct understanding of the speaker as well as speaker's exact comprehension of other interlocutors (Nunan, 1989), to achieve this negotiation speakers should think about listeners' background knowledge, suitable speech style, they alter their word choices and make use of metaphors and paraphrases to elucidate and stress the meaning of the expression and statements (Bygate, 1987).

Nunan (1989) suggests some facilities to communicate successfully: "transactional and interpersonal skills", negotiation of the meaning, effective organization of interaction, comprehensible fluency, proficiency in phonological aspects such as stress, rhythm, intonation patterns, the capacity to articulate sounds and phrases understandably, suitable use of "conversational formulae and fillers", taking turns in the correct duration, "conversational listening skills", knowledge of intentions and negotiations about these intentions for conversations.

Numerous descriptions and features about speaking a language are proposed by different scholars from 1970s to early 2000s, a contemporary study is carried out by Rivers (2018) and she defines three views of language as language-as-product, language-as-tool, and language-as-activity (language-as-process). The first view

perceives language as “langue” or “language code” and this view is used by grammar translation method and contrastive linguistics to examine grammar rules and paradigm and compare language system, the second view perceives language as an instrument for expressing ourselves, our personal purposes and meaning to others, language provide numerous ways to convey our message or it is beneficial “to ask, to order, to state, to hypothesize, to deny, and to persuade”, the third view emphasizes the pragmatics and social psychology aspects of language to go beyond linguistic features since comprehension of a language system may not assure formulation and recognition of expressions and their particular intentions or speaker may not convey the message to others properly or the use of pronunciation, intonation, and/or stress might not be suitable for a specific situation (Rivers, 2018).

Speaking, as a tool in daily life, has multiple functions like expressing emotions, responding and influencing other people, and conveying messages it also facilitates observing and reorganizing thoughts and connections; therefore, teaching of speaking skill involves two levels of activity: forging of the instrument and practicing it in use (Rivers, 2018), forging the instrument is the presentation of functional language system (arbitrary associations, juxtapositions, morphology, and word order) with the aim of automaticity well-designed practice is provided to learners to make learners concentrate on their sayings rather than the ways of it and being able to recall the required information in practice; nevertheless, the constant training in forging the instrument might not be successful unless learners are given the opportunity to apply their theoretical knowledge to real-life situations, beyond the classroom; this chance should be given to them before waiting a full understanding of all the structures of language.

To conclude, speaking a language is a multifaceted language skill as it involves grammatical and semantic rules, paralinguistic competence, and non-linguistic competence (Shumin, 2002); competence in various skills (Richards and Renandya, 2002); speaker-hearer roles, turn-taking, timing, and illustration of thoughts (Richards, 1983; Underhill, 1987); communicative competence (grammatical, socio-linguistic, discourse, and strategic competence) (Hymes, 1971); discourse markers (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992); instrumental, interactional, personal, informative, imaginative, regulatory, and heuristic functions (Halliday, 1975); motor-perceptive skills and interaction skills, the management of interactions

(Bygate, 1987); negotiation of meaning, transactional and interpersonal skills (Nunan, 1989); language as tool, language as product, and language as activity features (Rivers, 2018).

2.2. Factors Affecting Learners' Oral Communication

2.2.1. Age

Age is one of the significant factors that affect foreign language learning since the age of learners might influence learning in a positive or negative way. Furthermore, the foreign language learning process of children, adolescents, teenagers, and adults are quite different from each other. Each age group has varied personality and characteristic; as a result, the starting age of the learners may influence their proficiency and/or attitudes in the learning process. Age has an influence on the process and the product of foreign language learning (Munoz, 2006); it is also significant for learners' motivation for language learning (Kormos and Csizer, 2008). Oyama (1976) states that adults generally are unsuccessful in native like fluency in a second or foreign language since their language development stabilizes at a specific level and in this stage learners may experience "fossilization" the incorrect and incomplete usage of language which is unlearned and replaced with the accurate usage. Krashen (1982) puts forward that second language acquisition is achieved better in the early childhood with natural exposure; therefore, acquirers initiating earlier become more proficient than individuals initiating as adults. Scarella and Oxford (1992) point the significance of aging as it influences or reduces adults' capability in fluent and native like pronunciation in the target language. Richards and Renandya (2002) mention that innateness is hard to be achieved by adults; therefore, despite their proficiency in pronunciation, adults may have difficulties in "intonation, stress, and other phonological nuances" leading to misinterpretation or communication breaks.

2.2.2. Listening Skills

Speaking requires both oral and aural skills; therefore, speaking a language necessitates listening skills in addition to speech production. Moreover, listening skill is vital since it provides the comprehension of the utterances of interlocutors, and enhances the communication between them. Similarly, Richards and Renandya (2002) states that oral communication involves not only speaking but also listening skills as every speaker is also a listener/hearer in a conversation; consequently, listening has a significant influence on the enhancement of speaking skills since comprehension of others sayings is necessary to reply them (Thoroughly, learners require to understand the text by maintaining information in memory, putting it together with the new information and regulating their comprehension of what they here constantly in consideration to previous knowledge and following information (Mendelsohn and Rubin, 1995). McDonough & Shaw (2012) point the necessity of recognition of stress on words, their boundaries, and limited forms besides variation in tone of the voice, pitch, and intonation, falling and rising intonations since they are essential for listening skills. Briefly, speaking a language involves both speaker and listener/hearer roles since a successful communication may be possible with comprehensible connection with interlocutors.

2.2.3. Social Factors

Social factors include social environment, exposure to the target language, culture differences, social status and self-identity, group dynamics in the classroom. The social environment and exposure to the target language are one of the factors affecting oral performance in the target language since language learning is challenging for learners who only expose to language only in the classroom atmosphere and do not have the opportunity to speak in the target language (Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Tanveer, 2007). Gardner's (1979, 1985) socio-educational model concentrates on second language learning in educational settings and perceives the learning process as the acquisition of 'symbolic elements of a different ethnolinguistic community' (Gardner, 1979, 1993), and as a revision of self-image and self-identification; therefore, this model puts forward that the social and cultural circumstances of learners influence their beliefs and opinions about

language, the target language culture, and their attitudes towards the entire language learning process and their desire to integrate with the target language culture. Difficulties in integrativeness may cause problems in the language learning process and Turkish learners also face these problems given that English is not the official language in Turkey (expanding circle (Kachru, 1992) and these learners generally use English merely in the class atmosphere; therefore, oral practice might not be sufficient for proficient language learning. Berns (1990) puts forward that all languages have their own rules about the use of that language and these rules allow speakers to express themselves in the appropriate time and way to their conversational companions. Culture plays a crucial role in appropriate word and expression choices as Jones (2004) suggests even the length of speaking of interlocutors differs between cultures. Tanveer (2007) states that learners face problems in oral production when they are unfamiliar or uncertain about the target language culture. A comparison might be present between learners and language teacher as Pica (1987) points: the inequality between learners and teachers might be a factor for difficulties in speaking the target language as learners might feel insufficient in comparison with their instructor's advanced language and communicative competence. Similarly, Peirce (1995) speaking with native speakers can also be challenging for learners seeing that native speakers have a full command on the language whilst language learners have limited competence. In addition to social status, self-identity or self-image is essential for oral production in the target language since speaking in a foreign language may threat learners' positive self-identity or self-image (Tanveer, 2007). In order not to damage their self-identity or self-image, pair or group works can be used as Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) point that current communication-oriented teaching methodologies suggest "dyads" (pair works) or small group activities rather than individual tasks; consequently, learners' peers and their interaction with each other are significant for successful oral communication. The productivity of foreign language learners is determined by group dynamics since they enhance "idiosyncratic internal structure" such as relations between members and role system (Dörnyei and Kormos 2000; Forsyth, 1998). Levine and Moreland (1990) determine that it is highly possible for members of a cohesive group to participate actively in conversational tasks, self-disclosure activities or joint narrations for valuable involvement in communication. Similarly, Clement et al. (1994) illustrate scientific evidence about the significant correlation

between cohesive groups and learner motivation. Dyads facilitate not only language achievement but also the quality and quantity of the interaction and collaboration between peers (Dörnyei and Kormos, 2000). To sum up, dyads and group works are effective for oral communication in the target language in comparison with individual participation since learners feel at ease in a team or group.

The influence of social factors is presented in this chapter; the studies indicate that social environment, exposure to the target language, learners' attitudes towards the target language culture, integrativeness, and social status determine learners' manners, participation, and enthusiasm to the target language given that language has both linguistic and social features.

2.2.4. Affective Factors

In addition to age, listening skills, and social factors, affective factors are also vital for foreign language learning since it is influenced by the feelings and attitudes of the learners. Bialystok and Fröhlich (1978) affirm two categories about factors associated with second/foreign language: cognitive factors and affective factors. Cognitive variables are individuals' constant capability traits which might influence their accomplishment in learning another language for instance "aptitude, intelligence, and certain cognitive characteristics" whilst affective variables are emotional factors/individual traits related to attitude, motivation etc. (Bialystok and Fröhlich, 1978). Chastain (1976) describes learner variables under two subcategories as intrinsic learner variables and extrinsic learner variables; the former involves "anxiety, need to achieve, self-concepts, and aspirations" whilst the latter involves "socio-cultural influences and social reinforcers" (Schwartz, 1972). Moreover, Carrol (1964) classifies five factors for foreign language ability: "learners' language aptitude, general intelligence and perseverance, the quality of instruction, and the opportunity of learning afforded the student". Except the language aptitude and general intelligence, other factors are highly depended on instruction and instructional process.

Another affective factor influencing foreign language learning is "linguistic self-confidence" (Clement et al., 1977) and defined as "self-perceptions of communicative competence and concomitant low levels of anxiety in using the

second language” by Noels et al. (1996). Self-confidence in general might be described as the trust in being able to get results, achieve targets or perform tasks or activities proficiently (Dörnyei, 1998). Linguistic self-confidence, specifically, involves not only cognitive factors (a perceived L2 competence) but also social factors (direct or indirect connections with L2 community and/or L2 culture); therefore, it can be presumed as a crucial motivational subsystem in foreign language learning situations (Clement et al., 1994; Dörnyei, 1998).

Motivation, as an individual variable, is one of the significant affective factors influencing all language learning processes and Brown (1994, 114) describes it as “inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action”. Similarly, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) mention motivation of an individual as a dynamic and altering stimulation which starts, guides, organizes, strengthens, assesses, and finishes the mental motor progressions. Williams and Burden (1997) define motivation as intellectual and affective excitement that provides mindful choices to act advancing maintained mental and/or physical attempt to reaching aims. Foreign language learning is a distinct concept since it is unique to language learning process, and Dörnyei (1994), Dörnyei and Otto (1998), Gardner (1985), and Gardner and Lambert (1959) study foreign language learning motivation profoundly. Gardner and Lambert (1959) classify two types of motivation: instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. Instrumental motivation perceives the language learning in a practical and pragmatist way generally to attain better occupations or higher salaries. Integrative motivation is a desire to integrate with the community of target language, learning about them and in some part becoming one of them. Gardner (1985, 1995) proposes three components for true motivation: “effort, want/will (cognition), and task-enjoyment (affect)”, all of these components are necessary for complete motivation. Motivated behavior is the evidence of motivation as motivated individuals show their willingness by their actions (Dörnyei, 1998). Motivation may be perceived as a prerequisite for second language learning/acquisition since it is an initial force for starting to learn the target language and a driving force to maintaining the learning process and it influences the degree and accomplishment of language learning (Dörnyei, 1998). To maintain long-term goals, sufficient amount of motivation is essential even for highly capable learners and additionally high motivation can compensate for some deficiencies in language learning competences.

Dörnyei (1998) defines language in three different aspects: “a communication coding system that can be taught as a school subject; an integral part of the individual's identity involved in almost all mental activities; and also the most important channel of social organization embedded in the culture of the community where it is used.” Because of multifaceted nature of language, language learning motivation is differed from other types of motivation and it is more complicated and particular in comparison. In detail, motivation involves the environmental and cognitive factors in educational psychology and additionally personality and social dimensions given that learning language means enhancing an “L2 identity” and integrating with the “L2 culture” in a way (Dörnyei, 1998; Gardner, 1985). Gardner (1985) defines foreign language learning motivation as “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity”. This motivation includes integrative motivation, the positive feelings towards community speaking the target language, good attitudes towards learning components such as instructor, lesson, course materials, curriculum and other activities, motivation as an endeavor, desire, and manners towards learning (Dörnyei, 2001, Gardner, 1985). Williams and Burden (1997) explain motivation in foreign language learning under two factors: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic factors include “intrinsic interest of activity, perceived value of activity, sense of agency, mastery, self-concept, attitudes towards language learning in general, confidence, anxiety, fear, developmental age and stage, and gender”; extrinsic factors include “significant other people (teachers, peers, parents), the nature of interaction with significant others, the learning environment, and the broader context (the local education system, conflicting interests, cultural norms, societal expectations and attitudes)” (Williams and Burden, 1997). Dörnyei and Otto (1998) identify language motivation as a process including three stages: pre-actional stage, actional stage, and post-actional stage. First stage is about “choice motivation” as it functions for setting goals, developing intentions, and initiating actions; the second stage is about “executive motivation” as it functions for performing subtasks, self-control, and maintaining assessment of self-achievement; the third stage is about “motivational retrospection” as it is related to develop casual ascriptions and expand standards and plans (Dörnyei, 2005). Dörnyei (1994) develops a framework for components of foreign language learning motivation under three subcategories: “Language Level,

Learner Level, and Learning Situation Level”. In detail Table illustrates the subcategories of each level:

Table 1: Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation (Dörnyei, 1994)

Language Level	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
Learner Level	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language Use Anxiety • Perceived L2 Competence • Causal Attributions • Self-Efficacy
Learning Situation Level	Course Specific Motivational Components: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interest • Relevance • Expectancy • Satisfaction Teacher-Specific Motivational Components: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affiliative Motive • Authority Type Direct • Socialization of Motivation * Modeling *Task Presentation * Feedback Group-Specific Motivational Components: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goal-orientedness • Norm & Reward System • Group Cohesion Classroom • Goal Structure

The first level involves instrumental and integrative aspects of the target language including culture, community and values about the target language (Vural, 2007). The second level is related to learners’ variables and personalities about foreign language learning, facilitator characteristics such as self-esteem and self-confidence foster learning. The third level includes components of course, teacher, and learner group, briefly, syllabus, curriculum, materials, approaches, and techniques are course specific components; teachers’ manners, characteristic and teaching approach are teacher specific components; finally, group unity, rules and reward system are group specific components of motivation. Moreover, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) propose motivation in second and foreign language learning with five features: “goal salience (goal specificity, goal frequency), valence (desire to learn L2, attitudes toward learning L2), self-efficacy (performance expectancy, L2 use anxiety, and L2 class anxiety), adaptive attributions, and motivational behavior

(attention, motivational intensity, persistence)”. Additionally it is proposed that language attitudes have a direct influence on goal salience, valence and self-efficacy; goal salience, valence and self-efficacy have a direct influence on the level of motivational behavior; target language dominance has an effect on adaptive attributions and all these factors (language attitudes, target language dominance, goal salience, valence, self-efficacy, adaptive attributions, motivational behavior) have an influence on achievement in second and foreign language learning (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995). Numerous studies show that learner motivation has a significant influence on foreign and second language learning; motivation has a facilitative effect on the learning process since it enhances the process, and learners are more willing to get involved in it.

In addition to learner motivation, teachers’ attitudes also influence learners’ motivation and achievement as Belyayev (1964, cited in Spithill, 1980) highlights the significance of teachers for successful learning as he assimilates predispositions to soil, students’ abilities to a plant, and teacher to gardener; therefore, with a qualified teacher it is possible to achieve brilliant results even the students are not capable enough. It is instructors’ responsibility to motivate learners and reinforce them to perform better in the foreign language learning process (Miller and Dollard, 1941), motivation is essential for initiating learning and reinforcement is essential for maintaining to learn (Spithill, 1980). However, it must be noted that for advanced level learners, teacher’s role of motivation is slight as learners have intrinsic satisfying, desire to use the language they learn, and approximating cultural identification; therefore, at this stage teachers should act as an adviser instead of teacher to engage learners with foreign language activities if they have motivational problems (Spithill, 1980). Allen (1974) points the motivation of foreign language teachers to foster foreign language learners’ motivation given that these teachers handle students with diverse capabilities, levels of motivation and anxiety; therefore teachers’ personal manners are crucial for learners’ enthusiasm. Moskowitz (1976) suggests that teachers should be “outstanding” and aware of learner differences of motivation and Spithill (1980) inserts two additional characteristics for motivating teachers: “has more than a superficial knowledge of the culture” and “does not subscribe to stereotypes”.

In conclusion, affective factors influencing foreign language learning are intrinsic and extrinsic learner variables (Chastain, 1976), aptitude, attitude (Bialystok and Fröhlich, 1978), linguistic competence (Noels et al., 1996), self-perception (Clement et al., 1977), motivation (Dörnyei, 1990), and anxiety (Scovel, 1978). It might be said that motivation is one of the most influential areas in affective factors related to foreign language learning as studies (Dörnyei, 1990, 1994, 1998, 2005) provide evidence for its facilitative effect on language learning and achievement.

2.3. Anxiety

2.3.1. Anxiety

Anxiety is defined as one of the affective factors in foreign language learning in the previous chapter (Scovel, 1978); given that anxiety comprises many variables, researchers and scholars have had difficulties in determining a concrete definition for it. For that reason diverse definitions of anxiety have been made with different perspectives. May (1977) defines anxiety as a concept that risks some values of an individual which are fundamental for his own existence as a personality and this definition emphasizes the distinctiveness of personality. On the other hand, Spielberger (1983, (cited in Horwitz et al., 1986, 125) defines anxiety as “subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system”. Similarly, Horwitz et al. (1986) associate anxiety with individual sentiments of worry, apprehension, tenseness, and concern containing a stimulation of the autonomic nervous system. The common point of these definitions of anxiety is the subjectivity of anxiety with the connection of undesirable and negative feelings. According to Blau (1955), as an emotional condition anxiety is an unpleasant feeling that causes individual to sense fear, feel incapable, and suffer from apprehension with an expected danger. Wilson (2006) treats anxiety as an umbrella term and describes it as the corporeal and mental fear and dangers that an individual experience while the interaction with the environment. In conclusion, anxiety is defined as individual unpleasant emotions that are related to worry, apprehension, and nervousness and it influences individual’s life in a negative way.

2.3.2. Types of Anxiety

After studying anxiety as a general term, the types of anxiety are also investigated by scholars to analyze anxiety in detail; educational psychologists have studied anxiety under three subcategories: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety. Thoroughly, trait anxiety is described as “a more permanent predisposition to be anxious“ by Scovel (1978, 137). Trait anxiety has a direct relation with personality and characteristics of individuals since it is expressed as individual’s experiencing anxiety for nearly every situation and his proneness to this emotion (Philips, 1992) and Brown (1994) also classifies trait anxiety as a personality trait since it is stable and lasting and some individuals have tendency to feel anxious in almost every situation. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) point out that trait anxiety has a negative effect on cognitive facets of individuals; they note that if traits are not considered in interactions with circumstances they are worthless. They also highlight the fact that even individuals have similar trait anxiety scores and their contexts which provoke anxiety are different (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991). State anxiety, related with particular situations, is not a permanent or stable emotion since it is activated by particular conditions (Young, 1991). The temporariness of state anxiety is also revealed by Brown (1994) as he mentions state anxiety worsens by a stimulus. Another definition of state anxiety has been made by Spielberger (1983) and he proposes that state anxiety, a kind of apprehension, is a reply to a definite situation which is felt in a particular circumstance. Tanrıöver (2012), in his doctoral dissertation, mentions different variations of state anxiety: high level of state anxiety - low level of state anxiety; short-term state anxiety – long-term state anxiety. These subcategories are formed in terms of intensity and duration and level of state anxiety is influenced by numerous situations which are anxiety-provoking and they escalate the possibility of feeling anxious. The common point in different definitions of state anxiety is the temporariness of it and state anxiety is experienced only in specific situations and conditions. The last type of anxiety is situation-specific anxiety, a type of nervousness, which is merely associated with specific occasions and conditions (Ellis, 1994, cited in Aydın, 2008). Wang (1998) also asserts that situation-specific anxiety is a type of apprehension which is the result of a particular situation.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) regard situation-specific anxiety as an alternative term of trait anxiety and state anxiety, they distinguish situation-specific anxiety from others with its direct relation to apparent sentimental reactions, sources of these reactions and some distinct circumstances such as oral practices, classroom activities involving speaking (peer or group interviews). Situation-specific anxiety differs from state anxiety since in situation-specific anxiety the individual's attention is limited to a certain condition (Tanrıöver, 2012). Dulay and Burt (1977) note that anxiety might inhibit the language input process 'socio-affective filter' of learners is suggested as a clarification for the reasons of anxious learners' failure in high levels of proficiency in the target language. Dörnyei (2005) classifies two types of anxiety: facilitating (beneficial) vs. debilitating (inhibitory) anxiety. Facilitating anxiety prompts engagement and enthusiasm in learning and it heads to success whilst debilitating anxiety interferes with achievement and it prevents learners from learning the target language. And according to Scovel (1978) an average individual possesses both facilitating and debilitating anxiety simultaneously and learners may become successful in language learning with this combination of anxiety types (Çağatay, 2015); therefore, learners can make use of their anxiety and utilize it in order to improve themselves.

To sum up, all types of anxiety have some common points: they are emotions of concern, tenseness, apprehension, or uneasiness about something with an uncertain outcome, they have a negative effect on individuals' lives, and their form is determined in terms of incidents. Briefly, trait anxiety is connected to the personality directly and it is permanent whilst state anxiety is related to particular situations and situation specific anxiety is only related to specific situations and foreign language anxiety is assumed as situation specific anxiety since this anxiety is unique to foreign language learning process and environment and in the following chapter, the anxiety and its relation with foreign language learning will be presented.

2.3.3. Foreign Language Anxiety

Foreign language anxiety might be accepted as a type of situation specific anxiety since foreign language learning differs from other types of learning processes. Young (1999, cited in Duxbury and Tsai, 2010, 4) defines foreign

language anxiety as “worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language”; this definition suggests that foreign language anxiety is related to affective feelings due to the use of the target language. Foreign language anxiety has many variables but two major variables can be categorized as situational variables and learner variables. Situational variables involve the level, organization and activities of the lesson, behavior and attitudes of learners and their interaction with each other (Jackson, 2002; Oh, 1992; Oxford, 1999; Samimy, 1989; Spielmann and Radnofsky, 2001; Young, 1991). On the other hand learner variables comprise both perceived and actual competence of learners, their age, gender, learning style, character, attitudes, and beliefs to the target language (Campbell, 1999; Dewaele, 2002; Dörnyei and Schmidt, 2001; Ehrman and Oxford, 1995; Gardner, Day, and MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet, 1977; Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002). These variables affect the anxiety level of learners since they influence emotional status of learners. Williams and Andrade (2008) arrange a table to display the causes of anxiety for Japanese EFL university students, among 24 causes, some major causes are students’ lack of their sayings, speaking in front of peers, concerning about pronunciation, being called upon by the instructor and waiting one’s turn, apprehensive about grammatical mistakes, not knowing how to reply to the question of teacher, confusion between native language and the foreign language, feeling uncomfortable to use plain or broken structures in the target language. They also conclude that the output or processing stages of the learning process and the considerations of teacher and peers influence anxiety (Williams and Andrade, 2008).

MacIntyre (1995) defines a recursive relation between anxiety, behavior, and cognition and states that language learning involves the encoding, storage, and retrieval procedures and anxiety may impede each of these by means of distracting anxious learners’ attention and it displays that anxious learners concentrate on not only the task but also reactions to it as a result performance suffers due to the rise in self-related cognition and restraint in task-related cognition. Moreover, anxiety hinders learners’ capability of expressing their language proficiency and there might be a reciprocal relation between anxiety and language proficiency since if anxiety interferes with language learning it causes failure, experiencing failure may cause more anxiety; consequently they both affect and be affected by each other (MacIntyre, 1995).

Phillips (1991) puts forward that language learners are not fully capable of determining their learning process, learning a second or a foreign language is challenging, endeavors are not rewarded all the time, in addition speaking is the most difficult language skill as it may interfere with the self-image and an unclear perception about language learning causing to “fear and lack of self-confidence in their ability to achieve”

Spielberger (1966) proposes that learner’s intelligence, phase of learning, and complexity of the tasks have an influence on anxiety, briefly, and in easier tasks high anxiety can play a facilitating role whilst in more difficult tasks it might decrement the production. In addition, the complexity of the material learned also affects the anxiety level of learners (Scovel, 1978).

A regular learner possess both facilitating and debilitating anxiety; however, the former has a positive influence on language learning as it encourages learners to strive for achieving the new learning task and move forward to behavior whilst the latter has a negative influence on language learning as it prompts learners to run away from the new learning task or keep away from it; that is to say, learners with facilitative anxiety handle with the new information successfully on the contrary learners with debilitating anxiety are inclined to display avoidance behaviors (Kleinmann, 1977; Scovel, 1978).

Scovel (1978) presents three ways for measuring anxiety: “behavioral tests, the subject’s self-report of internal emotions and reactions, and physiological tests”. Behavioral tests can be defined as observing a subject’s physical actions, the subject’s self-report of internal feelings and reactions are the statements of subjects about their unpleasant feelings and reasons of them and the physiological tests are measurement of blood pressure, heart rate and palm sweating. Behavioral tests and self-reports can be utilized to large groups of subjects to examine a particular affective factor, such as anxiety, in applied psychology; even though language learning is mostly intellectual, in numerous aspects it is similar to the acquisition of physical abilities; therefore, it is valuable to utilize physiological tests to examine the link between affective stimulations and accomplishments in language learning (Scovel, 1978).

According to Horwitz and Young (1991) and MacIntyre (1999), there are two fundamental approaches in foreign language anxiety field: the anxiety transfer and the unique anxiety approach. Toth (2008) describes the anxiety transfer as a plain transmission of other types of anxiety to the target language learning, meaning that learners who are prone to experiencing anxiety in particular circumstances are assumed to have a tendency to experience foreign language anxiety. Briefly, anxiety transfer can be defined as general anxiety-proneness or situation-specific anxiety. On the other hand, the unique anxiety approach supports that foreign language anxiety is unique to language learning process as Gardner (1985, 34) defines it as a type of anxiety that is not general but is particular to the language acquisition process and it has a connection to second language achievement. Scholars express foreign language anxiety as a unique process since it occurs solely in the situations where language learning or language use happens (Toth, 2008). According to Horwitz et al., (1986), among three types of anxiety, foreign language anxiety is in the category of situation-specific anxiety; they explain this notion by describing foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from uniqueness of the language learning process.” (128) Similarly, Foss and Reitzel (1988) distinguish foreign language anxiety from other types of anxiety since it is unique to language learning process according to psychologists and educators. Moreover, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) explain foreign language anxiety as a type of situation-specific apprehension since it occurs when the utilization of the foreign language is required and learners do not have the efficient knowledge. MacIntyre (1999) defines language anxiety as the negative affective reactions and apprehension occurred in learning and using a second language. As the definition itself suggests, foreign language anxiety is a significant factor that impedes language learning process and this anxiety, among other affective factors, can be seen as one of the foremost blocking reasons for successful language learning according to Nascente (2001). Similarly, Clement (1980, cited in Trang, Moni, and Baldauf, 2012) identifies foreign language anxiety as a complicated concept coping with learners’ emotions, self-assurance, and self-respect. Young (1991a) also defines language anxiety as a multifaceted mental construct necessitating examination from various views and methods. Particularly, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994b) describe language anxiety with the emotions of stress and concern specially related with learning and language skills as listening and

speaking. Lastly, Luo (2011) states that foreign language anxiety has four components: “speaking anxiety, listening anxiety, reading anxiety and writing anxiety.”

Horwitz et al., (1986) propose three categories of foreign language anxiety:

- 1) Communication apprehension
- 2) Test anxiety
- 3) Fear of negative evaluation

In detail, communication apprehension is being shy and afraid of communicating with other people and McCroskey (1970) defines it as “a type of shyness or fear associated with communicating with people” consequently it is being worried about oral communication, people with communication apprehension tend to have characteristics such as reticence, shyness, and quietness, Noormohamadi (2009) defines communication apprehension as having metacognitive awareness, as a speaker or listener, about incomplete comprehension of the foreign language message leading to frustration and communication breaks. Wheelless (1975) illustrates this term in foreign language field as being concerned about speaking in the target language (particularly in front of others, named as “stage fright”) and nervousness about problems in comprehension or misinterpretation in the target language messages; test anxiety is related to performance nervousness and arises from concerning about failure, Horwitz and Young (1991) identify test anxiety as having negative attitudes towards test performance in a forthcoming test, Sarason (1984) states that negative self-assessments of anxious learners influence adversely the performance of them since these negative self-assessments are self-obsessed and distract learners’ task concentration. Anxious learners may tend to react in actual or perceived challenging situations, in real or imaged circumstances, and sometimes in situations where they even cannot identify the reasons of concern (Sarason, 1984). In the language classroom it refers to worry over frequent testing, which may become a source of frustration for learners, as their proficiency is assessed while it is being acquired. Aydın (2009) highlights the significant effect of language proficiency and language background on test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation is being worried about other people’s evaluation, preventing from evaluative situations and individuals with this type of anxiety believe that other would evaluate them in a negative manner, if a learner regards utilizing the foreign language as an evaluative

event and believes that he has inadequate knowledge for expressing himself he may become anxious about drawing an inappropriate social image (Aydin, 2009). Since teachers and other students in the classroom listen with the aim of correcting mistakes can bring about anxiety for negative evaluation (Noormohamadi, 2009). Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009) state that students with fear of negative evaluation do not regard language mistakes as a natural sign of language learning but as a threat to their personality. Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) mentions learners who value other's opinions and the impression formed by them excessively are inclined to avoid unfavorable evaluative situations, hardly ever begin the conversation and they seldom interact with others. Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) also state that communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety indicate language learners being overly worried about "appearance" of their communication attempts. Likewise, Kondo and Yang (2003) figure out that foreign language anxiety is related to three main factors: speaking activities, low proficiency level, and fear of negative evaluation by peers.

Another perspective to foreign language anxiety is proposed by Tobias (1985), he develops "the skills-deficit hypotheses"; these hypotheses assert that when learners prepare inadequately or have deficiencies in learning or in test-taking abilities. In detail Tobias (1985) proposes two anxiety models: an interference model of anxiety and an interference retrieval model. The former is related with anxiety leading to restraining in the recollection of previously learned information at the output stage; the latter is associated with difficulties at the input and processing stages of learning due to insufficient knowledge or deficient study habits.

A relevant significant study about foreign language anxiety is Tobias' (1986) model since it examines foreign language anxiety under three stages: 'input', 'processing', and 'output'. In his model, the relation between language learning/production and its effect on foreign language anxiety in a more apparent way is analyzed. Three stages of language learning process are intermingled with each other vitally and they should be considered as a whole. In detail, Tanveer (2007) explains that input stage is learners' first encounter with new information and they should encode the information for comprehending the meaning of it. This stage can be challenging for learners since they might fail to notice all of the required information and this failure may interfere with processing and output stages as all

stages are interrelated. If learners face problems in encoding the new information, they may experience input anxiety, being anxious about recognizing input from aural or visual resources as a receiver (Tanveer, 2007). The second stage is the processing stage in which learners handle the new information and make an effort to accumulate it. Interference and anxiety in the first stage may increase the time spending on the processing stage; as a result of anxiety, prevention from learning new linguistic forms is possible (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley, 2000). The last stage is the output stage, in which learners finally become producers of the language and they utilize the information they have learned (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). Anxiety in this stage may lessen the quantity or quality of the output since learners retrieve the information more slowly than required. Worde (1998) explicates that anxiety might lead to attention distraction causing interference with early processing of information which ends with deficient information registration. On the other hand, according to Tobias (1986) anxiety may influence the output stage since it interferes with the retrieval of formerly learned information, Ford (1992) states that when learners focus on insufficiency in personal abilities or potential undesirable results they are not able to concentrate on actions initiating desired aims in language learning. According to Aydın (2001) achievement in the output stage is highly influenced by the first two stages of language learning (input and processing stages). MacIntyre and Gardner (1995, 96) illustrate that “Language learning is a cognitive activity that relies on encoding, storage, and retrieval processes, and anxiety can interfere with each of these by creating a divided attention scenario for anxious students.” Furthermore, Nitko (2001, cited in Çubukçu, 2008, 149) proposes three reasons for foreign language anxiety: “the lack of competence, the lack of proper study skills, and the wrong self-perceptions about their capacities.” In other words, in addition to communicative competence and being aware of correct forms of language learning, learners’ ability and how they perceive this ability affect foreign language anxiety. Curran (1976) points out another aspect of foreign language anxiety, the use of native language, learners use their mother tongue for expressing their feelings, attitudes, beliefs, and opinions, asking for help, and for socializing; however, in foreign language learning process they have to use target language and this become a handicap for them. In his studies Bandura (1986, 1989) examines the perception of competence, perceived self-efficacy, and perceived self-inefficacy; he points that the quantity of attempt in pursuing an aim is determined by the perception of

competence since high expectations lead to greater effort and it increases the possibility of accomplishment; nevertheless, if learners have low expectations, they may make less endeavor and possibly it leads to less accomplishment and anxiety is one of the outcomes of low self-efficacy assessments. Since the oral tasks in foreign language learning necessitate not only learning the language but also performing the language (Chen and Chang, 2004) Horwitz et al. (1986) highlight the significance of interpersonal interactions in language classes and also point that although learners are acquainted with particular lexis or structure, in the language testing circumstances when learners are required the simultaneous retrieval and coordination of diverse vocabulary and grammatical structures they are not able to succeed in applying their knowledge and this leads to “persistent careless errors in spelling or syntax”. In addition, making avoidable mistakes throughout an exam cause learners become more worried bringing about escalating anxiety and more mistakes (Horwitz et al., 1986). Crookall and Oxford (1991, cited in Worde 1998) affirm that problems in risk-taking ability, self-esteem, self-reliance, might be possible consequences of significant language anxiety, and it eventually hinders second language proficiency. Sparks and Ganschow (1991) study the relation between anxiety and foreign language learning and they state that problems in memory for language and speaking/ listening skills might be a reason for anxiety; it is affirmed that anxiety plays a significant role in foreign language learning since it impedes learners’ ability as a mental blocking factor. They conclude that amongst other affective factors (low motivation, poor attitude) anxiety is a demonstration of insufficiency in the competent control in native language and it is noticeably associated with impediment in foreign language learning (1991). In her study Ying (1993, cited in Öztürk and Gürbüz, 2014) explores how foreign language anxiety influences language learning of Taiwanese high school students, the outcomes show that foreign language anxiety is increased and their language proficiency is affected by the application of a relatively complicated test in classroom. She also notes that facilitating anxiety does not foster learners’ language proficiency considerably. Worde (1998) clarifies “worry and emotionality” to comprehend anxiety better, he links worry with the cognitive factor whilst emotionality with transient unpleasant feelings. He also states that ‘worry’ might impede performance of learners since it distracts attention from the task along with implying apprehension about self-assessments of previous and present performance difficulties (Worde, 1998). Saito and Samimy (1996) point the

physiological, psycholinguistic, and behavioral symptoms of foreign language anxiety and they successively exemplify these symptoms as sweating in palms, increasing in heart rate; becoming blocked when learner is required to speak; and they do not attend to the lessons. Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) point that the success of learners experiencing foreign language anxiety is generally hindered since they pay attention to evading mistakes, they do not focus on learning itself. Brophy (1999) asserts that anxious students abstain from classroom participation and they display compulsive behaviors in class which has a damaging effect on their class actions. On the other hand, Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) categorize eight variables which holds 40% of foreign language anxiety variance and these variables are age, experience with foreign languages, prior high school, academic achievement, prior history of visiting foreign countries, perceived self-worth, expected overall average for current language course, and perceived scholastic competence. Another reason for the increase in the level of anxiety is the “multi-cultural” environment of the language classroom and other foreign speakers (MacIntyre, 1999). A comparable study is carried out by Bailey, Onwuegbuzie and Daley (2000) with students, whose first language is English, register in courses in German, Spanish, and French; their study illustrates the significant connection between self-perception and anxiety. Thoroughly, the perception of academic competence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, accomplishment in foreign language learning, and motivation influence foreign language anxiety. Kitano (2001) finds a positive correlation between learners’ anxiety level and their fear of negative evaluation, low perception of their own capacity in the foreign language which means that when learners experience high levels of anxiety, they possibly suffer from fear of negative evaluation and low perception of their capacity about the target language vice versa. It is also stated that anxiety level depends on the proficiency level of students since advanced-level students experience anxiety more than do lower-level students.

In his study Woodrow (2006) presents a negative relation between oral performance and foreign language speaking anxiety since learners feel afraid due to being obliged to speak in front of their peers and/or with their teacher and they worry about being discredited in case of low performance. Liu (2006) concludes in her study that foreign language anxiety may be determined by learners’ proficiency level and the type of activity since less proficient learners experience anxiety more in comparison with more successful learners and learners experience more comfortable

in pair and group activities whilst they become anxious in (unprepared) oral presentations, tasks requiring replying questions alone. She also mentions that anxious learners, less willing to volunteer to speak, play a smaller part in discussions and spend their time in organizing what and how they are going to say and looking up words, they also exhibit undesirable behaviors such as body-shaking. Djigunovic (2006) does a scientific research on undergraduate EFL learners to examine the relation between language anxiety and language processing, the results illustrate that high anxious learners rarely perform uninterrupted speech in the target language, in addition they hesitate more with comparison to low anxious learners.

In conclusion, scholars differentiate foreign language anxiety from other types of anxiety given that it has unique features only related to foreign language learning (Horwitz et al., 1986). Foreign language anxiety involves “communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation” (Horwitz et al., 1986); problems in ‘input’, ‘processing’, and ‘output’ stages of foreign language learning (Tobias, 1985); low self-perception, self-esteem, self-efficacy (Bailey, Onwuegbuzie and Daley, 2000); “the lack of competence, the lack of proper study skills, and the wrong self-perceptions about their capacities” (Nitko, 2001); and “worry and emotionality” (Worde, 1998). As it is stated by different scholars, foreign language anxiety differs from other types of anxiety since language learning has distinctive features and it includes different types of anxiety: being afraid of communicating in the target language, failure in the exams, and negative criticism of instructors and/or peers; moreover, learners may feel insufficient about their proficiency in the target language or their personality or they might perceive the learning process as a threatening situation. All of these circumstances might damage the process since learners do not feel confident or comfortable about their abilities in the target language and experience anxiety during it.

2.3.4. Sources of Foreign Language Anxiety

Young (1991) proposes six potential sources of foreign language anxiety: “personal and interpersonal anxieties, learner beliefs about language learning, instructor beliefs about language teaching, instructor-learner interactions, classroom procedures, language testing.” The first source is related to individualistic differences

and connections between people; therefore, “low self esteem” and “competitiveness” are the main reasons for personal and interpersonal anxieties, Krashen (1983, cited in Young, 1991) supports the adverse effect of low self esteem on language achievement by mentioning the worried attitudes of individuals with low self-esteem as they concern about others’ opinions too much and attempt to please them, on the other hand Bailey (1983) also states that competitive attitudes and comparison with others or an idealized self-image may cause anxiety. Similarly, Price (1991) states that learners feel uncomfortable when they perceive their language level lower than others; similarly, Hembree (1988) figures out that learners’ anxiety level decreases when their proficiency level increases. In other words, learners’ initial self perceived low self esteem towards second or foreign language course is vital given that learners with these negative thoughts are likely to suffer from anxiety (Young, 1991). Social anxiety might be another source for foreign language anxiety since it involves “speech anxiety, shyness, stage fright, embarrassment, social evaluative anxiety, audience anxiety, and communication apprehension” (Leary, 1982) Krashen (1992, cited in Young, 1991) recommends “club membership” for lowering the affective filters of learners since learners feel comfortable when they feel themselves as a member of the target language club member instead of attending the class as an individual, likewise, Terrell (1992, cited in Young, 1991) highlights “target language group identification” as he believes that children acquire their first language to identify and become a member of the community they live in; therefore, second or foreign language learning might pursue a similar procedure with a strong enthusiasm towards identification and assimilation may aid to take the input precisely and product an output equivalently. The second source is learner beliefs about language learning given that language anxiety occurs if learners’ beliefs and reality do not match; Gynan’s study (1989) displays that language learners have different opinions about the most significant practice in language learning: some state pronunciation as the most important practice whilst others state vocabulary, translation, classroom conjugation or memorization of grammar as the most important practice in language learning. In the study of Horwitz (1988), learners state a great apprehension about the accuracy of their statements, speaking like a native speaker, they advocate the translation method for learning a foreign language, some believe that two years are sufficient for becoming a fluent speaker of the target language while some believe that some individuals are more talented about language learning in comparison to

others. It should be noted that these beliefs are not totally realistic or achievable, for that reason, learners may face anxiety if they cannot satisfy their expectations. The third source is instructor beliefs about language teaching, if instructors perceive themselves as the authority of the class who correct every mistake of the learners constantly, do the most of the speaking and teaching by himself/herself, or utilize drills to teach a language are more likely to make their learners anxious about learning; nonetheless, the ideal or desired instructors should be facilitator and supporter to their students, motivate them, and foster their performances. The fourth source is instructor-learner interactions, the manners of instructors and their perception of mistakes may determine the anxiety level of students since learners shape their attitudes in accordance with “when, how often, and how their mistakes are corrected”. The fifth source is classroom procedure as the approaches and techniques utilized in the class have an impact on students’ feelings, for instance it is reported that learners generally feel anxious when they need to speak in the target language in front of others, in other words being on the spotlight is not favored by the learners in foreign language learning (Young 1990, 1991). The sixth and the last source is language testing for the reason that it is an inseparable part of learning; therefore, the way of testing or evaluating is crucial for language learners. It is stated by Young (1991) that learners feel anxious when learners are not familiar with or feel ambiguous about the test layout or tasks or the degree of student assessment becomes greater.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) propose that language learners do not initiate language learning with language anxiety, it is the language experience, attitudes and/or methods, and emotions of learners which determine language anxiety; as a result, the significance of the method utilized in language learning process is highlighted.

In a more contemporary study, Azher, Anwar and Naz (2010) find in their study that foreign language learners feel anxious mostly when “they speak in the target language in front of others, worry about grammatical mistakes, pronunciation and they are unable to talk spontaneously”. It can be concluded that learners generally face anxiety in the process and output procedures and slightly in the input processes; the debilitating effect of anxiety on learners’ achievement is also presented by the findings of the study.

Tosun (2018) conducted a study with 146 English Language and Literature Department students to investigate students' views on the source of language classroom anxiety. The findings reveal that unpreparedness, failure, comparison with others and lack of self confidence and comprehension are the reasons for anxiety.

To sum up, there are numerous sources of foreign language anxiety: “personal and interpersonal anxieties, learner beliefs about language learning, instructor beliefs about language teaching, instructor-learner interactions, classroom procedures, language testing.” (Young, 1991); “the method used in the lesson, language anxiety, it is the language experience, attitudes and/or methods, and emotions of learners” MacIntyre and Gardner (1991); “speak in the target language in front of others, worry about grammatical mistakes, pronunciation and being unable to talk spontaneously” (Azher et al., 2010); and speaking without preparation, fear of failure, comparing themselves with peers (Tosun, 2018).

2.3.5. Speaking Anxiety

Ellis and Ellis (1994), Horwitz et al. (1986), and Young (1991) identify speaking as the most anxiety-triggering aspect in a second language learning situation similarly it is classified as the most anxiety provoking skill in language learning (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991b), the reason of this anxiety is learners' lack of self confidence in general linguistic knowledge in target language and the “public nature” of speaking leading to feel embarrassed of showing language imperfections in the presence of other people (Arnold, 2000, cited in Tanveer, 2007). Due to its anxiety-provoking nature second language anxiety measuring instruments are likely to address mainly speaking anxiety in the classroom atmosphere (Cheng, Horwitz, and Schallert, 1999).

A closely related term with speaking anxiety is presumably communication apprehension described as “a type of shyness characterized by fear or anxiety about communicating with people” by Horwitz et al. (1986, 128). Learners with speaking or communication apprehension experience more problematical situations in second/foreign language class as they struggle with handling their lack of control in communicative circumstances and they believe that teacher and peers continually

monitor or observe them Horwitz et al. (1986). The sources of communication apprehension are listed as genetic disposition, exposure to suitable social-interactive types of communication, reinforcement and punishment for communicative behaviors, and the sufficiency of individuals' previous communication acquisition skills (Daly, 1991). In their study Burgoon and Hale (1983a, 1983b) find that communication apprehension or reticence differs in relation to the type of communication since some students might experience anxiety in any language lesson whilst some might feel anxious only in particular situations where specific language skills required (Cheng, Horwitz, and Schallert, 1999). MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) state that communication apprehension is directly related to fear of negative evaluation given that in foreign language learning, students expose to constant evaluation by the instructor and peers and this evaluation may cause anxiety for some students. In situations like this, anxious learners may choose avoidant actions when they hesitate about what they are going to say or be terrified of negative evaluation since they might distrust their capability in providing an appropriate impression (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a). Dewaele (2007) puts communicative anxiety in a position middle of trait, situation-specific and state anxiety and he inserts that communicative anxiety is more easily influenced by environmental factors in comparison with personality traits; nevertheless, it is more constant than state anxiety.

According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) communication in second language might be the main factor of sentimental experience in language learning. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991b) find in their study that the majority of learners feel anxious due to speaking in second language. Specifically in speaking people feel concerned about their capacity in the target language resulting in "communication apprehension" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991b). In their study, Park and Lee (2005, 206) figure out that "communication confidence" and "self-image of language potential" are directly associated with oral performance. Phillips (1992) displays that students with higher language anxiety, expressing negative attitudes, have a poor performance in oral tests and language anxiety influences not only oral performance of learners but also their attitudes towards language learning process. Another study, conducted by Heyde (1979), indicates that learners' self-esteem has a positive impact on their oral performance and oral tests. Pertaub, Slater, and Carter (2001) state that public speaking is one of the anxiety provoking factors since individuals are fear of

embarrassment, other people's negative judgments and humiliations. Despite being aware of its irrationality, they still suffer from anxiety and discomfort and it leads to avoiding social encounter (Pertaub et al., 2001).

MacIntyre (1994) develops a model to illustrate the influence of perceived communication competence and communication anxiety on willingness to communicate (WTC) in the target language. His model displays that these variables are functional for predicting learners' willingness to communicate and frequency of communication.

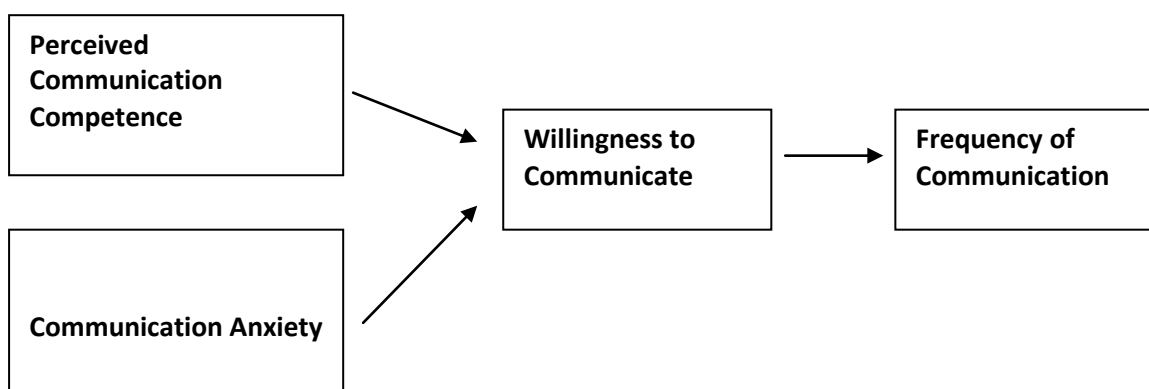


Figure 3: A part of MacIntyre's (1994) WTC Model

Figure 3 illustrates that learners' perception of their oral skills and their communication apprehension has an influence on their WTC and their desire to communicate affects their communication frequency.

Furthermore, MacIntyre and Charos (1996) design a model to demonstrate willingness to communicate in L2 in detail, in addition to perceived L2 competence and L2 anxiety, their model involves integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation and all of these variables affect not only L2 willingness to communicate but also motivation of learners. Integrativeness can be explained as enthusiasm to learning a foreign language to get together and interact with the individuals in the target language community, higher levels of integrative motivation leads to increasing the desire to language learning (Yashima, 2002).

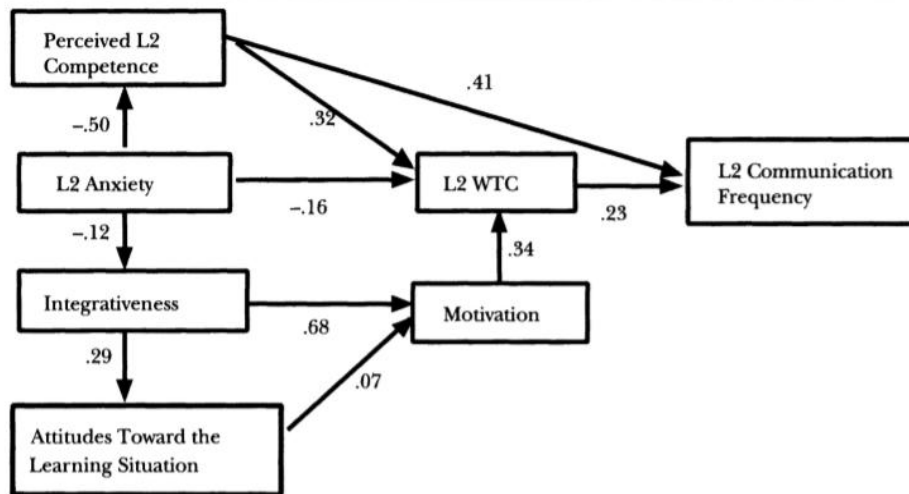


Figure 4: A part of MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) WTC Model

MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement (1997) conducted a study with approximately forty students, learning French, to figure out the relation between perceived competence in L2 and language anxiety and they utilize “scales of language anxiety and a modified version of the “can-do” test” to assess learners’ self discernment of competence on L2 tasks. The findings indicate that there is an interrelated relation between actual L2 competence, perceived L2 competence, and language anxiety. They also find that anxious learners are inclined to undervalue their competence whilst less anxious learners have a tendency in overvaluing their competence (MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement, 1997); the findings indicate that there is a negative correlation between output quality of learners and their anxiety level since relaxed learners perform better than anxious ones.

A supporting study about speaking skill is proposed by MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) with a pyramid model displaying the heuristic representation of the moment of communication. MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) present a model named “Conceptualizing Willingness to Communicate in L2: A Situational Model of L2 Confidence and Affiliation” to illustrate factors which shape individuals’ enthusiasm to communicate in second language. In their article, MacIntyre et al. (1998) aim to provide an integration of linguistic, communicative, and social psychological variables, typically independent with each other, that affect willingness to communicate in L2. In their model, Layer I, II, and III exemplify situational influences due to their transient features and being dependent on specific contexts while Layer IV, V, and VI exemplify enduring influences since they are stable, long term properties related with individual/

atmosphere, and applicable to almost any situation. This model offers potential relations among these layers to clarify the components of communication in the target language. This model is valuable for comprehending speaking anxiety since it represents multifaceted nature of speaking and how affective factors, self confidence, personality, and motivation have an effect on it. Similarly, Hashimoto (2002) finds that anxiety has a significant influence on perceived competence and it also affects learners’ willingness to communicate.

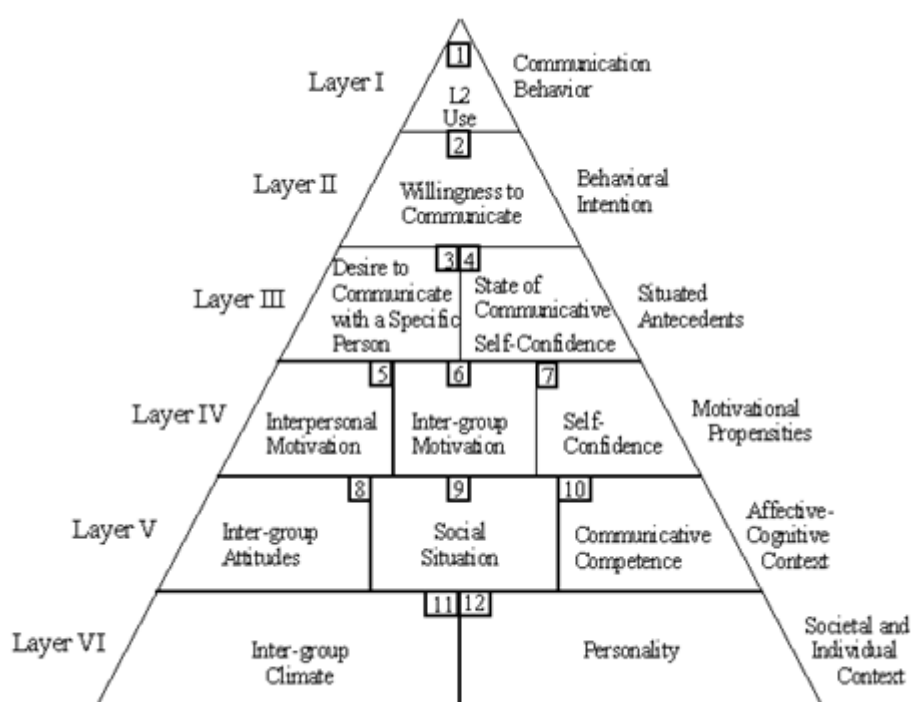


Figure 5: “Conceptualizing Willingness to Communicate in L2: A Situational Model of L2 Confidence and Affiliation” (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1998)

Another reason for speaking anxiety is defined by Smith, Snyder, and Handelsman (1982): they report that learners with high test anxiety may make use of their anxiety signs as a “self-handicapping” strategy in available circumstances as an explanation for poor performance. On the other hand, Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) point the anxiety level of conditions since learners do not communicate authentically in stressful and non-supportive classroom atmosphere instead they perform less personal and interpretive speech in the target language.

Self-rating in comprehension also plays a significant role in anxiety-provoking circumstances since learners assess or rate themselves in this kind of situations and this self-rating affects their success specially in challenging tasks.

Given that anxious learners possibly concentrate on their perceived insufficiencies, the possibility of failure, and the results of that imagined failure rather than focusing on the task and consequently they experience an intellectual division in sources, decrease in performance, and they are less involved in the tasks (Eysenck, 1979, Schwarzer, 1986, cited in MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994; MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement, 1997). Highly anxious or depressed learners may experience “self-derogation” due to not believing in themselves and their capability and facility to control surroundings (MacIntyre et al., 1997).

Brown (2001) suggests that anxiety occurs in situations where learners presume that their oral performance is incomprehensible or incorrect. Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) reveal that learners react differently in oral communication according to their anxiety level: anxious learners tend to avoid mistakes whilst non-anxious learners maintain talking regardless of mistakes.

Yashima (2002) studies the effects of intercultural friendship orientation, interest in foreign affairs, intercultural approach-avoidance tendency, and interest in international occupation or activities on WTC in a foreign language. Intercultural friendship orientation includes motivational intensity, desire to learn English, approach-avoidance tendency, interest in international vocation/activities; interest in foreign affairs includes willingness to communicate in English and communication anxiety in English. The findings indicate that motivated learners are inclined to identify their competence higher, experience less anxiety in comparison to less motivated ones, and be more self confident about communication in the target language. Intercultural communication or international interest also significantly affects WTC; international orientation prompts learners’ L2 proficiency and competence; therefore, it strongly influences WTC in L2. In the light of the current study, Yashima (2002) offers the arrangement of lessons with the aim of developing learners’ interest in different cultures and global relations and interactions to lessen anxiety, foster confidence in communication, and WTC in the target language.

Abroad experience and its facilitative influence on oral performance are studied by Matsuda and Gobel (2004) and their study shows that there is a significant correlation between low self-confidence in speaking English and overseas experience indicating that language learners who have overseas experience feel more comfortable and motivated in speaking English. On the other hand they affirm that the type of the activity is a determining aspect for anxiety since learners have diverse

preferences and attitudes towards the activities, as a result students may confront anxiety relating to the activity type (Matsuda and Gobel, 2004).

Tanveer (2007) asserts that oral presentation in foreign language is considered as the most anxiety-provoking activity in the class, and according to some language instructors learners attempt to overcome this concern by recalling the presentation script or by rehearsals; however, this attempt leads to another stress factor as being unable to remember all of the necessary parts in the presentation.

Dewaele, Petrides and Furnham (2008) conducted a study to investigate the relation between communicative anxiety and the effects of trait emotional intelligence and socio biographical variables (education level age, self-perceived proficiency frequency of use, sex, network of interlocutors, number of languages known, context of acquisition, , socialization, , age of onset of acquisition). They put forward that sex and educational level do not have a considerable influence on communicative anxiety whilst high trait emotional intelligence and communicative anxiety have a negative correlation. Additionally, higher level of self-perceived proficiency in a language, frequent use of the target language, a better socialization in the target language, a larger contact with interlocutors decrease the level of communicative anxiety (Dewaele et al., 2008).

In his study, Öztürk (2009) examines influential factors of foreign language speaking anxiety, the level of the speaking anxiety, and how students perceive or consider speaking anxiety in a Turkish University context with almost 400 preparatory program students. The quantitative and qualitative data are different from each other since the outcomes of the quantitative data indicate that learners have a low level of EFL speaking anxiety whilst the results of the interviews imply that speaking in the target language is considered as a main source of anxiety by the most of the learners. Mohamad, Wahid, and Tambahan (2009) put forward that many students experience anxiety due to negative manner in the classroom, being afraid of embarrassment, lack of proficiency in English, making mistakes in terms of grammar, lexis, coordination of words, lack of knowledge in the class subjects, being unprepared to topics in the questions.

Tianjian (2010) conducted a study, in Chinese context, about speaking anxiety as well as other fields such as unwillingness to communicate, self-efficacy in speaking, language accomplishment, trait anxiety, language class sociality, and risk-taking in classroom atmosphere. The results of the study imply that more than half

of the students experience average or high levels of speaking anxiety. It is noted that personality factors and learners' proficiency levels significantly influence the anxiety level of students. Moreover, this affective problem did not differ significantly over gender, but differed significantly over proficiency groups. Personality factors were also found to be the primary grounds of speaking anxiety; and mutual impacts occur between language achievement and speaking anxiety.

Azher et al. (2010) make a list of the reasons of anxiety as "speaking in front of others, being unable to talk spontaneously, worried about pronunciation, fear of being misunderstood, talking to unfamiliar classmates and additionally worries about grammatical mistakes, embarrassment in using broken English, comparing one's ability with others". These reasons illustrate that the reasons of anxiety generally take place in the processing and output stages as Tobias (1985) suggests.

Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) report a negative relationship between participants' language anxiety and their achievement on the oral exam. Since participants take the official oral exam which contributes to the end-of-course grade, language anxiety, along with language abilities, plays a reasonable role in the performance of the learners. They also mention that the high-anxiety group attains considerably lower oral exam grades than both the moderate-anxiety group and the low-anxiety group. In both studies Phillips (1992) and Hewitt and Stephenson (2012), higher levels of anxiety are linked to poorer performance both quantity and quality of the output besides accuracy and complexity of sentence structures in the oral exam. On the other hand, Bila (2010) reports that speaking is perceived as the strongest impediment in foreign language communication due to insufficient speaking ability of students.

Yalçın and İnceçay (2014) report that students feel less anxious when they are unprepared to the lesson; the more they accomplish in the tasks the more relaxed they feel; and they feel more relaxed when they are acquainted with the activities. They also state that performing spontaneous speaking facilitates the overcoming of the fear of speaking in the target language.

Rafek et al. (2014) conducted a study with university students from various faculties to determine their level of anxiety and they conclude that speaking is the most frightening skill since it is crucial for overall assessment and speaking activities may trigger anxiety when instructors do not provide sufficient guidance to learners leading to learners' feeling confused and negative opinions about speaking tasks.

Çağatay (2015) claims that even a moderate level of anxiety might dissuade learners from stating their considerations in the target language, and it has an adverse effect on their motivation to communicate and impede the enhancement of communicative competence ultimately. Çağatay (2015) concludes that female learners' anxiety level is higher than male learners' anxiety level and learners experience anxiety more when they communicate with native speakers rather than peers.

Král'ová (2016) concludes some beliefs about the reasons of speaking anxiety as feeling great worry about achieving a native-like accent or perceiving language learning as solely memorizing or translating from the native language and the conflict between reality and beliefs may lead to anxiety.

The studies related to speaking anxiety display that speaking is one of the most anxiety-provoking skills in foreign language learning since it requires all other language skills. Speaking anxiety is closely related to communication apprehension since learners may experience anxiety while speaking with others in the target language due to lack of self-confidence or linguistic competence; as a result, learners may become unwilling to communicate and feel embarrassed while speaking in English.

2.3.6. Studies Related to Anxiety and Oral Performance

Students with high anxiety are generally reluctant to reply or participate in oral tasks (Ely, 1986a). Numerous studies have been conducted to figure out the relation between anxiety and oral performance and how anxiety influences oral performance of language learners (Bozok, 2018; Horwitz et al.1986; Karakaya, 2011; Kleinmann, 1977; Oya, Manalo, and Greenwood, 2004; Park and Lee, 2005; Phillips, 1992; Steinberg and Horwitz 1986; Young, 1986).

In this chapter, studies related to anxiety and oral performance are presented from late 1970s to 2018 with the aim of comprehending the connection between them. In one of the earlier studies, Kleinmann (1977) examines the relation between avoidance behavior and second language learning process; he finds that affective state of learners influence the production of language structures in English which leads to the conclusion that anxiety may affect an individual's avoidance behavior

and the quality of language input. Similarly in an another study, Young (1986) conducted a study to find whether anxiety has an effect on the scores on the Oral Performance Interview (OPI), he figures out that for three of the four anxiety measures there is “a significant negative correlation between the OPI and anxiety” indicating that oral proficiency lessens when anxiety increases. Horwitz et al. (1986,19) state that many learners experience foreign language anxiety in at least some aspects of foreign language learning and oral performance, speaking, in the target language appears to be “the most threatening aspect of foreign language learning” (Horwitz et al., 1986,23). In her case study, Bailey (1983, cited in Phillips, 1992) finds that students feel nervous even in the most straightforward oral tasks and assessments in their speaking ability. Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) state that anxiety may influence the subject matter and elaboration of second language speech, in addition to fluency and grammaticality in general; in their study an experiment with Spanish-speaking young adults, at the low-intermediate level is conducted; students are exposed to a stressful and anxiety provoking environment deliberately arranged by the experimenter and attempt to fulfill some task requiring oral performance. The study shows that subjects in the stressful environment fulfill the tasks less interpretively than subjects in a relaxed, comfortable environment (Steinberg and Horwitz, 1986). In another study, Price (1991) interviews highly anxious ex-language learners and all of them consider oral skill as “the most problematic”; high ability students feel frustrated by the incompatibility between endeavors and outcomes. Price (1991) defines speaking in front of peers as a quite anxiety-provoking activity since learners are worried about pronunciation mistakes and being ridiculed. Koch and Terrell (1991) argue that language learners experience apprehension in speaking in the target language thus oral activities such as defining a word, oral presentations, and role plays are the most anxiety-producing activities in foreign language learning. Phillips (1992) asserts that students feel anxious due to being worried about “appearing anxious”; however, if teachers/evaluators comprehend their emotions it may reduce the level of tension associated with evaluation. On the other hand, students feel anxious due to unrealistic expectations in language learning and it causes difficulties in oral language performance (Phillips, 1992, 20).

Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999, 225, 226) make a list of variables affecting foreign language anxiety significantly:

Age, prior history of visiting foreign countries, prior high school experience with foreign languages, expected overall average for current language course, perceived creativity, perceived intellectual ability, perceived scholastic competence, perceived job competence, perceived appearance, perceived social acceptance, perceived level of humor, perceived self-worth, cooperativeness, value placed on competitive learning, and individualism.

Among these variables three parts of self-perception are described as the predictors of foreign language anxiety: perceived scholastic competence, perceived self-worth and students' expectation of their overall achievement in foreign language courses and they also remark that anxiety cause learners' forming incorrect negative expectations which leads to reduction in enthusiasm, endeavor, and therefore accomplishment (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999).

Briefly, studies between 1970 and 2000 describe the possible reasons of speaking anxiety as affective state of learners (Kleinmann, 1977); oral tasks and assessments (Bailey, 1983, cited in Phillips, 1992); a stressful and anxiety provoking environment (Steinberg and Horwitz, 1986); speaking in front of peers; being worried about pronunciation mistakes and being ridiculed (Price, 1991); oral activities (Koch and Terrell, 1991); being worried about "appearing anxious" (Phillips, 1992); perceived scholastic competence, perceived self-worth and students' expectation of their overall achievement in foreign language courses (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999)

The relation between anxiety and oral performance is also examined in more contemporary studies; Dalkılıç (2001) conducted both a qualitative and quantitative study with Turkish EFL learners and comes to the conclusion that the students' anxiety levels have a significant effect on their accomplishment in speaking tasks. In another study, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) illustrate that anxious and non-anxious foreign language learners have different reactions in oral performance in terms of their self-reports of perfectionist tendencies; anxious learners possess higher criteria for their English performance, higher inclination towards procrastination; they are more worried about other learners' thoughts, more concerned about their errors in comparison with the non-anxious learners. Additionally, the characteristics of anxious learners cause an unpleasant and less successful language learning; they are not satisfied with their performance; they are disturbed by their errors; they often attribute their errors to their anxiety; they overvalue the number and seriousness of

their errors; they establish a connection between their mistakes and the likelihood of negative evaluations of other learners; and they believe that teachers and peers continually evaluate their performance Gregersen and Horwitz (2002). Oya, Manalo, and Greenwood (2004) conducted a study with seventy-three Japanese speakers, in intermediate level studying English at various language schools, they do an oral performance task (story retelling). The results indicate how anxiety has a negative effect on all of the learning stages, input, processing, and output stages; anxiety causes “poorer organization and slower retrieval of sentence components and detail necessary for the story retelling” and it leads to lower accuracy (Oya et al., 2004, 850). Supportively, Park and Lee (2005) find a negative correlation between anxiety and oral performance and they indicate that “the higher the students’ level of anxiety the lower their oral performance scores are.” Park and Lee (2005) also figure out that among three anxiety components (communication, criticism, and examination anxiety) communication anxiety shows the highest negative correlation with oral performance as a result, communication anxiety is defined as the most significant component in producing oral performance. Likewise, Woodrow (2006) states a negative correlation between both in-class anxiety and out-of class anxiety and oral performance; the study indicates the adverse effect of anxiety on oral performance even though anxiety is only one of the variables affecting oral performance. According to the qualitative data, Woodrow (2006, 322) figures out that “giving oral presentations and performing in front of classmates” are the most reported stressors for in-class situations whilst “communicating with native speakers” is the most reported stressor for out-of-class. As a result, anxiety is defined as a debilitating effect on speaking a foreign language and it is evidently a subject in language learning (Woodrow, 2006).

In their study, Liu and Jackson (2008) conclude that when learners begin their language learning older or they are not willing to communicate orally they become more anxious in English class whilst they become less anxious language learners if they are risk-takers or outgoing learners or have a high self-rated proficiency in English or have more opportunity to speak with English speaking companions. Thus, foreign language anxiety and the students’ unwillingness to communicate are closely interrelated since the unwillingness to communicate may cause students to become more anxious in using target language orally or their anxiety may lead to unwillingness to speak the target language in class, or both (Liu and Jackson, 2008).

Karakaya (2011) studies both listening and speaking anxiety of non-native teachers in preparatory program in Turkey, she discovers that teachers experience speaking anxiety more in comparison with listening skills possibly because speaking is a productive skill whilst listening is a receptive one meaning that speaking requires production in the target language but comprehension is sufficient for listening skill.

On the other hand, even though foreign language teachers are expected to be advanced in speaking in the target language they might feel uncomfortable during oral production as learning is a never-ending process (Horwitz, 1996). She also mentions that some teachers do not feel anxious while speaking with other native, non-native speakers of English and in front of their students in the classroom; they also feel comfortable while speaking in English since they have expertise in linguistic competence in the target language whereas some teachers feel anxious while speaking with native speakers and other language teachers since they are afraid of making grammar or pronunciation mistakes leading to negative evaluation of others; teachers may feel anxious due to perfectionism, over consideration about others' opinions and evaluations, not using some idiomatic expressions and colloquial language in the class which causes problem in speaking English in daily life (Karakaya, 2011).

Öztürk (2012) examines foreign language speaking anxiety and learner motivation at a Turkish state university, his study reveals that anxiety and motivation have a moderately negative correlation because motivational orientations decrease the level of anxiety; the motivational level of students and their foreign language speaking anxiety also have a moderately negative correlation. He also mentions that female learners face anxiety more than male learners. In the light of interviews, perfectionist manners and responses of peers, spontaneous speaking in the target language, low self-confidence, being afraid of making mistakes, teachers' attitudes can be noticed as the main sources of speaking anxiety (Öztürk, 2012)

Çokay (2014) carries out a study about the level and sources of anxiety of non-native teachers at English Preparatory Schools, the results indicate that the main reason is communicating with natives and other reasons are oral performance in front of others, teachers' opinions about their capacity and proficiency, lack of self-esteem, and comparing themselves with others. She states that lack of practice with a native speaker, the personality and the attitude of the native speaker might also have an influence on the communication, being self-doubting about themselves, high

expectations and feelings of insufficiency might hinder teachers' self-esteem and cause anxiety in turn while teaching experience in the target language can be a major factor to decrease the degree of anxiety (Çokay, 2014).

Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014) compile a list about speaking anxiety: learners are influenced by experiencing unprepared oral tasks; exposing immediate questions; individual, environmental and educational factors related with anxiety; being concerned about pronunciation and lexis mistakes; and possible evaluations of peers. In conclusion, a great number of studies related to anxiety and oral performance display that anxiety has a debilitating effect on oral performance since it interrupts the fluency and accuracy of speaking. It also must be noted that anxiety and unwillingness to communicate might have a reciprocal relation since they both affect and be affected by each other. Thus it is possible to say that there is a close relation between learners' anxiety level and their oral performance in the target language.

Bozok (2018) conducted a study about speaking anxiety of university EFL students she studies with both instructors and students; the findings show that gender has a significant influence on speaking anxiety as male learners feel less anxious compared to females while proficiency level of learners do not have a significant effect on speaking anxiety. Going abroad experience shows a facilitating effect on learners as they feel more comfortable in speaking English since they have experienced sufficient exposure to it; the study proposes five reasons for speaking anxiety: first cause is efficacy in English since lack of grammar, pronunciation and grammar and difficulties in combining the rules in the target language may lead to anxiety; second cause is the teacher as their attitudes towards the lesson, their choices of activities and topics, and error correction since negative and inappropriate choices and attitudes may bring about speaking anxiety; third cause is fear of negative evaluation as negative attitudes of peers, comparison with peers, and expectation of other; fourth cause is fear of making mistakes, it triggers the anxiety level of students, fifth cause is perfectionism in speech since this attitude makes learners feel anxious.

Briefly, studies from 2000 to present day examine anxiety and oral performance in a more detailed way; the results display numerous sources of poor oral performance related to anxiety: perfectionist tendencies (Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002); communication, criticism, and examination anxiety (Park and Lee, 2005); in-

class situations such as “giving oral presentations and performing in front of classmates” out-class situations such as “communicating with native speakers” (Woodrow, 2006); unwillingness to communicate and the starting age of language learners (Liu and Jackson, 2008); speaking with native speakers and other language, being afraid of making grammar or pronunciation mistakes leading to negative evaluation of others, perfectionism, over consideration about others’ opinions and evaluations, not using some idiomatic expressions and colloquial language in the class (Karakaya, 2011); perfectionist manners and responses of peers, spontaneous speaking in the target language, low self-confidence, teachers’ attitudes (Öztürk, 2012); lack of practice with a native speaker, the personality and the attitude of the native speaker (Çokay, 2014); individual, environmental and educational factors related with anxiety (Öztürk and Gürbüz, 2014); lack of efficacy in English, the teacher and his/her attitudes towards the lesson (Bozok, 2018). In the light of this summary, it may be possible to say that, contemporary studies examine the relation between anxiety and oral performance more elaborately and present detailed reasons for speaking anxiety.

2.3.7. Strategies to Cope with Anxiety

Language anxiety is a complicated and multifaceted experience faced by learners in relation to learner characteristic, their cultural background, previous language experience, and classroom environment; therefore the influences of it is challenging for scholars (Young, 1991). Unsurprisingly, language learners suffer from anxiety and it ends up with negative feelings and attitudes towards language learning (Horwitz et al., 1986; Phillips, 1992; Price, 1991). In the previous chapters sources of foreign language anxiety and speaking anxiety, the relation between anxiety and oral performance are presented via numerous studies in the field. In this chapter studies from the 1980s to the present are put forward to illustrate suggestions to handle language anxiety and speaking anxiety.

One of the earlier studies is conducted by McCoy (1979), activities in which learners use their imaginations about anxiety provoking situations in the target language are suggested, during these imaginations learners are supported for self-

talks and talking with peers for practicing the language, moreover teachers should provide language exposure via radio or television programs in the foreign language.

On the other hand, Gilliland and James (1983, cited in Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999) suggest some cognitive and behavioral methods to anxiety management and reduction: “mental and emotive imagery, relaxation therapy, systematic desensitization, cognitive and covert modeling, thought stopping, cognitive restructuring, meditation, biofeedback, and neuro-linguistic programming”. Pessimistic attitudes towards foreign language are proposed by Foss and Reitzel (1988) as a debilitating factor for foreign language learning and it is state that foreign language anxiety may derive from learners’ negative beliefs; therefore, they suggest that learners should express their concerns and write them on the board with the aim of showing learners that other learners also experience anxiety and they are not alone. Another technique can be using “anxiety graph” to create a student chart to indicate their anxiety level in various oral interaction and learners can discuss and compare their graphs with classmates to handle the same situation with more knowledge and reasonably. The other technique can be “journal writing” for acknowledging insufficiency in the target language, decreasing anxiety, and creating more realistic expectations; in a few words, expression of anxiety by anxiety graph or journal writing is presented as a solution for decreasing foreign language anxiety as it displays learners that others also face similar problems Foss and Reitzel (1988). Furthermore, Horwitz (1988) recommends that instructors should discuss learners’ beliefs about language learning, challenge their incorrect thoughts, and talk about language learning process regularly through language learning; in addition, more student-centered approaches should be applied in language learning courses where instructors are not authorities but facilitators and supporters for learners and learners perform actively in their learning experience. To achieve learner-centered classroom, teachers might attend conferences, panels, and workshops to keep in step with contemporary language learning and teaching approaches and methods (Young, 1991). Both of these studies (Foss and Reitzel, 1988; Horwitz, 1988) recommend intentional recognition of anxiety to handle with it. In addition to recognition of anxiety, a supportive classroom environment is also crucial for defining and reducing anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest that teachers may provide student support system and observe classroom atmosphere personally to define particular sources of

student anxiety. As language learners are predisposed to errors and error corrections, teacher should choose error correction approaches relevant to instructional philosophy with the aim of decreasing defending responses of students; instructors should facilitate foreign language learning by comprehending learners' emotions of loneliness and weakness and proposing explicit solutions for decreasing foreign language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986). In her study, Young (1990) asks participants two questions to comment on "what the instructor does to decrease foreign language class anxiety and to describe instructors characteristics that tend to reduce students' foreign language speaking anxiety". Answers indicate error correction and activity type/task as two fundamental categories. Participants state that their instructors reduce anxiety by not overstating mistakes done in the lesson, making learners realize that everyone makes mistakes, calling on volunteer students to reply the questions instead of choosing students randomly, and utilizing small group activities. On the other hand, they recommend that instructors should be "friendly, good sense of humor, patient, and relaxed" to reduce speaking anxiety of learners. In the light of their findings and results, Young (1990) put forward some theoretical interpretation of language anxiety: their first interpretation is speaking in front of others is one of the main reasons for anxiety and their anxiety level decreases in pair and group work activities; the second interpretation is related to "social anxiety" since students might afraid of negative evaluation both by instructors and peers; therefore, instructors should provide a warm social environment with facilitative characteristics; the third interpretation is self-esteem as students with low self esteem fear of speaking in front of others, making mistakes in front of peers and instructors and they are more enthusiastic to participate activities in which they are not the focal point. Similarly, Price (1991) reports that highly anxious students tend to have low self-esteem as they believe that their language proficiency is lower than the others and everyone looks at them continually. Price (1991) also highlights the significance of instructor characteristic and attitudes towards learners and language learning, the study recommends that teachers ought to provide positive reinforcement and enhance realistic and achievable expectations for learners in addition learners are not expected to have native like fluency and accuracy. Another significant learner difference is defined as age by Nyikos (1990), the significance of learner variables is pointed and specifically gender difference as it determines the way learners approach to a learning task; therefore, teachers should consider gender-related differences and

beliefs for lesson planning. Similarly, Campbell and Shaw (1994) study language anxiety and gender differences, they carry out a study with military personnel to classify gender related differences about language anxiety, four language skills in detail. Survey 1 is administered before the course and Survey 2 is administered after a two week, sixty hour training, the results indicate that male students' level of language anxiety increase significantly in comparison to female ones. Although approximately similar percentages of male and female learners are reported to experience speaking anxiety, after the two week course the anxiety level of males increased significantly (%13) whilst the level of female students slightly dropped. The study also displays that nearly the same percentage of male and female students feel anxious about speaking in the target language before the course begins. Their study shows that language activities requiring the student to listen, speak, read, and write in the target language and a fear of academic failure are the main reasons for male students' anxiety; a curriculum which can meet learners' needs in accordance with the role the language course plays in the student's career is required for handling anxiety according to Campbell and Shaw (1994).

A different study is carried out by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991): they study with inexperienced language learners of French to examine the effects of focused essays on anxiety with “essays, can do tasks, production tasks, and anxometers (anxiety thermometers to assess the amount anxiety throughout the production tasks)”. Scholars manipulate essay types as anxious and confident essays, the former includes description of speaking events entirely whilst the latter concentrates on speaking and comprehension mutually. The findings indicate that anxious learners perform more inadequately compared to less anxious ones; therefore, anxiety influences language learning and production adversely. As a solution, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991b) suggest utilizing focused essays to change self perceptions of language learners and students writing relaxed essay show more self-reliance while students writing anxious essay display less self-reliance about their proficiency level in the target language; by altering the self perception of learners, their self image about language learning may develop; as a result, language teachers should support self confidence and capability of their learners.

Crookall and Oxford (1991, cited in Young, 1991) offer numerous activities to reduce anxiety, one of them is “Agony Column” in which learners play three roles

as “themselves (language learners), an "agony aunt" (like a Dear Abby), and a counselor”. This activity is a group work, in the first stage learners write letters to Agony Column to state their anxiety related to foreign language learning, afterward group members read and talk about the letters with the aim of giving advises to other members’ anxiety problems then learners act like counselors and reply these letters and return them to their owners for discussing and responding the answers. In the final stage, a representative student from each group demonstrates examples and provides feedback for the debriefing session (Young, 1991); furthermore, pair works, games and adaptation of activities are recommended in accordance with learners’ affective requisites to lessen anxiety, in oral interviews teachers should concentrate on not only linguistic accuracy but also successful communication as learners feel less anxious when they recognize that teacher concerns both what they say and how they say it.

In the Natural Approach, Krashen (1982) states that learners’ affective filter should be reduced to achieve language learning; group works and personalized activities are feasible and beneficial for language learning since learners feel comfortable in personalized instructions. A distinctive recommendation is suggested by Omaggio et al (1991, cited in Young, 1991): instructors should compose attractive sentences to make learners forget the language used in the sentences as they are quite attention-grabbing and students focus on the meaning since the topic is interesting and significant for them.

Saunders and Crookall (1985) suggest playing language games to arouse curiosity, prompt learners, foster participation, and reduce language anxiety since learners are assumed as novice players in the games and their mistakes or errors can be pardoned easily; however instructors should pay attention to the introduction of the games which are inclined to arouse too much exhilaration, rivalry or concern amongst participants.

Seeing that learners with anxiety and negative attitudes towards oral evaluation possibly present unenthusiastic manners towards language class and take merely required courses Phillips (1992) reports some strategies to reduce anxiety on learners’ oral test performance and attitudes, for instance teacher’s or evaluator’s comprehension about learners’ worry and tension may lessen their anxiety about

assessment or teachers may aid learners' anxiety management with explicit affective strategies training to form realistic expectations about language learning, perceiving it as long-lasting process and errors are expected and usual elements in language learning. For the enhancement of communicative competence Phillips (1992) suggests sufficient oral practice and group work evaluation without an anxiety provoking classroom atmosphere which might lead to negative attitudes towards language learning. Bailey (1983), Foss and Reitzel (1988), Phillips (1989), Phillips (1991), and Phillips (1992) offer assessment with partner or small groups such as interviews and role plays can be utilized to reduce apprehension, group testing also suitable for oral assessment with allowing regular testing teachers may provide less anxiety provoking atmosphere where learners do not illustrate negative attitudes towards evaluation and be familiar with the assessment procedures.

Saito and Samimy (1996) report that language class anxiety as the best predictor for both intermediate and advanced learners as the study indicates intermediate learners score the lowest whilst advanced learners score the highest anxiety level; as a result, language teachers ought to be receptive to the instructional level and affective states of learners to decrease debilitating influences of anxiety for instance instructors may make use of debates to question the ways of learning the target language for beginning levels and for advanced learners they can use some curricular activities to facilitate permanent enhancement of all language skills.

MacIntyre and Noels (1996) study social and psychological variables to predict the use of language learning strategies, analyses indicate that language anxiety plays a role in the use of overall and certain types of strategies. Some of these strategies provoke anxiety whilst others do not provoke significant anxiety for instance using flashcards, acting out words, giving self rewards, talking about feelings, writing feelings in a diary, using rhymes, and dividing up L2 words are low anxiety provoking language learning strategies while trying to talk like native speaker, starting L2 conversations, finding ways to use L2, looking for conversations, encouraging themselves to speak when afraid, asking native to correct them, asking other to slow down and asking questions in L2 are high anxiety provoking language learning strategies (MacIntyre and Noels, 1996). As it is seen, oral production, speaking with native speakers, and attempts to native like fluency in the foreign language cause language anxiety; therefore, instructors are supposed to

apply effective strategies for expertise in learning process, reduction of hesitation and anxiety, sustaining/enhancing attitudes and motivations of learners.

As pre-service ELT teachers are future ELT teachers, the anxiety problems they may face during their professional career can also be significant to mention and Horwitz (1996) analyzes the reasons and alleviations of language teachers' foreign language anxiety. To alleviate anxiety, language teachers should acknowledge their own and colleagues' emotions of foreign language anxiety to observe that other teachers also experience similar anxiety problems and they can receive support from companions; they should permit themselves to be less than perfect or native-like speakers of the target language, mistakes are assumed as natural signs of learning process and this assumption should be valid for language teachers. In detail, language teachers should feel comfortable about making mistakes during using language creatively, identify their weakness in their language use, and appreciate their current proficiency level. Another reason for foreign language anxiety can be "culture shock" if language teacher does not go to abroad or have sufficient information about the target language (Horwitz, 1996). Moreover, teachers should be broadminded about their target language achievement, appreciate their expertise and comprehensible fluent and accurate speaking in the target language to develop their language skills. Language teachers are also advanced language learners; therefore, they ought to become more aware of their language learning process as language alters and fluctuate continually. Relaxation techniques, deep breathing and progressive relaxation exercises, making plans to enhance language proficiency (attending courses, seminars, conferences, workshops etc. about foreign language learning/teaching and current pedagogical approaches or methods in language teaching), having self-esteem about target language progress and imagining about calm and ease performance in the classroom before going to the class may also alleviate anxiety (Horwitz, 1996); the study concludes that language teacher anxiety is a crucial problem not only for teachers but also for learners since it influences the methods and techniques of teachers, the quantity and quality of the input language learners receive, and role modeling of the teacher.

To decrease speaking anxiety learners should be willing to communicate in the target language; therefore MacIntyre et al. (1998) propose a heuristic model of variables influencing willingness to communicate in language learning, they suggest

six layers: “social and individual context (intergroup climate and personality), affective-cognitive context (intergroup attitudes, social situation, and communicative competence), motivational propensities (interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation, and self-confidence), situated antecedents (desire to communicate a specific person, state communicative self-confidence), behavioral intention (willingness to communicate), communication behavior (L2 use).” These layers define learners’ variables influencing willingness to communicate (WTC) in the target language and it is suggested to increase WTC to foster language learning and communication not only in the classroom setting but also outside the classroom or in real life; therefore, language should be used for social, political, and educational goals to connect cultures and nations (MacIntyre et al.,1998). WTC can also be beneficial for handling speaking anxiety as the more learners are willing to communicate; the less they feel anxious about it. A supportive study is conducted by Liu and Jackson (2008), they find a significantly positive correlation between unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety and the results indicate learners’ unwillingness to communicate and anxiety about foreign language learning display a relationship with self-rate English proficiency and connection to English. Moreover, learners are enthusiastic in participating conversations but they have an aversion to take risks or speak in the target language possibly as a result of anxiety or lack of expertise in English; for that reason, language teachers should be sensitive about anxiety and take precautions in the initial lessons by discussing the importance of oral production in the target language and point the fact everyone may experience anxiety during language learning; however, learners can develop their learning by feeling confident about their skills and being more willing to communicate to enhance their language learning (Liu and Jackson, 2008).

Similar to the studies of Foss and Reitzel (1988), Horwitz (1988), and Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) propose that identification of students at risk of debilitating effects of anxiety is important since instructors search for instructional strategies and develop strategies to handle anxiety in the light of this identification. Initially, language learners should perceive anxiety reasonable; endeavor diminishing negative feelings of learners such as puzzlement, insufficiency, and disappointment and altering them with positive experiences; lessen affective filters of learners; and promote their low expectations about language learning (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999).

Positive reinforcement, encouragement, support, and understanding are beneficial for fostering learners' self confidence and self respect, with instructors' sensitive attitudes in error correction aids perceiving language errors as natural and progressive steps in language learning process; in addition instructors can converse anxiety with their students.

Alternatively, Cenoz and Lecumberri (1999) state listening exercises and interaction with native speakers to improve pronunciation skills since it is one of the most challenging skills in foreign language learning, with acquisition of pronunciation learners can be able to speak.

Young (1999) points that reciprocal acceptance and respect between teachers and students, correct student-student and teacher-student appreciations are essential for encouraging and calming classroom atmosphere.

Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) recommend the application of task-based framework to promote L2 language use and production since it provides an insight to the affective and socio-dynamic connections of learners and integration of this framework with "cognitive, linguistic and educational task variables" might be more comprehensible for fostering speaking in the target language.

Pappamihiel (2001) studies the shifting from the ESL classroom to the mainstream classes to examine the significance of learning environment and how learners react to this adjustment, the findings indicate that learners, specifically female ones, experience anxiety due to new challenges and stress. To decrease the affective challenges, teachers can pay attention to provide safer group work tasks encouraging cooperation between learners, personalize the mainstream ESL students to eliminate dehumanization, alienation, and reticence in class activities; promote authentic learning opportunities consciously to make anxious learners feel comfortable and participate confidently.

Kitano (2001) studies the effects of fear of negative evaluation and self-perceived ability about the foreign language on language anxiety, the findings show that fear of negative evaluation significantly influences language proficiency; therefore, teachers need to contemplate it, conduct supportive methods and techniques, do positive comments on every possible language performance to lessen

the negative effects of fear of negative evaluation. On the other hand, self perception is also an important factor to be considered since learners with low self perception tend to experience anxiety during the language learning period; for that reason, a collaborative classroom atmosphere should be given to the students rather than a competitive one in which learners compare each other constantly and feel inadequate about their own language knowledge. Early identification of learners with this problem is noteworthy as teachers can take precautions, provide tutoring and/or find solutions for them in the first weeks of the course and high expectations should be adjusted with reasonable expectations since unrealistic expectation might lead to anxiety.

Dalkılıç (2001) carries out a study to examine “the role of foreign language classroom anxiety in speaking courses” and the study displays that “conspicuousness, lack of self-confidence, shyness, high expectations of others, and lack of knowledge” are the reasons for anxiety in speaking courses; the effects of anxiety in speaking courses are “reticence, failure in exams, and a feeling of guiltiness”; the strategies to cope with anxiety used by learners are “doing nothing, avoiding the task, performing the task, making practice, self-encouragement, and preparing before the lesson”; the study displays that there is a significant relation between oral skills and language anxiety, the reasons and effects of anxiety differ in accordance with learner variables, their proficiency level, instructor attitudes etc.; therefore, instructors are suggested to behave sensitively and helpfully to reduce learners’ anxiety, moreover, presentations, seminars and/or workshops can be prepared by teachers to handle learners’ language anxiety.

Another study by Pappamihel (2002) reports that language learners generally use “avoidance” to alleviate foreign language speaking anxiety meaning that they prefer staying silent during English lessons to eliminate the possibility of tease and taunt by peers, another strategy is “ignoring the presence of teacher and peers” to speak in the target language easefully. Briefly, learners necessitate a silent period, in which they maintain learning but cannot perform in the target language as stated by Krashen (1982) and allowing of L1 use when required and not being insisted on speaking in front of others by teacher are recommended to language teachers. Moreover, teachers should increase learners’ self efficacy to aid them handling negative outcomes of possibly threatening circumstances, provide a different

perspective to frightening situations, be aware of learning another language means also learning another life, and take precautions before anxiety becomes consistent and damage academic and affective life of learners (Pappamihiel, 2002).

On the other hand, Yashima (2002) offers the arrangement of lessons with the aim of developing learners' interest in different cultures and global relations, as learning a new language means also learning another culture, and interactions to lessen anxiety, foster confidence in communication, and WTC in the target language.

Anxiety is defined as an affective factor (Bialystok and Fröhlich, 1978; Scovel, 1978) in foreign language; therefore it is possible to make connections between anxiety and other affective factors as Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) study language learning- perfectionism, and learners' reactions to their oral performances in accordance with their anxiety levels (anxious and non anxious), their results indicate that anxious learners tend to have higher expectations and perfectionist attitudes towards language learning and speaking, they are prone to procrastination, worried about others' considerations and errors. As the study illustrates, anxiety and perfectionism are mutually influence each other; therefore, strategies to handle perfectionism might be utilized for aiding anxious foreign language learners in addition, learners may watch their recorded oral performance to observe their physical and affective reaction to their oral production (Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002).

In addition to other affective factors, classroom seating can also be a solution for reducing anxiety as Worde (2003) conducted an interview with foreign language learners to examine anxiety and its effect on foreign language learning. The study reveals that learners, being aware of the importance of communality and connectedness with classmates, believe that personal relations with peers and group work may reduce anxiety; a semicircle or oval seating arrangement may also reduce anxiety since learners feel as one of the member in a crowd rather than feeling on the spot; they also mention teacher's attitude towards learners and the lesson are significant because personal relations with teacher, teacher's personality also might be effective to lessen anxiety in addition to speaking comprehensibly, checking learners' understanding of the material, and using the target language to elucidate significant points and homework assignments.

Oya et al. (2004) determine that learners should develop or instructors should support them to display extravert manners such as being fond of individuals, friendly, and self-confident to enhance oral performance in language learning and for more accurate oral production learners need to learn and practice how to manage their state anxiety or become more relaxed. Additionally, instructors should be aware of learners' personalities and form their expectations in accordance with their characteristics and anxiety level to adjust the circumstances requiring speaking the target language.

In a more comprehensive study, Kondo and Ying-Ling (2004) develop a typology for strategies to cope with language anxiety under five subcategories: preparation, relaxation, positive thinking, peer seeking, and resignation. Each subcategory involves a strategy with a different perspective. In detail, some of the preparation strategies are "trying to use English, self-preparation, using dictionary, and getting help from the teacher or peers", some of the relaxation strategies are "taking deep breathe, and trying to relax or calm down", some of the positive thinking strategies are "attempting to enjoy English and the class, maintaining self-trust and self-esteem, and making use of mistakes for learning", some of the peer seeking strategies are "finding other people who face the similar difficulties and being aware of others also have problems", and some of the resignation strategies are "giving up the lesson, stop paying attention, and sleeping during the lesson".

Chen and Chang (2004) determine that foreign language anxiety occurs due to "English learning history, classroom learning characteristics, and developmental learning difficulties" mostly; thoroughly, learners who develop slowly, have negative experiences and perceptions about foreign language learning or problems with classroom setting are more likely to experience anxiety; in addition, these negative experiences may cause learning difficulties: low grades, negative discernments about foreign language learning, insufficiency in progressional skills, linguistic coding problems or classroom activities leading to problems in linguistic process. Since learners who suffer from anxiety the most are the ones who have negative foreign language history, teachers should aid these learners to alter their negative experiences with positive ones or provide opportunities to increase their self-esteem, "frequent mini-quizzes, alternative testing methods (such as self evaluation or individualized assessment), and pretest practice using similar test items" are some

possible suggestions in the study. Another reason for anxiety is learning disabilities, motor and general coordination difficulties, to alleviate it, teachers can aid learners to recognize their disabilities and scaffold them for accomplishment in foreign language learning. Additionally, teachers can make use of “scaffolding, practice opportunities, drill, repetition, multisensory structured language, and slowed-down teaching pace” to promote language learning and alleviate foreign language anxiety.

Dörnyei (2001) describes language classrooms as threatening environments since learners are supposed to use strictly limited language code (the target language); therefore error correction methods play a significant role in language learning and Burden (2004) recommends modeling approach for correction by not embarrassing them. In the modeling approach teachers adjust learners’ statements and provide feedback without highlighting students or their errors, they simply state the correct form which endeavors learners without reproving in addition it is also proposed that concentrating on subject matter rather than grammatical rules, and promoting learners to discuss recognizable themes can also decrease anxiety (Burden, 2004); another recommendation is “cognitive retraining” (Oxford, 1999) in which learners express and contemplate about their anxiety provoking experiences aiding to observe peers also face similar problems and with teacher’s acknowledgement learners can construe circumstances accurately, participate actively in learning instead of prevention and perceive their anxiety as temporary; moreover, by fostering strategic and communicative strategies learners can build realistic expectations, manage communication breaks successfully, and improve their self efficacy (Burden, 2004). Additionally, Burden (2004) points altering competitive learning with collaborative learning as it supplies participant of each student and interdependent relation between peers, for achieving this cooperation “dictogloss tasks” (Ellis, 2003) can be used since learners support each other by determining correct language forms to handle with the task and reconstruct the text. Leaving “expert” or “advisor” attitudes in teaching and being “facilitator” as a language teacher may also improve learner autonomy leading to self-confident and responsible learners; furthermore, L1 use for negotiation both by teacher and learners may promote the reduction of anxiety as learners have developed ideas and opinions yet insufficient L2 lexis knowledge (Horwitz et al., 1991) causing feeling anxious while speaking in the target language; consequently, using the mother tongue might aid

setting the scene, mutual understanding, and decreasing apprehension (Burden, 2004).

Dörnyei (2005) points to the effect of “possible selves” on language learning in his study, he defines possible selves as the particular image of one’s self future conditions of intelligence, opinions, representations, aims, apprehension and ambitions. The clear explanation of possible selves may facilitate “the form, meaning, structure, and direction to one’s hopes and threats”, translation of thoughts into action, and incorporating aims and plans to attain positive possible selves (Dörnyei, 2005, 100). In the lights of possible selves model, Dörnyei (2005) offers “L2 self system” including “the ideal L2 self, ought-to selves, and the L2 learning environment”. Briefly, the ideal self is the desired version of learners to become whilst ought-to selves are traits to fulfill others’ expectations and prevent potential negative results, and the L2 learning environment, requiring continuing activity, is related to the existing motivation due to background experience influencing the current learning environment (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2009). Dörnyei (2009, 18) lists six certain and significant conditions that might improve or impede the motivational effect of the ideal and ought to selves: “availability of an elaborate and vivid future self image, perceived plausibility, harmony between the ideal and ought selves, necessary activation/priming, accompanying procedural strategies, and the offsetting impacted of a feared self.” To provide these conditions, some strategies might be feasible: the first strategy is building or raising awareness about the ideal L2 self with the aid of numerous desires and wishes which previously interested learners, the significance of ideal selves can be explained to students for awakening consciousness; the second strategy is empowering the predictions of possible selves with the aid of “imagery enhancement or guided imagery” to construct vivid images and advance their control on the image; the third strategy is building goals upon realistic expectations to increase the level of positive motivation; the fourth strategy is presenting a motivating framework that sustains enthusiasm and makes less interested ones think about it to activate the L2 ideal self; the fifth strategy is integrating action plans and ongoing self-assessment to build self-guiding images for operationalising learners’ visions by teachers; the sixth strategy is exchanging the negative impacts of failure with positive thoughts (Dörnyei, 2009; MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012).

Gregersen (2005) conducted a study to observe the nonverbal behaviors of language learners during a videotaped oral foreign language exam with the aim of determining the differences between anxious and non-anxious behaviors. Nonverbal behaviors can supply information to detect anxious learners and teachers can help these learners if they recognize them. The study states that anxious learners show the following postures and body movements:

- Leaning behavior: Backward lean, lean toward back against chair, teacher or sitting upright
- Rigidity: Tense body position. Fewer gestures
- Open/closed body position: Generally closed position body position, legs or ankles crossed, arms folded in front. More frequent crossing and recrossing legs
- Body-focused adaptors: Adjusted clothing, scratched facial area (chin, forehead), stroked hair, touched legs and stomach, rubbed hands
- Object-focused adaptors: Play with pens, notebooks, general fidgeting
- Speech dependent gestures: Occur rarely, when used gestures generally compensated for vocabulary gaps
- Foot/leg movements: Bounced/jiggled/tapped foot
- Head nodding/shaking: Some side to side head movements, fewer positive head nods. (Gregersen, 2005)

Woodrow (2006) conducted a research project to inspect the relation between second language speaking anxiety and second language speaking performance, she develops the second language speaking anxiety scale (SLSAS) for the study and makes interviews to scrutinize in-class and out-of class reasons of anxiety. The findings indicate that learners feel anxious due to retrieval interference and/or skills deficiency and the most anxiety provoking reason is speaking with a native speaker; for that reason, the project proposes that instructions by the instructor can be useful for learners who have skills deficiency whilst “de-sensitization and relaxation techniques” can be functional for retrieval interference, for promoting valuable linguistic sources teachers may provide practice for every day communication both in and outside the class. On the other hand, Marwan (2007) states that learners face foreign language anxiety due to “lack of preparation, lack of confidence and fear of failing the class” and for reducing anxiety they use preparation, relaxation, positive thinking, and peer seeking techniques; participants of the study do not perceive

resignation as a coping strategy and majority of learners choose peer seeking and relaxation for handling language anxiety. The study recommends that teachers should recognize anxiety provoking factors considering gender, level and personal differences, find strategies for learners both to handle anxiety, make learners participate the lesson actively and improve their language learning (Marwan, 2007).

A technology-based solution for the reduction of speaking anxiety is proposed by Satar and Ozdener (2008), in their study the influence of two synchronous computer-mediated communication tools are examined: text and voice chat to foster speaking skills and reduce anxiety; their study reveals that text chat is more suitable for lower level whilst voice chat is better for intermediate and higher level students, in other words, text chat is more appropriate for less proficient and more anxious learners while voice chat is more appropriate for more proficient and less anxious learners.

To decrease the effect of fear of negative evaluation, alternative evaluation techniques can be used to evaluate learners' oral production, Chen (2008) offers learners' self-assessment to evaluate their oral performance in language learning, the aim of the study is teaching learners "learning to assess and assessing to learn" this assessment is conducted by observing knowledge and performance of the target language skill and oral performance in the target language in an authentic context; it is shown that self assessment to oral performance, with peer and teacher assessment, encourage learners to become autonomous, be self aware of their own learning and evaluation, and appraise and judge their performances; with combining multiple assessment types, the fear of negative evaluation may be decreased since language teacher is not the only evaluator, in addition, both the student and his/her peers take responsibility for the evaluation process.

Lack of linguistic competence may lead to anxiety as the study of Williams and Andrade (2008) state that language learners feel anxious mostly in situations in which "they do not know how to say something in English, they speak in front of others, and they are worried about pronunciation"; therefore, communication strategies can be functional for coping with anxiety as learners are concerned about speaking and interacting in the target language, these strategies can be used for providing extra time ("Could you give me a moment to think?") or asking for

repetition of the statement (“Could you repeat the question?”); therefore, learners might feel comfortable with the use of these strategies as they can retrieve the information or fix the communication breaks during a communication in the target language.

Occhipinti (2009) finds out that “role play a situation spontaneously in front of the class, make an oral presentation or skit in front of the class, role play a situation, speak in front of the class” are most anxiety provoking activities whilst “do exercises in the book, read silently in class, write a composition at home, listen to questions and write answers to the questions” are least anxiety provoking activities in the lights of the study; the study reveals that “preparedness” is significant for reducing anxiety since learners’ questionnaire results indicate that learners feel more comfortable if they practice more and prepare beforehand, in addition participant students report that they feel comfortable if “instructor does not make them feel stupid when they make a mistake”, “all students are called on equally in the activities”, “students get practice speaking”, and “teachers behave friendly and patiently and have good sense of humor”; activities that do not spotlight learners in front of the class such as pair work, small group works, and interviews are described as anxiety reducing activities, furthermore discussion about current or interesting topics and opportunity of the possibility to answer spontaneously in an activity are also reported as anxiety reducing activities.

Cutrone (2009) carries out a study to find strategies to decrease Japanese EFL learners’ speaking anxiety, the study reveals that language anxiety influences language learning negatively, “communication apprehension, social evaluation, and inter-learner competition” are some of the reasons for language anxiety and for overcoming it teachers may accept the cultural differences between learners’ culture (Japanese) and the culture of the target community (Western) and integrate classroom activities both relevant to “dynamics of the Japanese classroom, with strategies that promote a Western style of interaction”; intimate classroom atmosphere, with topics relevant to learners’ interests and education level and/or avoiding evaluative paradigms or over correction, can also be a solution for decreasing anxiety; this study displays the significance of cultural differences between language learners and the target community; therefore, lesson should be arranged to decrease the negative influence of cultural differences.

Reticence can be shown as one of the outcomes of speaking anxiety Dalkılıç (2001), Lee and Ng (2009) examine the influence of teacher interaction strategy on reticence, the findings display that teacher strategy, influenced by lesson objectives and task types, affects learners' students; the study reveals that facilitator-oriented strategy promotes participation, learner-centered atmosphere, and scaffolding and it reduces reticence; however, teachers should pay attention to curriculum planning, time constraint, and their teaching skills to utilize facilitator-oriented strategy pedagogically.

Since anxiety is one of the learner variables (Scovel, 1978), Cohen (2010) highlights the significance of learning styles, strategies and motivation level of learners as they influence language learning and production, for instance applying suitable methods or techniques for students can enhance their learning and increase their motivation level, in addition with the aid of "effective and well-personalized communication strategies" learners self-esteem and satisfaction about their language proficiency can be fostered, teachers can also check the use of strategies by learners regularly to sustain high level of motivation.

In addition to learner strategies (Williams and Andrade, 2008), lesson planning (Dörnyei 2009; MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012), classroom environment are also essential for decreasing anxiety, Azher et al. (2010) recommend a welcoming, supportive, and motivating language classroom atmosphere; mistakes should be perceived as natural and normal during the learning process; therefore, learners should feel comfortable about making mistakes; instructors and course designers should be responsive to anxiety provoking factors to handle them and provide suitable activities to reduce its debilitating influences; instructors' statements ought to be comprehensible and in L1 when required; in brief, language instructors have numerous responsibilities to overcome or minimize learners' anxiety.

Since one of the strategies to decrease anxiety is avoidance (MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012), Trang, Moni, and Baldauf (2012) carry out a study to investigate the relation between foreign language anxiety and determination to continue language learning, the findings display that anxious learners' determination to study English is influenced by "awareness of the importance of English and volition"; the former indicates that the recognition of the significance of English provides

motivation for anxious learners and alters their attitudes; the latter is related to the determination of learners and their efforts to pursue studying English despite feeling anxious or having challenges. Trang et al (2012) put forward that anxious learners with low awareness of importance of English end up with abandoning EFL learning whilst anxious learners with high awareness of importance of English and strong volitional control persist in EFL learning; as a result, enlightening learners about the value of learning English may be functional for encouraging learners to study English, set achievable aims for language learning, and sustaining their motivation in long term.

Tabataba'ian (2012) points that emotional intelligence is significant for language learning and teaching since its development may reduce learners' anxiety in language courses and enhance their willingness to communicate; therefore, these scholars suggest that instructors should make use of activities fostering emotional growth in the lessons, provide a serene and pleasant learning atmosphere and material developers may integrate some activities to improve emotional intelligence in the course books.

Since listening and speaking skills are interwoven (Richards and Renandya, 2002), the study of Atasheneh and Izadi (2012) about listening comprehension test anxiety is worthwhile since listening apprehension may impede the communication progress in foreign language, learners experiencing listening apprehension may face difficulties in speaking in the target language as listening is the pass-way to oral production; consequently, the enhancement of listening skills is essential for accurate and fluent language production; as a result, speaking lessons should be integrated with listening skills to improve both of these skills.

MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) state that language anxiety leads to avoidance and inclination to silence or escape situations where learners have comprehension problems due to not understanding the statements in the target language. Fredrickson (2004) offers "the broaden and build theory of positive emotion" with the aim of changing negative emotions with the positive ones, MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) explain the significant influences of this theory: positive emotions aid enhancing people's attention and thoughts, being open to new learning experiences, fostering creative solutions to tense situations, promoting

contentment and eagerness during stressful circumstances, developing social connections, creative thoughts and self-protection, and it is also beneficial for the physical and mental health of the individuals (Fredrickson, 2001). MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) assert that teachers may utilize conditions for triggering reactions or adjust the emotional schema by moderating cognition, in addition instructors can use “the positive-broadening power of imagination” to decrease anxiety and other negative feelings, and promote enjoyment, attention, and happiness; a “systemic desensitization” with utilizing imagination to adjust emotional schema by cognition is suggested, this process has three successive steps: construction of a hierarchy chart, relaxation training, and desensitization sessions. In the first step, learners write down list of language activities from feeling comfortable to feeling most anxious to construct an anxiety hierarchy; in the second step, some relaxation techniques are presented to decrease negative physiological reactions (high heart rate and blood pressure), improve concentration, increase confidence, and improve social interactions and communications: “autogenic” technique is lessening heart rate and muscle tension with activating learners’ visual imagery and body awareness, “progressive muscle relaxation” technique is teaching learners to concentrate on each muscle group separately and relax them one by one, “visualization” technique is giving learners the opportunity for mental imagery with teacher’s guidance to imagine a relaxing place with the five senses; the third and the last stage is “the desensitization sessions” in which learners are intended to imagine an anxiety provoking learning situation to overcome it with relaxation techniques, this stage is completed when learners feel comfortable about an activity that increase anxiety previously.

Zhiping and Paramasivam (2013) conducted a case study with 8 international postgraduate students of a Malaysian university aged between 30-34 via interviews and observations to examine anxiety of speaking English in class, the results indicate that the reasons for anxiety are “fear of being in public and shyness, fear of negative evaluation, and fear of speaking inaccurately” and their strategies to cope with it are “keeping silent, avoiding eye contact, being with friends, expressive reactions” while the strategies utilized by teachers are “not calling students’ name, making jokes and stories, appreciating students’ answers, and showing positive gestures”.

Dinçer and Yeşilyurt (2013) put forward that pre-service ELT teachers feel incompetent about oral communication abilities regardless of their numerous motivational orientations and their agreed opinion about the importance of speaking ability in foreign language learning and teaching; the study reveals that participants (8 ELT pre-service teachers in a Turkish state university) give different reactions to speaking activities as regards to their motivational orientations, for instance intrinsic or extrinsic motivated students pay attention to speaking activities as they desire to enhance their oral skills whilst unmotivated or amotivated students are not aware of the significance of speaking skills; therefore, they do not value speaking activities and feel insufficient about their oral competence. The study suggests the classroom applications of the communicative approach and activities for speaking skills to all educational levels, moreover, teachers should decrease their speaking time and foster students' speaking time, provide speaking and listening evaluations instead of paper-based examinations, be aware of their students' affective parts such as their anxiety and motivation levels and prepare lesson plans or activity in the light of these affective sides, interests, and needs, and finally encourage "autonomy-supportive environment and an anxiety-free classroom climate" for developing speaking proficiency (Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013). In a similar study, Tüm and Kunt (2013) carry out a study with EFL student teachers to figure out the adverse influences of speaking anxiety on language performance and present some recommendations in the light of the interview and questionnaire results: A lesson plan including "recognition in individual and institutional levels and response in anxiety suitably" is recommended to acknowledge EFL student teachers' emotional state especially in the final year and the beginning of their career, teachers should support and guide future EFL teachers; furthermore, learners ought to aim achievable goals, be content with their current proficiency level, get help from teachers to organize a continuing plan for target language improvement during and after teacher training program; "the institutions, teacher education programs, and education administrators" can also play a crucial role for fostering confidence, collaboration, and enthusiasm and diminishing judgment, rivalry, and anxiety.

Supportively, the studies of Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza (2014), Lightbown and Spada (2013), Occhipinti (2009), and Young (1990) highlight

conversations, interactions, pair and small group works between learners to facilitate foreign language learning with the aim of providing a relaxed classroom.

Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014) conducted a study to examine Turkish EFL learners' speaking anxiety at university level, in-depth data is collected by interviews after the questionnaire; the findings indicate that participants experience speaking anxiety due to multiple reasons scholars categorize them under three titles as “the fear of making mistakes, the perfectionist attitude, and peer effect: reactions of other students”. In the light of these sources, some recommendations are presented to readers: instructors should provide learners sufficient time for preparation before answering the question, acknowledge their learners' personal and educational experiences to take precautions for apprehension, enlighten them that mistakes are natural in foreign language speaking and learning stages, and decrease the damaging effects of evaluation and assessment to facilitate a better and calm class environment.

Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza (2014) recommend four suggestions to cope with speaking anxiety, the first one is “avoid restraining forces and promote action oriented ones” meaning that language instructors should pay attention to the restraining impulses that detrimentally effect learning and promote forward-driving impulses to foster positive feelings towards language learning (MacIntyre, 2012), in their study (2014) learners are reported to feel anxious about forgetting a specific word for their presentation and it is suggested that teachers should provide opportunities for learners to produce unrehearsed speaking instead of memorizing; the second one is “facilitate the reinterpretation of physiological cues”, for achieving this racing heart can be interpreted as eagerness to speak rather than an anxiety-provoking factor, the perspective to the circumstances alter the reactions, for instance speaking with a native speaker can be seen as a chance to enhance the target language proficiency rather than an unpleasant and risky experience (Gregersen et al., 2014). In addition, to forecast learners' emotional responses to particular situations, teachers may concentrate on their appraisal dimensions (novelty, pleasantness, the significance of goals/needs, coping potential, and self/social image) as suggested by Schumann (1997). The third one is “assist learners in coping with anxiety enough to plan an immediate escape route”, this recommendation can be provided by providing learners sufficient time to become relaxed, overcome their hesitations, and reform their inadequacy or anxiety (Gregersen et al., 2014);

moreover, Cohen (2009) suggests facial expressions, mime and gestures, compensatory escape routes, code switching, and translation for handling obstacles during speaking. The fourth and the last one is “invoke the positive power of preparation, planning, and rehearsal”, preparation, planning, and rehearsal are three significant features for decreasing anxiety since learners might feel anxious in oral presentations and other activities due to lacking these actions (Gregersen et al., 2014), in addition they offer some activities such as journal writing, studied role plays, small group works, think/pair/share conversations, and repetitions for a comfortable and relaxing classroom setting.

Yunus and Singh (2014) examine the use of indirect strategies in ESL speaking skills, thoroughly, indirect strategies involve the meta-cognitive, affective and social strategies and they aid preparation, assessment, managing anxiety, boosting collaboration and understanding, concentrating and seeking opportunities during the language learning process (Huang, 2006, cited in Yunus and Singh, 2014). The meta-cognitive strategies are thinking about thinking or comprehension about language learning process and procedure, and the organizing, practicing, and evaluating part of the learning are related to meta-cognitive strategies (Sa’diah and Saemah, 2010, cited in Yunus and Singh, 2014); the affective strategies support the management of manners, feelings, motivations and anxiety of learners, positive self talk or rewarding oneself can be examples for affective strategies; the social strategies are deciding the appropriate way for interacting with native speakers and other speakers of the target language and language learners may utilize social strategies via authentic materials; the meta-cognitive strategies used by the participants in the current study are “centering, arrange& plan, and evaluate”, the affective strategies are “lower anxiety, self-encourage, and control emotions”, and the social strategies are “ask questions, cooperate, and empathize”; some reasons for using meta-cognitive strategies are “passing exams or getting good marks, improving language proficiency, aiming to avoid mistakes, acknowledge their level”, some reasons for using affective strategies are “getting help or support, improvement, and getting high marks”, and some reasons for using social strategies are “improvement, passing the exam, getting good marks, and getting help”.

Martirossian and Hartoonian (2015) offer self-regulated learning strategies to cope with foreign language anxiety, their study reveals that there is a negative

correlation between foreign language anxiety (communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation) and self-regulated learning strategies meaning that self-autonomy is helpful for reducing anxiety.

Çağatay (2015) reports that project works can be utilized for making anxious learners relaxed since these activities allow learners to prepare beforehand and experience real-life situations, in addition teachers might scaffold learners' communicative competence and pragmatic knowledge to enhance their abilities to speak with native speakers with a supportive learning environment, it is also suggested that opportunities should be given to learners to speak with both native and non-native English speakers to improve their oral competence, get acquainted with authentic conversations, and reduce anxiety.

Alrabai (2015) conducted a quasi-experimental research to define the influence of anxiety-reducing strategies utilized by EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia on language learners' anxiety. First, Foreign Language Class Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) is fulfilled by language learners to identify the anxiety level of learners; second, nearly five hundred learners are divided into two groups as experimental and control group; third, twelve EFL teachers undergo a two-week intensive training about anxiety-reducing strategies. After pre-treatment training, teachers give lessons for eight weeks by employing these strategies: "Demonstrate proper teaching behavior to your students, reduce learner communication apprehension, reduce the fear of negative evaluation in learners, reduce the fear of language testing in learners, properly address learner anxiety-provoking beliefs and misconceptions, help students establish specific and realistic goals for learning English, increase students' self-confidence." Throughout these lessons, learners are observed to determine if anxiety-reducing strategies utilized by teacher are useful or not and the observations indicate that strategies are beneficial for learners since the supportive attitudes of teachers decrease learners' anxiety level; therefore, the significance of teacher attitudes on learner anxiety from the evidences of the current study is maintained.

Han, Tanrıöver, and Şahan (2016) report that students use self-talks in front of the mirror, taking parts in-class activities, listening to other students during their speaking, revising lexical items, making plain statements, feeling contentedly to amend to the class atmosphere psychologically to handle anxiety, moreover, it is

stated that teachers' friendly and helpful attitudes, providing illustrations, and supplying understandable explanations also decrease the anxiety level of learners.

Widyaningrum (2016) defines "Pecha Kucha" as "a distinct, challenging, interesting, and concising presentation technique" since this technique aims to prevent boredom of audiences and it also prohibits reading or repeating every sentence on the screen by speakers or teachers. PK is the presentation of 20 slides, each of them can be shown for 20 minutes, as a result, the presentation goes on for 6 minutes and 40 seconds, more short-winded compared to traditional power point presentations (Coskun, 2017). As a highly visualized version of presentation, PK is utilized by educators (Foyle and Childress, 2015), it is useful for learners as they practice presenting a topic in a limited time, choosing images or visuals for each slide, and be aware of the inflexible nature of it (Christianson and Payne, 2011). With proper preparation and supporter materials, PK is feasible for speaking and presenting beyond the information illustrated on the screen, it also enhances students' public speaking skills which is essential for teachers (Widyaningrum, 2016); in his study, two groups are initiated: experimental group conducted "Pecha Kucha" presentation technique and control group conducted "Power Point" presentation techniques, the questionnaire results indicate that PK is perceived as challenging, time-consuming, and difficult method, moreover, the observation reveals that PK necessitates memorization and mastering the material, apparent and concise explanation of each slide with appropriate images; PK promotes active participation of students (the audience) and speakers (presenters), catches the attention of the audience, fosters learners' creativity and better comprehension of the presented topic (Widyaningrum, 2016). Similarly, Baskara (2015) reports the benefits of Pecha Kucha presentation format on improving learners' autonomy since it compels learners to take responsibility, act spontaneously, think immediately, present the topic, and use language actively. Murugaiah (2016) reports the effect of using PK presentation format to develop oral presentation skills in second language learning in Malaysian setting with different proficiency level university students, with interviews and researcher's observations the enhancement of oral presentation skills and the difficulties experienced by participants during applying it; the interviews reveal that PK presentation format is effective and creative, provides critical thinking and dealing with the topic better, fosters teamwork, collaboration,

and constructive discussion within group members (as participants prepared PK presentation as groups), moreover, it increases self-confidence and promote language learning with diverse proficiency levels (low and high proficient learners integrated in the same group); however, some challenges are also reported in interviews: learners face problems while preparing a PK presentation due to low or intermediate English proficiency level, not having a text and time constraint; the researcher observes that learners' performances are remarkable as the presentations are impressive, attractive, and expressive with suitable "images, photographs, pictorial chart, and caricatures", learners are able to present key points, explain the topic rather than reading it, and respond to their peers' questions spontaneously without checking their texts; therefore, in the light of the study, PK presentation format is effective for developing oral presentation skills of second language learners as it advances students' presentation performance and collaboration, they practice harder due to time constraint and word limitation on each slide. Furthermore, Coskun (2017) applies "Pecha Kucha" (PK) presentation technique to lessen learners' English public speaking anxiety in his study. The study involves "Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety Questionnaire" (Plangkham and Porkaew, 2012, cited in Coskun, 2017) as pre-test and post-test before and after the preparation and performance a PK presentation, the findings display that EFL learners' pre and post test results differ significantly since the PK experience reduces their public speaking anxiety, provides real performance, and obliges learners to practice and rehearses the presentation with a timer as this technique has time limitation (6 minutes and 40 seconds) Coskun (2017). Similarly, Zharkynbekova, Zhussupova, and Suleimenova (2017) carry out a study about the implementation of Pecha Kucha presentation format as a learning tool at University level to improve EFL learners' public speaking skills; the format aims to consider the most significant points of the topic, choose the most favorable images and ways to present the idea verbally and nonverbally; the pre and post test results show that experimental group (PK presentation users) perform better in "fluency, coherence, lexical grammatical fluency, pronunciation, and body language" in comparison with the control group, furthermore, PK presentation enhances speaking and communication skills as well as comprehension skills for the construction of new information.

Demir and Ozmen (2018) conducted a study to investigate the effect of online course on oral corrective feedback (ONOCF), designed for the current study, on ELT pre-service teachers' oral corrective feedback competences. The online course is implemented to 30 participants, these participants conducted the input in their microteachings, their peers observe them and provide feedback about their oral corrective feedback competences, and the results show that that ONOCF has a facilitative effect on oral corrective feedback (OCF); the study also reveals that ELT students utilize diverse OCF techniques successfully, their non-performing peers locate and identify performing-students' strong and weak points on OCF, and non-performing peers' evaluation provide another point of view for performing students.

Aydın (2018) reviews the studies about technology and foreign language anxiety to provide feasible recommendations for language learners, teachers and researchers; the findings of the studies indicate that technology use in foreign language learning decrease anxiety for instance computer-mediated communication sessions reduce the level of communication apprehension of learners, in detail voice boards are beneficial for language learners and the anxiety level is low throughout aural and oral activities such as oral interviews, speaking tasks, and activities requiring listening skills, in addition virtual learning environment and e-class applications are perceived as less anxiety-provoking according to foreign language learners.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Overview of the Chapter

This chapter includes the research design of the study, data collection, instruments and procedures, participants and analysis of the study thoroughly. Research is defined as “any principled inquiry” by Freeman (1998), Brown (2004) develops this brief definition and describe research as “any systematic and principled inquiry in second language studies”, the term principled means a research should have its own rules and the term systematic means it should be well-organized, disciplined and exact (Brown, 2004). Brown (2011) divides research into two categories: primary research and secondary research. Primary research involves qualitative research, survey research, and quantitative research; survey research is positioned in the middle of qualitative and quantitative research deliberately since it utilizes both of these research methods and techniques.

Table 2: Primary Research Types (Brown, 2011)

Qualitative Research	Survey Research	Quantitative Research
Case studies Introspection Discourse analysis Interactional analysis Classroom observations	Questionnaires Interviews	Descriptive Exploratory Quasi-experimental Experimental

In addition to these research types, *the mixed method research* is also accepted as the combination of qualitative and quantitative research. Johnson, Onwuegbuize, and Turner (2007) defines it as “an intellectual and practical synthesis based on qualitative and quantitative research; it is the third methodological or

research paradigm (along with qualitative and quantitative research)". It recognizes the importance of traditional quantitative and qualitative research but also offers a powerful third paradigm choice that often will provide the most informative, complete, balanced, and useful research results". Given that this study uses both quantitative and qualitative research methods it can be defined as a "mixed research" which is the integration of quantitative and qualitative research techniques, approaches, or other pattern features determined by the research questions and the situational and feasible issues handled by a researcher (Johnson and Christensen, 2008).

3.2. The Research Design

The study aimed to find out the foreign language speaking anxiety level of pre-service ELT teachers, their reasons for speaking anxiety, their strategies to cope with it, and instructors' role in handling learners' speaking anxiety. For that purpose, two different ways of data collection were used. Firstly, the Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Questionnaire (FLSAQ) was applied to the participants to determine their speaking anxiety level; moreover, it reveals the relationship between anxiety and different components including gender, class, and language education. Secondly, they fulfilled four open-ended questions about their reasons of anxiety, strategies to cope with it, and their instructors' role in handling it for a more comprehensive data collection. The learner responses were classified into groups and the percentage of the most common groups are illustrated via charts and tables.

On the other hand, action research was carried out with 8 freshman ELT students to examine the effect of anxiety coping strategies on decreasing the speaking anxiety level of learners. To perform this aim, a 4 week speaking club was applied to the learners. FLSAQ was used as a pretest and posttest for quantitative data and the results of the questionnaire revealed the differences in learners' speaking anxiety levels. The qualitative data was collected via learner diaries, teacher and peer observations, and interviews. An overall report for each week of the speaking club was also presented in the study for a detailed analysis. Moreover, Campbell and Fiske (1959) claim that for the validity of the process more than one method should be used; hence, they suggest "multiple operationism" as triangulation

in social sciences. Triangulation is defined as "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon" by Denzin (1978), he classifies two triangulation groups as within-method" triangulation and "between-method" triangulation. The former is applied for cross-checking for internal consistency or reliability while the latter is applied for the degree of external validity of the tests (Jick, 1979). Triangulation was also used in the study for internal consistency of teacher observations, peer observations, and interviews and for the integration of quantitative and qualitative methodologies.

3.2.1. Action research

Since action research focuses on "practice, participation/collaboration, reflection, interpretation, and, often, emancipation, puts it squarely in opposition to positivist social research" (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995), it is generally classified as a qualitative research (Burns, 2011). As one of the qualitative research methods, educational action research is carried out when researchers (teacher practitioners, students, administrators, teacher educators and academic researchers may all potentially participate) observe a difference between "the actual" and "the ideal" and do a research to examine the classroom environment (Burns, 2011); throughout this process, strategic action, systematic data collection and analysis of data are involved purposefully in the action research to create a significant change; as a result, the comprehension, explanation and theorization of the intended classroom environment will be established.

Stringer (1999) suggests three main reasons for action research:

1. To investigate systematically their problems and issues,
2. To formulate powerful and sophisticated accounts of their situations,
3. To devise plans to deal with the problems at hand.

Stringer (1999) defines action research as a collaborative and user-friendly research method which uses systematic action to solve particular problems considering participants' background, culture, interactional habits, and feelings. Furthermore, Kemmis and McTaggart (2005) proposes the "Plan, Act, Observe, Reflect Model" and it involves "the organization of a change, acting and observing the process and the results of the change, reflecting on these process and results, replanning,

acting and observing again, reflecting again and so on...". This model demonstrates the essentials of the educational action research.

3.3. Data Collection

The study involves two sections: the first section aims to explore the reasons and strategies of coping with speaking anxiety utilized by the selected participants of action research; the second section aims to figure out the speaking anxiety level of the students in ELT Department at Balıkesir University, their reasons and solutions of speaking anxiety. Both qualitative and quantitative research were used in the study; for qualitative data learner diary, teacher diary (observation), peer observation, self-assessment, peer-assessment, and interviews were used through the four-week speaking club, moreover, a semi-structured open-ended interview questions handout is fulfilled by the students in ELT department for a deeper understanding. For quantitative data, the foreign language anxiety scale by Horwitz et al. (1986) (selected 18 questions out of 33 questions directly related to speaking anxiety) was used.

3.4. Instruments and Procedures

3.4.1. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (1986), was designed by Horwitz et. al (1986) to capture foreign language anxiety as a specific type, Horwitz et al. included also communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation to the scale since they believed that these components adversely affect foreign language learning (Aida,1994). This scale has a correlation coefficient of .28 ($p = .063$, $n=44$), .53 ($p < .01$, $n= 60$), .31 ($p < .01$, $n= 56$) with McCroskey's Personal report of communication apprehension scale , Sarason's test anxiety scale , and Watson and Friend's fear of negative evaluation scale successively. It also correlates negatively with final grades of learners ($r = -.22$, $p < .05$), final exam scores ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$), and oral exam scores ($r = -.27$, $p < .05$) (Aida, 1994): Selected 18 questions which are directly related to speaking anxiety out of 33 questions in the questionnaire was used as the pretest and posttest in the study.

3.4.2. The Informal Assessment Techniques: To eliminate the debilitating effect of test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, learners are not evaluated formally. Instead of formal evaluation, informal evaluation techniques are utilized in the study. These techniques are learner diary, self-assessment, peer-assessment, and they are used to gather information about the four-week speaking club. Bailey (1990) defines learner diary as "a first person account of a language learning or teaching experience, documented through regular candid entries in a personal journal and then analyzed for recurrent patterns and salient events". Learner diaries are vital for gathering data about learners' insight, internal processes of learning, attitudes toward classroom learning and teaching, the use of strategies, with learner diaries, learners can express their thoughts, perceptions and feelings about learning process and the data obtained from them are valuable since this data cannot be obtained by researchers' observations (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

3.4.3. Interview: Interview is defined as "the elicitation of data by one person from another through person-to-person encounters" (Nunan, 1992), similarly Kvale (1994) defines interview as "a conversation that has a structure and purpose". On the other hand, Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) propose two methods for analyzing interview data: "becoming very familiar with the data and creating meaning using analytical categories." In order to become familiar with the data the transcriptions are read multiple times to comprehend the data better; creating categories is essential for analysis of interviews and categories can be created by becoming familiar with the data or they can be created before the interview (Griffie, 2012). Each question should have a hypothesis behind (Wolcott, 1995); therefore, in the study the categories are created before the interview as "the reasons of speaking anxiety, strategies used by learners, strategies used by instructors". In order not to increase learners' speaking anxiety level, the learners in the speaking club are given a handout with semi-structured open-ended questions. Some focal points (instructor's attitudes to decrease learners' anxiety: error correction, activities, and instructor manners) are presented to the learners which are obtained from the study of Young (1990). In addition to answering these focal points as agree or disagree, learners are asked about their own ideas about instructor's role, activity choice, and manners in decreasing

their speaking anxiety. Lastly, learners are asked an open-ended question about their strategies to cope with anxiety and their reasons of speaking anxiety. For the students in the ELT department, four open-ended questions, searching the reasons and solutions of speaking anxiety, instructors' role in decreasing learners' speaking anxiety) are added to the below of the speaking anxiety questionnaire.

3.4.4. Observations: Observations are carried out to gather descriptive data about learners' behaviors and activities; for a less structured observations, researchers' field notes can be used for collecting comprehensive descriptive data; in addition, observations are valuable for gathering large amounts of data about learners' actions and manner during a classroom setting or environment (Mackey and Gass, 2005). The advantages of observations: It can provide a perspective to the readers that they also participate to the observed lesson and other types of data collection are not capable of providing such a view (Patton, 1990), it can display the processes in the classroom (what is going on in the class) (Giraffee, 2012) and students might feel secure since they are observed by their own teacher and they are not aware of that (Fradd, 1994). To perceive learners' behaviors, attitudes, and anxiety coping strategies, both teacher observation and peer observation are used in the study. Two types of observation techniques are used in the study: in-class observation notes which are made by an out comer observer during the class (as peer observation), and teacher diary that involves instructor's observations about the class (Bartlett, 1990) after the lesson and it is valuable for descriptive data since it is the written version of what happened in the class (Griffee, 2012).

3.5. Participants

Since the aim of the study is to figure out the causes and effects of anxiety on non-native pre-service ELT teachers, subjects are the students in ELT department in Necatibey Education Faculty, Balikesir University. To gather quantitative data, the FLCAS questionnaire (1986) is conducted to the first, second, third, and fourth grade students in the department.

To explore the speaking anxiety concept in-depth, eight students are chosen for the Speaking Club in accordance with their speaking anxiety level with the use of FLSAQ. At first fifteen students out of forty six freshman students in English Language Teaching Department in Necatibey Education Faculty are chosen for the action research; however, some of the learners explain their excuses and do not participate to the Speaking Club.

3.6. The Analysis of the Study

This section involves two parts as the analysis of quantitative data and the analysis of qualitative data. The first chapter involves the exploration of the speaking anxiety level of students in ELT department at Balikesir University and participants in the action research, the relation between their speaking anxiety level and their age and grade. Whilst the second chapter involves the examination of qualitative data instruments (learner diary, teacher diary (observation), peer observation, self assessment, peer assessment, and interviews) to figure out the reasons and solutions of speaking anxiety of the participants in the action research in addition to their thoughts and feelings about speaking in a foreign language.

3.6.1. The Analysis of Quantitative Data

In this study, for the first part of the study, a modified version of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al (1986) was used to gather data. The questionnaire is a 5 likert scale and consists of 33 questions about foreign language classroom anxiety provoking factors; nonetheless, the modified version, foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire (FLSAQ) adapted by Saltan (2003), consists of 18 questions that are directly related to speaking anxiety. The adapted version is used by Saltan (2003), Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014), and Bozok (2018) since this version was found to be precisely related to foreign speaking anxiety by Saltan (2003), it is used in this study. The reliability value of adapted version of foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire is found as “.92” in the study of Bozok (2018). Since the proficiency level of students in ELT department were assumed sufficient to complete the questionnaire in English, the original

version of the questionnaire was conducted. Furthermore, the questionnaire was used to gather data about students' gender and class. For the second part of the study, the researcher conducted a 4-week Speaking Club with the eight most anxious students in freshman, FLSAQ was used again as a pretest and posttest in the study. Students complete the questionnaire voluntarily and informed about the confidentiality about their responses and academic purposes of the study. The data collected via questionnaire was analyzed statistically by means of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. Descriptive statistics were used to reveal mean scores of the items in the questionnaire. Independent samples t-test was also carried out to find out the relationship between speaking anxiety and gender; one way ANOVA was conducted to reveal the relationship between speaking anxiety and grade.

3.6.1.2. Analysis of the RQ 1: What is the foreign language speaking anxiety level of pre-service ELT teachers at Balikesir University?

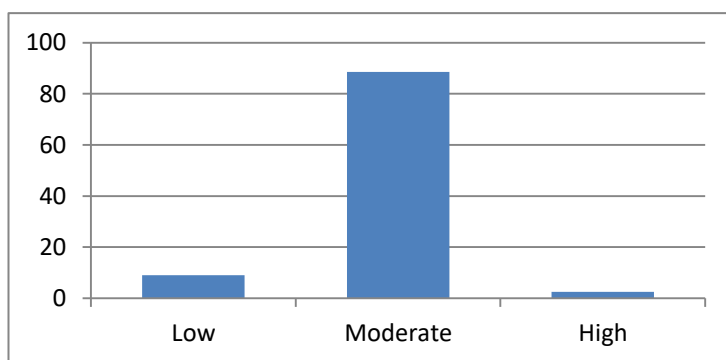
In this section, the findings of the first research question is illustrated with the results of FLSAQ, the mean values of participants' responses are displayed in the table. The table reveals that students in the study (pre-service ELT teachers at Balikesir University) have a moderate level of speaking anxiety according to FLSAQ. Moreover, the mean values of female students (M= 3.10) are higher than male students (M=2.90); therefore it can be said that female students experience a higher level of speaking anxiety than male students.

Table 3: The Mean Values of FLSAQ

Gender	Mean	N	SD
Male	2,90	43	1,30
Female	3,10	79	1,27
Total	3,03	122	1,28

The FLSAQ is a 5 point likert scale. 1 stands for strongly disagree, 2 for disagree, 3 for not sure, 4 for agree and 5 for strongly agree. By the application of the formula (Aydın, 2001; Saltan, 2003), the mean scores lower than 1.75 represents the low levels of foreign language speaking anxiety, the mean scores between 1.75 and

4.31 represents the medium levels of foreign language speaking anxiety, and the mean scores higher than 4.31 represents the high levels of foreign language speaking anxiety. The results show that 9% of the students have low level of foreign language speaking anxiety, 88.5% of the students have moderate level of foreign language speaking anxiety, and 2.5% of the students have high level of foreign language speaking anxiety. As the chart illustrates, the majority of the participants have a moderate level of foreign language speaking anxiety. It might be said that a great amount of the students (88%) experience speaking anxiety in a moderate level.



N= 122 M= 3.03 SD= 1.28

Figure 6: The Percentages of Three Speaking Anxiety Groups

For a more thorough explanation, the mean scores for each item can be seen in the table below (Table 4). The table indicates that item 5, 18, and 11 have the highest means score in the questionnaire. The highest mean score is in item 5 “I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English classes.” (M= 3.22, SD= 1.21). This item points to the significance of preparedness in speaking a foreign language since learners feel anxious when they have to speak without preparation. The second highest mean score is seen in item 18 “I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven’t prepared in advance.” (M= 3.11, SD= 1.11). This time is also indicates the vitality of preparation for the participants since answering question without preparation makes learners nervous and concerned. The third highest mean score is seen in item 11 “I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes.” (M= 3.03, SD= 1.28). This item shows that students do not feel comfortable about speaking in the class spontaneously;

moreover, this item is also related to preparation since teachers expect immediate answers from the learners when they call their names.

Table 4 also indicates that item 17, 15, and 10 have the lowest means score in the questionnaire. The lowest mean score is in item 17 “I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak English.” (M= 2.21, SD=1.17). This item shows that students care about other people’s opinions while speaking in English or they may feel uncomfortable in their classrooms with their peers. The second lowest mean score is in item 15 “I get nervous when I don’t understand every word my English teacher says.” This item may be related to learners’ linguistic and grammatical knowledge, since learners are not able to completely comprehend what their teachers say they might experience anxiety problems about comprehension. The third lowest mean score is in “I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.” This item can display that learners feel threatened about their instructors’ corrections; the reason can be instructors’ overreacting to mistakes or the way of error correction harshly.

Table 4: The Mean Scores of FLSAQ

Items in FLSAQ	Mean	SD
17. I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	2.21	1.17
15. I get nervous when I don't understand every word my English teacher says	2.27	1.01
10. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make	2.28	1.07
7. I feel nervous while speaking English with native speakers.	2.43	1.12
16. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	2.47	1.06
4. I get frightened when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	2.47	1.17
9. I don't feel confident when I speak English in classes.	2.52	1.12
3. I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in English classes.	2.57	1.10
12. I always feel that other students speak English better than I do.	2.61	1.18
1. I am never quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English.	2.61	1.03
14. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English classes.	2.61	1.18
6. I get embarrassed to volunteer answers in English classes.	2.63	1.17
8. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	2.63	1.19
13. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	2.97	.99
2. I am afraid of making mistakes in English classes.	3.00	1.16
11. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes	3.03	1.28
18. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	3.11	1.11
5. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English classes	3.22	1.21

1.a. Is there a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and gender?

Table 5: Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety according to Genders

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. dev.	t value	df	p (sig. (2-tailed))
Foreign language speaking anxiety	Male	43	2.26	.612	4.93	120	.000*
	Female	79	2.87	.667			

N: Number of students *p<0.01

The results presented in Table 5 illustrates that there is a statistically significant difference (p=.000) between genders in terms of foreign language speaking anxiety. Furthermore, the mean scores display that female students experience a higher level of speaking anxiety than male students. The findings support some studies in the field (Bozok, 2018; Öztürk, 2012). The study of Bozok (2018) reveals a statistically significant difference between males and females in terms of foreign language speaking anxiety since female students have a higher score (M= 2.76, SD= 0.745) than male students (M= 2.11, SD= 0.703); therefore, it can be said that female students experience anxiety more than their male peers. Another supportive study is conducted by Öztürk (2012), the findings reveal that female students (M=54.4) experience a higher level of speaking anxiety than male students (M= 47.15).

Table 6: The Differences in Mean Scores of Items According to Gender

	Gender	N	Mean	SD
1.I am never quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English.	M	43	2.06	.985
	F	79	2.91	.936
2. I am afraid of making mistakes in English classes.	M	43	2.46	1.12
	F	79	3.30	1.09
3. I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in English classes.	M	43	2.22	1.14
	F	79	2.77	1.03
4. I get frightened when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	M	43	1.88	.905
	F	79	2.79	1.19
5. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English classes.	M	43	2.72	1.18
	F	79	3.49	1.15
6. I get embarrassed to volunteer answers in English classes.	M	43	2.11	1.17
	F	79	2.91	1.07
7. I feel nervous while speaking English with native speakers.	M	43	1.88	1.07
	F	79	2.73	1.19

8. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	M	43	2.57	1.27
	F	79	2.66	1.15
9. I don't feel confident when I speak English in classes.	M	43	1.93	.883
	F	79	2.84	1.12
10. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	M	43	2.09	1.04
	F	79	2.39	1.07
11. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes.	M	43	2.90	1.30
	F	79	3.10	1.27
12. I always feel that other students speak English better than I do.	M	43	2.06	.954
	F	79	2.92	1.19
13. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	M	43	3.04	1.09
	F	79	2.93	.951
14. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English classes.	M	43	2.32	.940
	F	79	3.00	.981
	M	43	1.81	.663
15. I get nervous when I don't understand every word my English teacher says.	F	79	2.51	1.08
16. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	M	43	2.09	1.04
	F	79	2.68	1.02
17. I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	M	43	1.79	1.10
	F	79	2.44	1.15
18. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	M	43	2.81	1.11
	F	79	3.27	1.08

Table 6 (Continued)

Thoroughly, the item 13, "*I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students*", has the highest score for male students ($M= 3.04$, $SD= 1.09$) whilst item 5, "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English classes.", has the highest score for female students ($M= 3.49$, $SD= 1.15$). As a result, the findings indicate that male students worry about the presence of their classmates while speaking English and being in front of other students makes them anxious according to questionnaire results. Furthermore, the results display that female students worry about unpreparedness while speaking English; therefore, speaking simultaneously and spontaneously might cause anxiety for them according to questionnaire results. In addition, male students have a higher score ($M=3.04$) in item 13, "*I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students*", than female ones ($M= 2.93$) although in general female students have a higher anxiety level mean ($M= 2.87$, $SD= .667$) than male students ($M= 2.26$, $SD= .612$). The other two highest scores for both genders are item 11, "I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes." and item 18, "I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in

advance.”Item 11 shows that learners may feel threatened when teacher calls their names for a question or activity since they have to speak without preparation, similarly item 18 indicates unpreparedness as an anxiety provoking factor for foreign speaking anxiety.

1.b. Is there a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and language level?

Table 7 displays that there is not a significant difference between the speaking anxiety mean scores in terms of the language levels, as all the language levels have mean scores between 2.53 to 2.81. Sophomores (2nd year students) have the highest speaking anxiety mean (M=2.81, SD= .653) whilst Freshmen (1st year students) have the lowest speaking anxiety mean (M=2.53, SD= .849). As a result, the findings indicate that the language level of learners does not influence the speaking anxiety level of learners. Bozok (2018) also finds in her study that language level does not have a significant influence on the speaking anxiety of learners since the mean scores of 1st (M= 2.53, SD= .830) and 4th (M= 2.49, SD= .085) year students do not differ significantly in terms of speaking anxiety level.

Table 7: The Anxiety Differences between Classes

The Language Level	N	Mean	SD	p
Freshman	38	2.53	.849	
Sophomore	21	2.81	.653	.305*
Junior	31	2.79	.680	
Senior	32	2.58	.561	

*p>.05

1.c. Is there a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and language education?

The comparison of the means of freshman (2.53) and senior (2.58), can indicate that the period of education does not have an influence on speaking anxiety

since the means are quite close to each other. Although senior students have been taking English language education for four years, they have nearly the same speaking anxiety mean (M=2.58) with the freshman students (M=2.53) who have been taking English language education for only one year. Therefore, it can be said that that anxiety is not influenced by education significantly because the mean scores of freshman and senior's do not change although there is a significant difference between two groups in terms of the periods of language education. However, it must be noted that the proficiency level in the target language may not increase the confidence level of learners since expertise in English does not possibly help learner to be more confident. The findings may also indicate that learners may need a special education for coping with foreign language speaking anxiety since it is a unique type of anxiety and they have to be conscious about their anxiety to decrease the debilitating effects of it.

Table 8: The Anxiety Differences between 1st and 4th Classes

Classes	N	Mean	SD	p
Freshman	38	2.53	.849	.305*
Senior	32	2.58	.561	

*p>.05

3.6.2. The Analysis of Qualitative Data

There are three aspects to consider whilst analyzing qualitative data: “credibility, transferability, and confirmability” (Mackey and Gass, 2005). For credibility Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2011) recommends that the data collection process should be long enough to guarantee that learners get familiar with the researcher and behave naturally. Furthermore, it is suggested that the data should be gathered in diverse settings and circumstances (Fraenkel et al., 2011). For transferability, the qualitative research should be transferable to other qualitative researches with similar contexts and to verify this similarity, a "thick description" can be used for clarifying the interpretation of speakers' speech and actors' actions (Davis, 1995; Mackey and Gass, 2005).

Davis (1995) explains three crucial factors of thick description:

- Particular description: Representative examples from the data.
- General description: Information about the patterns in the data.
- Interpretive commentary: Explanation of the phenomena researched and interpretation of the meaning of the findings with respect to previous research.

With these descriptions, the researcher can be able to describe the data of the context and participants thoroughly, and readers can compare and contrast the research circumstances with their own research and transfer some findings to their research if they are suitable (Mackey and Gass, 2005). For confirmability, a detailed interpretation of the data should be presented to other researchers to explore the data and verify, adjust, or refuse the interpretations of the first researcher. In the following table the three aspects for analyzing qualitative data and its practice in the study is presented.

Table 9: Three Aspects for Analyzing Qualitative Data and its Practice

Three Aspects for Analyzing Qualitative Data (Mackey and Gass: 2005)	Practice of the Three Aspects for Analyzing Qualitative Data in the Study
Credibility	In the study students have four weeks with the researcher and each lesson takes at least fifty minutes; therefore, learners become familiar with the researcher. Diverse learning topics, language activities, and a language game are utilized in the study.
Transferability	A lesson report of each week including the procedures of the lesson plan and procedure, the researcher's observations, and peer observation is presented to the readers for a comprehensive data description are presented to the readers.
Confirmability	A comprehensive lesson report for each, the researcher's observations, peer observations, learner diaries, self-assessment and peer assessment of the participants, interviews with open-ended questions are presented to the readers.

On the other hand, Creswell and Miller (2000) suggest qualitative lens and paradigm assumptions for the validity of qualitative data, the exemplars about them utilized in the study are illustrated in the following table.

Table 10: Qualitative Lens and Paradigm Assumptions and their Practice

Validity Procedures Within Qualitative Lens and Paradigm Assumptions (Creswell and Miller: 2000)	Practice of the Validity Procedures in the Study
Triangulation (Lens of Researcher- Post positivist and Systematic Paradigm)	Use of observations and interviews
Research Reflexivity (Lens of Researcher- Critical Paradigm)	The researcher designs a lesson report for the role of the researcher as the instructor of the 4-week Speaking Club.
Prolonged Engagement in the Field (Lens of Study Participants- Constructivist Paradigm)	4-week Speaking Club.
Collaboration (Lens of Study Participants- Critical Paradigm)	The speaking club activities and topics are discussed with participants and colleagues.
Peer Debriefing (Lens of People External to the Study- Critical Paradigm)	A peer attends to each lesson of speaking club and shares her feedbacks and observations with the researcher.

In the first part of the study, for qualitative data, four open-ended questions are added to the questionnaire handouts and these questions aim to figure out the reasons of learners' speaking anxiety, their strategies to cope with speaking anxiety, and their instructors' strategies to solve their speaking problems and to enhance their speaking fluency and accuracy.

In the second part of the study, the qualitative data results are gathered from the instructor observations and reports of each week lesson, learner diary for the first lesson, self-assessment for the second lesson, peer assessment for the third lesson, and learner diary for the fourth and the last lesson and semi-structured open-ended interview questions.

3.6.2.1. Instructor Observations and Reports of Four- week Speaking Club

3.6.2.1.1. First Week Report

The lesson is planned as 5 stages: Stage 1 (warm up), Stage 2 (Personalization of the topic), Stage 3 (Presentation of the topic), Stage 4 (Practicing the topic), and Stage 5 (Production about the topic). The aim of the lesson is to provide for students to practice/speak about “Nutrition” by using English as much as they can. The lesson is designed in accordance with “Presentation-Practice-Production” technique to lower learners’ speaking anxiety. Teacher talking time is lessened step by step and students are encouraged to speak in the target language. Timing for the stages are 5 minutes, 5 minutes, 15 minutes, 15 minutes, 15 minutes consecutively.

Instructor’s Observations about the Students

Since high anxious learners were selected for the 4-week speaking club, learners adopted timid and withdrawn manners in the very first minutes of the lesson. They sat with their close friends and they generally preferred seating on the back desks. Their facial expressions and body language displayed their high anxiety level. This anxiety level decreased in some parts of the lesson when they were given time to think about the topic or the questions and when they got help from their peers. Their attention was high during the lesson which took one hour; they were also enthusiastic about the lesson.

Carrying out the Lesson

Stage 1- Warm up

As it was the first encounter with the students, instructor first introduced herself briefly about her educational background, professional life, and private life briefly to build rapport with the students. After the introduction part, learners were offered some homemade meals and the topic of the day was introduced as “Nutrition”. Having a snack before the lesson was possibly unexpected for the students but they enjoyed it.

Stage 2- Personalize the Lesson

Learners were asked two main questions:

1. What do you think about the importance of nutrition in daily life?
2. What are your eating habits?

Questions were open-ended and did not have correct or incorrect answers, students (A, I, C) answered in accordance with their opinions. Instructor aided students during their answering and never made error corrections.

Stage 3- Presentation of the Topic

Prezi was used for a brief presentation about “Nutrition”. Body Mass Index, Obesity and Anorexia Nervosa, Active Lifestyle, and Sedentary Lifestyle were the terms given in the presentation. Throughout the presentation, informative sentences used limitedly and they were supported with images. Students were asked about their ideas and emotions about the terms and made connections with their private lives. There was almost no error correction about accuracy of their statements since the aim was to decrease their speaking anxiety level and foster their encouragement to speak in the target language. For the new vocabulary, “Autophagy” and “Intermittent Fasting” were chosen. As expected, learners have not heard about these two terms before and became curious about them. Direct definitions of the new terms were not given to the learners, instead they watched two 3 minute long videos twice.

Stage 4- Practice of the Topic

For practicing the new two terms “autophagy” and “intermittent fasting”, learners were given handouts in which there were seven questions about the videos:

1. Can you explain “intermittent fasting” with ten words?
2. What is “high day/low day” in intermittent fasting program?
3. What is “protein cycling”?

4. What does 16/8 mean?
5. What is “autophagy”?
6. What are the benefits of autophagy?
7. What stimulates autophagy?

Learners watched the first video two times to answer the first four questions on the handout. Questions were given purposefully to inform learners about what is expected from them after watching the video and provide some time for preparation before answering the questions orally. They were also allowed to take some notes (student G, F) on the handout. After watching the video for two times, different learners (student I, A, E, H) answered the questions, the same question was asked more than one student to practice the answers. Again, all answers were accepted and instructor did not make any error corrections. The second video was displayed to learners to answer the last three questions, they faced some difficulties about these questions and instructor supported them to elicit the answers.

Stage 5- Production of the Topic

In this stage, students were divided into the groups of three and papers with topics were distributed to them. There were nine students in the club; therefore, three different topics were given: Solutions for obesity, Intermittent Fasting Pros& Cons, and Tips for Weight Loss in Overweight Children. Students had five minutes before speaking about their topic, they were allowed to use the internet, think silently, and share their ideas with their peers. After the preparation time, each group, according to their eagerness, came to the board and each group member spoke about the topic with two or three sentences. Some students (D, E, I) were highly confident about being in front of the class, some of them (student F, H) read the sentences from the paper, and only one of them (student G) was not able to make any sentences about the topic. Instructor aided that student by providing some clues about the topic and displayed a friendly attitude to comfort the learner. After the production part, a worksheet was distributed to learners to be filled at home. In addition, learners were asked to write their opinions and feelings about the lesson on the blank page of the worksheet.

Best parts of the lesson

✓ Abolishing the fear of negative evaluation. (Students were informed about “There is no evaluation” rule)
✓ Instructor’s supportive, tolerant, cooperative and friendly attitudes towards the students.
✓ Almost no error correction.
✓ Choosing a familiar topic with two new terms.
✓ Integrated learning (speaking and listening)
✓ Providing time for preparation before speaking.

Improvable parts of the lesson

✓ A more interesting topic might be chosen.
✓ Balancing the speaking frequency of dominant (student D, E, I) and shy students (student F, G, H)
✓ Providing more clear instructions before distributing the handout.
✓ English only zone. (Instructor should not speak in L1 before the lesson since learners feel concerned when spoken language turned to English.)

Strategies used by the Instructor

- ✓ Learner-centered Classroom (Horwitz, 1988; Lee and Ng, 2009; Young, 1991)
- ✓ Positive Reinforcement, Achievable Expectations for learners (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Price, 1991; Zhiping and Paramasivam, 2013)
- ✓ Not overstating mistakes (Burden, 2004; Cutrone, 2009; Dörnyei, 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1990)
- ✓ Friendly, Patient, and Relaxed Manners (Alrabai, 2015; Dalkılıç, 2001; Han, Tanrıöver, and Şahan, 2016; Occhipinti, 2009; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Tüm and Kunt, 2013; Young, 1986, 1990)
- ✓ Being receptive to the instructional level and affective states of learners (Saito and Samimy, 1996)

- ✓ Collaborative classroom atmosphere (Kitano, 2001)
- ✓ Presentations (Dalkılıç, 2001)
- ✓ Interesting topics (Cutrone, 2009)
- ✓ Welcoming, supportive, and motivating language classroom atmosphere (Azher, Anwar and Naz, 2010; Çağatay, 2015; Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013; MacIntyre, 2012; Tabataba'ian, 2012; Tüm and Kunt, 2013)
- ✓ Visual imagery (MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012).
- ✓ Think-Pair-Share (Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza, 2014)

Table 11: Strategies used by the Learners and Exemplar from the Lesson

Strategies used by the Learners	Exemplars from the Lesson
✓ Preparation (Cohen, 2009; Gregersen et al., 2014; Occhipinti, 2009; Yunus and Singh, 2014)	Student A, E, F and H take notes about the questions before answering the questions.
✓ Positive emotions (MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012)	Except student G and H, learners seem cheerful about the speaking club.
✓ Collaboration (Burden, 2004; Kitano, 2001; Yunus and Singh, 2014)	Student C and I, F and G support each other for the activities.
✓ Cooperation (Pappamihiel, 2001)	Student A and B help each other for the questions.
✓ Teacher-Student appreciation (Young, 1999)	Learner diaries of F, C, H, E display that learners have positive attitudes towards the teacher.
✓ Self-talk, talk with peers (McCoy, 1979; Wörde, 2003)	All of the students are given to think individually before answering the questions, student C-I, F-G, A-B also help each other.
✓ Self-assessment (Dörnyei, 2009; MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012)	In their learner diaries, students assess their first impressions about themselves in the speaking club.
✓ Note taking (Kondo and Ying-Ling, 2004)	Student A, E, F and H take notes about the questions before answering the questions.

Peer Observation

Instructor invited one of her colleagues and classmates from post graduate program for peer observation. She came to the class thirty minutes before the students in order not to increase their anxiety level, instructor introduced her to the class as a guest and in some parts of the lesson the observer also answered the questions or shared opinions. She took some notes about the lesson both about learners and the instructor and shared these notes with the instructor two days after the lesson.

Views of the Observer

Good Parts:

- Topic choice is interesting.
- Instructor has motivating and friendly manners
- Instructor's not giving any information about the anxiety part of the thesis topic.
- Watching the video two times. (Learners were not able to understand the video in the first time but they were shy to ask for watching the video again, instructor recognized it and played the video one more time)

Improvable Parts:

- Students display highly anxious manners.
- English zone only.
- A technique can be formed to determine the sequence of student talk.
- Instructor should first give the instructions then the handout.

Table 12: The Common Points of Teacher and Peer Observation

Observation Fields	Teacher Observation	Peer Observation
Student Manners	Shy and nervous.	Highly anxious manners.
Teacher Manners	Supportive, tolerant, cooperative and friendly attitudes towards the students.	Friendly and motivates students to speak in the target language.
Topic Choice	Interesting.	Interesting.

3.6.2.1.2. Second Week Report

The lesson is planned as 5 stages: Stage 1 (warm up), Stage 2 (Personalization of the topic), Stage 3 (Presentation of the topic), Stage 4 (Practicing the topic), and Stage 5 (Production about the topic). The aim of the lesson is to provide for students to practice/speak about “Happiness” by using English as much as they can. The lesson is designed in accordance with “Presentation-Practice-Production” technique to lower learners’ speaking anxiety. Teacher talking time is lessened step by step and students are encouraged to speak in the target language. Timing for the stages are 5 minutes, 5 minutes, 10 minutes, 15 minutes, 15 minutes consecutively.

Instructor’s Observations about the Students

Some of the students sat far away from the teacher (Student D, F, and G) and close friends sat together as they did in the lesson of first week. Similar to the first lesson, their facial expressions and body language displayed their high anxiety level. This anxiety level decreased in some parts of the lesson when they were given time to think about the topic (Think-Pair-Share activity) or the questions and when they got help from their peers. In general, students did not have an interaction with each other, they behaved individually rather than collaboratively. Their attention was high during the lesson which took forty-five minutes; they were also motivated about the lesson and the topic.

Carrying out the Lesson

Stage 1- Warm up

As a warm up, students were asked about their day and how they were feeling (How do you feel today? How was your day? Do you feel happy?). Some of the students gave short answers (Student A, B, G) whilst few of them gave longer answers (Student D, E, I). In the very initial minutes of the lesson learners seemed nervous and kept silent.

Stage 2- Personalize the Lesson

Learners were asked two main questions:

1. What do you think about happiness?
2. Can you describe yourself happy?

Questions were open-ended and did not have correct or incorrect answers, students answered in accordance with their opinions. Instructor aided students during their answering and never made error corrections. Student (A, D, E) gave slightly long answers to the first question whilst student (B, D, E, I) gave slightly long answers to the second question. The instructor also replied both of the questions to participate the topic with learners.

Stage 3- Presentation of the Topic

Prezi was used for a brief presentation about “Happiness”. Happiness, pleasure, consumerism, and minimalism were the terms given in the presentation.

Learners were asked:

1. How often have you said “I just want to be happy”?
2. How often have you said to someone else, “I just want you to be happy”?
3. Have you ever stopped to consider exactly what happiness means? What exactly, is this happiness you are wishing for?
4. What is the difference between happiness and pleasure?
5. What are your needs in your life?
6. What are the happiness essentials for you?
7. What are the harmful effects of consumerism?
8. What can we do about consumerism?
9. What is minimalism?
10. Do you prefer consumerism or minimalism?

These questions were asked during the presentation in different slides, yet the questions were not asked separately but supporting questions were also asked to learners to make answering easier. The instructor always supported and facilitated

learners to comment on the topic. Throughout the presentation, informative sentences used limitedly and they were supported with images. Students were asked about their ideas and emotions about the terms and made connections with their private lives. There was almost no error correction about accuracy of their statements since the aim was to decrease their speaking anxiety level and foster their encouragement to speak in the target language. For the second week there was not a new word to teach the students. Learners watched an animation about “happiness” for approximately four minutes, as the video was a criticism of consumerism the topic shifted slightly from “happiness” to “consumerism”. Learners were not familiar with the term and instructor needed to explain it with pictures and definitions. Pictures were attention-grabbing and critical.

Stage 4- Practice of the Topic

Since there was no new vocabulary for learners the presentation and practice parts were carried out simultaneously. The open-ended questions were asked after presenting the topic; therefore, learners first were informed about the topic then they were asked questions related to the topic. The animation video was also utilized to practice the topic since all of the learners explained their ideas about the video (Student A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I). Even learners answered the questions in few words, the instructor did not show any discontentedness; therefore, learners did not experience anxiety about their answers.

Stage 5- Production of the Topic

In this stage, Think- Pair- Share technique was chosen since it allowed learners to think individually for preparation (Think part), shared their ideas with a peer (Pair part), and shared their ideas with the whole class (Share part). Five different topics/sentences were given: “Ups and downs. Victories and defeats. Sadness and happiness. That’s the best kind of life.”, “Sing like no one is listening, love like you’ve never been hurt, dance like nobody is watching, and live like it’s heaven on earth.”, “Happiness is when what you think, what you say, and what you do are in harmony”, “Happiness is a place between too much and too little”, “Don’t

waste a minute not being happy. If one window closes, run to the next window or break down a door”. Rather than giving a general topic, learners were given quotes about happiness each of which has a different perspective about the topic. Students were given two minutes to think individually, in this stage some of the students took some notes (Student H, M, A) one student searched on the internet (Student A). In the second stage, learners shared their ideas with their peers for three minutes, the instructor observed the learners without distracting or interrupting them and aided that student by providing some clues about the topic and displayed a friendly attitude to comfort the learner. In the third and the last stage learners shared their ideas with the class, they did not come to the board this time because instructor allowed them to sit and talk about the topic. This decision was a conscious attempt since in the first lesson learners felt anxious when they spoke in front of the lesson. Students felt more comfortable when they shared their ideas without being on the spot. At the end of the lesson learners were given a self-assessment handout to evaluate themselves in the second lesson.

- The most participating students were: D, E, I.
- The most anxious students were: G, F, H.
- The most silent student: B.
- The most unconcerned student: D.

Best parts of the lesson

✓ Students become familiar with the instructor. (Good rapport)
✓ Both instructor and learners were motivated for the lesson.
✓ The topic was interesting for the learners.
✓ Instructor’s supportive, tolerant, cooperative and friendly attitudes towards the students.
✓ Almost no error correction.
✓ Providing time for preparation before speaking.

Improvable parts of the lesson

✓ A more interesting topic might be chosen.
✓ Balancing the speaking frequency of dominant (Student D, E, I) and shy students (Student G, F, H)
✓ Teacher-talking time should be lessened.

Strategies used by the instructor

- ✓ Learner-centered Classroom (Horwitz, 1988; Lee and Ng, 2009; Young, 1991)

- ✓ Positive Reinforcement, Achievable Expectations for learners (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Price, 1991; Zhiping and Paramasivam, 2013)
- ✓ Not overstating mistakes (Burden, 2004; Cutrone, 2009; Dörnyei, 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1990)
- ✓ Friendly, Patient, and Relaxed Manners (Alrabai, 2015; Dalkılıç, 2001; Han, Tanrıöver, and Şahan, 2016; Occhipinti, 2009; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Tüm and Kunt, 2013; Young, 1986, 1990)
- ✓ Being receptive to the instructional level and affective states of learners (Saito and Samimy, 1996)
- ✓ Collaborative classroom atmosphere (Kitano, 2001)
- ✓ Presentations (Dalkılıç, 2001)
- ✓ Interesting topics (Cutrone, 2009)
- ✓ Welcoming, supportive, and motivating language classroom atmosphere (Azher, Anwar and Naz, 2010; Çağatay, 2015; Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013; MacIntyre, 2012; Tabataba'ian, 2012; Tüm and Kunt, 2013)
- ✓ Visual imagery (MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012).
- ✓ Think-Pair-Share (Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza, 2014)

Table 13: Strategies used by the Learners and Exemplar from the Lesson

Strategies used by the Learners	Exemplar from the Lesson
Preparation (Cohen, 2009; Gregersen et al., 2014; Occhipinti, 2009; Yunus and Singh, 2014)	Student A, E, F, I and H take notes before answering the questions, and in the “Think-Pair-Share” activity.
Positive emotions (MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012)	Teacher and peer observation display that learners feel more comfortable in comparison to the first lesson. (Except student F and G)
Collaboration (Burden, 2004; Kitano, 2001; Yunus and Singh, 2014)	Student C-I, E-H, F-G and A-B support each other during the lesson.
Cooperation (Pappamihel, 2001)	Student C and I help each other for the activities.
Teacher-Student appreciation (Young, 1999)	Teacher do not correct any of the student errors; therefore, students try to speak without fear of making mistakes. (Especially student D and I)
Self-talk, talk with peers (McCoy, 1979; Wörde, 2003)	All of the students are given time to think individually before answering the questions. In the “Think-Pair-Share” activity, student A-B, C-I, F-G help each other.

Self-assessment (Dörnyei, 2009; MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012)	The informative evaluation of the week is self-assessment for learners; therefore, all of the students assess themselves via the self-assessment handout.
Note taking (Kondo and Ying-Ling, 2004)	Nearly all of the students take some notes while thinking individually in the “Think-Pair-Share” activity.

Table 13 (Continued)

Table 14: Peer Observation of Second Week

<p>Interaction with students</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Presentation techniques are well utilized (movement, lecturing from notes, eye contact) ✓ Tone of voice indicates interest in the subject, students, and student questions ✓ Creates a participatory classroom environment ✓ Responsive to student nonverbal clues (excitement, apprehension etc.) ✓ Use student names whenever possible ✓ Encourages student questions ✓ Provides clear explanations to student questions 	<p>The attitude of the teacher</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Friendly ✓ Facilitative ✓ Good humored ✓ Challenging when necessary/in need ✓ Motivating ✓ Participatory/ Active <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The students are called by their names. 2. Since the students feel special when they are called by their names, they feel motivated. 3. The teacher moves around the class in an energetic way instead of just sitting and directing questions to the students. Eye contact is provided among the teacher and students during the lesson. 4. When students choose to remain passive, teacher motivates and challenges them to speak or participate. 5. Even if the teacher is active and participatory throughout the lesson, students mostly remain silent and behave in a dissocial or shy way.
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<p>Integration of Technology</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Technology is used to engage students, enhance learning, and/or generally enrich students' class experience as part of lecture, activities or discussion. ✓ Technology is leveraged to facilitate a learning experience that would otherwise not possible. 	<p>Integration of Technology</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ To enable visual materials and realia for the students, projector is used to present the presentation and display the videos. ✓ The speaking course is supported with the videos and presentations.
<p>Preliminary Activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Setup: The goal of the lesson is stated at the beginning. What is going to be the topic is known by the students beforehand. ✓ Class start: Because of students' not arriving on time, the lesson starts a bit later like ten minutes. 	<p>The Attitudes of the Learners</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ They are unable to organize their ideas in a proper way in the target language ✓ Student D,E, and I are active in the class they tend to speak or utter more ✓ Even if they state that they improve their speaking through these speaking club activities and have fun during the course, when it is turn for speaking in the target language they have hesitations. ✓ If the teacher does not group them in pairs they do not tend to speak with each other. They are in the mood of just listening to the teacher as if this course was not a speaking club and they aimed to get information. ✓ The students are generally passive and look shy and anxious during the course.

Lesson Procedures	Strategies to cope with anxiety
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The activities used in the class are different from one another; therefore, the class does not repeat itself. ✓ Because the students remain silent and passive, the teacher is mostly at the center of the speaking club who talks much more in comparison with students. ✓ Class flow is well organized and easy to follow. ✓ Transitions between sections, concepts and/or topics are well arranged. ✓ Teacher allows time for questions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ When they are asked about something they prefer remaining silent in some parts or switch their language to L1 to cope with their anxiety. ✓ In order to help students to overcome their anxiety and support them to speak more, teacher calls them by their names, has a smiling face, behaves in a friendly way. ✓ Students are given time when they are unable to speak so they are not forced to speak in the class.

Table 14 (Continued)

At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher explains what the topic is and which activities are going to be carried out at first. Students are asked about how they are and how they feel before starting the speaking course. Instead of starting the lesson directly, what has been learned in the previous lesson is practiced. Some of the students indicate that they are trying to change or organize their lives in accordance with what they have discussed about in the previous lesson. Thus, it is clear that students attach importance to the topic arranged for the speaking club even if they hesitate to speak more. A presentation through the program “Prezi” is used for presenting the speaking topic (Happiness) to the students. Presentation is enhanced through videos and visuals related to the topic. Because there are some learning differences among learners, it is hard to take attention of each student. For instance one of the learners is not able to watch the animation about happiness since she is afraid of mice while other students enjoy the video and watch it carefully.

“Think-Pair-Share” is used in the lesson and students at first think about the topic by themselves which enables them to organize their ideas carefully, afterwards, they discuss their opinions with each other in pairs and lastly they share their ideas with the class. Since they have time to think silently, it helps them organizing their thoughts and speaking more and better; thus, this can be useful for decreasing their anxiety. Teacher’s writing on the board is also helpful for the points which can

remain incomprehensive. Video used in the presentations is found entertaining by the students.

Table 15: The Common Points of Teacher and Peer Observation

Observation Fields	Teacher Observation	Peer Observation
Student Manners	Students are anxious and shy in general.	Students are passive and shy for the most part.
Teacher Manners	Teacher motivates and facilitates learners to speak in the target language. She provides time when it is necessary and she never corrects learners' errors.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Friendly ✓ Facilitative ✓ Good humored ✓ Challenging when necessary/in need ✓ Motivating ✓ Participatory/Active
Topic Choice	Topic can be more interesting since students might find the topic a little abstract.	It is not easy to find one-fits-all topic for a speaking club.

3.6.2.1.3. Third Week Report

The lesson is planned as 5 stages: Stage 1 (warm up), Stage 2 (Personalization of the topic), Stage 3 (Presentation of the topic), Stage 4 (Practicing the topic), and Stage 5 (Production about the topic). The aim of the lesson is to provide for students to practice/speak about “Social Media” by using English as much as they can. The lesson is designed in accordance with “Presentation-Practice-Production” technique to lower learners’ speaking anxiety. Teacher talking time is lessened step by step and students are encouraged to speak in the target language. Timing for the stages are 5 minutes, 5 minutes, 10 minutes, 15 minutes, 15 minutes consecutively.

Instructor’s Observations about the Students

Students seemed more unconcerned about the speaking as it was the third week and they became familiar with the instructor and teaching procedures (Presentation- Practice-Production). Some of the students were still anxious during

the lesson (Student B, F, G, H). Similar to the first and second lesson, their facial expressions and body language displayed their moderate/ high anxiety level. In general, students did not have an interaction with each other; they behave individually rather than collaboratively. Their attention was high during the lesson which took fifty minutes; they were also motivated about the lesson and the topic. Students seemed to enjoy the topic (social media) since it was quite related to their personal lives and suitable for their age (18-19).

Carrying out the Lesson

Stage 1- Warm up

As a warm up, students were asked about their day and how they were feeling (How do you feel today? How was your day?). Some of the students gave short answers (Student A, F, H) whilst few of them gave longer answers (Student B, E, I).

Stage 2- Personalize the Lesson

Learners were asked two main questions:

1. Do you use social media applications?
2. How often do you use social media applications?

Questions were open-ended and did not have correct or incorrect answers, students answered in accordance with their opinions. Instructor aided students during their answering and never made error corrections. Every student stated their opinions, student D, E, and I gave slightly long answers to the questions. The instructor and the observer also replied both of the questions to participate the topic with learners.

Stage 3- Presentation of the topic

Prezi was used for a brief presentation about “Social Media”. Social media, social media applications, were the terms given in the presentation. Learners were asked:

1. Why do you use social media?
2. Do you share in social media?
3. What is social media addiction?
4. Do you spend a lot of time thinking about social media or planning to use social media?
5. Do you feel urges to use social media more and more?
6. Do you use social media to forget about personal problems?
7. Do you often try to reduce your use of social media without success?
8. Do you become restless or troubled if you are unable to use social media?
9. Do you use social media so much that it has had a negative impact on your job or studies?
10. What is digital detox?
11. Do you have any ideas for digital detox?
12. Have you ever tried digital detox?
13. What do you think about the difference between social media and reality?
14. What is an “insta-lie”?
15. What are the harmful effects of social media?

These questions were asked during the presentation in different slides, yet the questions were not asked separately but supporting questions were also asked to learners to make answering easier. The instructor always supported and facilitated learners to comment on the topic. Throughout the presentation, informative sentences used limitedly and they were supported with images. Students were asked about their ideas and emotions about the terms and made connections with their private lives. There was almost no error correction about accuracy of their statements since the aim was to decrease their speaking anxiety level and foster their encouragement to speak in the target language. For the second week there was not a new word to teach the students. Learners watched a video about “social media vs. reality” for approximately five minutes; the video was about teenagers’ real life and what they

shared on social media. Learners enjoyed the video, smiled in some parts of the video. After the video, learners were shown four humorous pictures about the difference between social media and real life, pictures were attention-grabbing and funny.

Stage 4- Practice of the Topic

Since there was no new vocabulary for learners the presentation and practice parts were carried out simultaneously. The open-ended questions were asked after presenting the topic; therefore, learners first were informed about the topic then they were asked questions related to the topic. The video was also utilized to practice the topic since all of the learners explained their ideas about the video (Student A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I). Even learners answered the questions in few words, the instructor did not show any discontentedness; therefore, learners did not experience anxiety about their answers. Some of the learners answered the questions with longer statements (Student D, E, I).

Stage 5- Production of the Topic

In this stage, some kind of pair interchange method was used. Five different topics/sentences were given: “Relationships are harder now because conversations become texting, arguments become phone calls, and feelings become status updates.”, “Privacy is dead, and social media hold the smoking gun.”, “The best sign of a healthy relationship is no sign of it on social media.”, “Social media addiction”, “Social media detox”. This time learners were given three sentences and two general topics about social media. For the production stage, an adjusted version of blind date were utilized. Five of the students were stable during the stage, each of them sat in the different parts of the class, other four students changed their places one by one; as a result, these four students talked about five different topics while other five students talked about their own topic. Students had three minutes for each topic or statement; therefore, they talked about different topic for fifteen-eighteen minutes. After this stage, learners shared their ideas with the class, the four moving students

chose one of the topics as they desired, they did not come to the board because instructor allowed them to sit and talk about the topic. This decision was a conscious attempt since in the first lesson learners felt anxious when they spoke in front of the lesson. Students felt more comfortable when they shared their ideas without being on the spot. At the end of the lesson learners were given a peer-assessment handout to evaluate one of their peers in the third lesson.

- The most participating students were: D, E, I, C.
- The most anxious students were: G, F, H.
- The most silent student: B, F, G
- The most unconcerned student: D.

Best parts of the lesson

✓ Students become familiar with the instructor. (Good rapport)
✓ Both students and learners were motivated for the lesson.
✓ The topic was interesting for the learners.
✓ Instructor’s supportive, tolerant, cooperative and friendly attitudes towards the students.
✓ Almost no error correction.
✓ Speaking topics and sentences were given to learners one day earlier from the lesson.

Improvable parts of the lesson

✓ Balancing the speaking frequency of dominant (Student D, E, I) and shy students (Student G, F, H)
✓ Teacher-talking time should be lessened.

Strategies used by the instructor

- ✓ Learner-centered Classroom (Horwitz, 1988; Lee and Ng, 2009; Young, 1991)
- ✓ Positive Reinforcement, Achievable Expectations for learners (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Price, 1991; Zhiping and Paramasivam, 2013)
- ✓ Not overstating mistakes (Burden, 2004; Cutrone, 2009; Dörnyei, 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1990)

- ✓ Friendly, Patient, and Relaxed Manners (Alrabai, 2015; Dalkılıç, 2001; Han, Tanrıöver, and Şahan, 2016; Occhipinti, 2009; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Tüm and Kunt, 2013; Young, 1986, 1990)
- ✓ Being receptive to the instructional level and affective states of learners (Saito and Samimy, 1996)
- ✓ Collaborative classroom atmosphere (Kitano, 2001)
- ✓ Presentations (Dalkılıç, 2001)
- ✓ Welcoming, supportive, and motivating language classroom atmosphere (Azher, Anwar and Naz, 2010; Çağatay, 2015; Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013; MacIntyre, 2012; Tabataba'ian, 2012; Tüm and Kunt, 2013)
- ✓ Visual imagery (MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012).
- ✓ Think-Pair-Share (Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza, 2014)

Table 16: Strategies used by the Learners and Exemplar from the Lesson

Strategies used by the Learners	Exemplars from the Lesson
Preparation (Cohen, 2009; Gregersen et al. 2014; Occhipinti, 2009; Yunus and Singh, 2014)	Student F, H and G take notes before speaking. The speaking topics and sentences are given to the students two days earlier the lesson; as a result, students have the opportunity to prepare about the topics beforehand.
Positive emotions (MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012)	Since it is the third week of the lesson, students and teacher become more familiar, students state their positive emotions about the lesson and the teacher in their worksheets.
Collaboration (Burden 2004; Kitano, 2001; Yunus and Singh, 2014)	Students behave individually in the presentation and practice part but they help each other in the production part.
Cooperation (Pappamihel, 2001)	In the production part, student A help his peers by searching about the topic online, student I helps her friends with a cheerful and helpful manner. Student E encourages her friends to speak more
Teacher-Student appreciation (Young, 1999)	In the worksheets, nearly all of the students define the teacher attitudes as friendly and supportive.
Self-talk, talk with peers (McCoy, 1979; Worde, 2003)	In the presentation and practice part students think individually before speaking, student C-I and E-H support each other.

Peer-assessment (Cheng and Warren, 2005)	The informative assessment technique for the third lesson is peer-assessment, as a result, students assess each other's oral proficiency during the production stage.
Note taking (Kondo and Ying-Ling, 2004)	All of the students take notes about their speaking topic in the production part before speaking.

Table 16 (Continued)

The students' talking is enhanced with the help of Yes/No questions obtained from an article related to the topic social media addiction. Even though teacher tries to motivate them, through calling them by their names, using Yes/No questions and/or asking one by one, they continue using few words while speaking and they still seem shy. Video used in the presentations is found entertaining by the students.

For language production, the students are separated from each other around the class. In pairs, they are asked to discuss the topic given on the cards. With this way, all of the students talk about different topics at the same time in pairs. Because they are not in the spotlight, they are motivated to speak more in pair work. They are able to utter much more through this kind of activity. The course is not in the mood of speaking club until the students are grouped in pairs. Because the general attitude of learners is being passive, they prefer listening to the teacher and answer when asked; therefore, the course becomes a traditional one even if it is designed in a communicative way.

When the students feel forced, they switch their language from the target language to the mother tongue. Using L1 is their strategy to get rid of their speaking anxiety. When they change their language, the teacher insists on the target language by repeating what they have said in the target language. Yet, they still continue speaking in L1 in some parts of the lesson.

Table 17: Peer Observation of Third Week

<p>Interaction with students</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Presentation techniques are well utilized (movement, lecturing from notes, eye contact) ✓ Creates a participatory classroom environment ✓ Responsive to student nonverbal clues 	<p>The attitude of the teacher</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interaction between the teacher and students is enhanced at the beginning of the course. • The students are called by their names. • The teacher moves around the class in an energetic way instead of just sitting and directing questions to the students. Eye contact is provided among the
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<p>(excitement, apprehension etc.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Use student names whenever possible ✓ Encourages student questions ✓ Provides clear explanations to student questions 	<p>teacher and students during the lesson.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When students choose to remain passive, teacher motivates and challenges them to speak or participate. • Even if the teacher is active and participatory throughout the lesson, students mostly remain silent and behave in a dissocial or shy way.
<p>Preliminary Activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Setup: The goal of the lesson is stated at the beginning. What is going to be the topic is known by the students beforehand. ✓ Class start: Because of students' not arriving on time, the lesson starts a bit later like ten minutes. 	<p>The Attitudes of the Learners</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ They do not initiate any conversation unless they are asked to do so ✓ Generally passive ✓ They are unable to organize their ideas in a proper way in the target language ✓ Except for two or three students (Student D, E, I) they tend to speak or utter less ✓ Even if they state that they improve their speaking through these speaking club activities and have fun during the course, when it is turn for speaking in the target language they have hesitations. ✓ If the teacher does not group them in pairs they do not tend to speak with each other. They are in the mood of just listening to the teacher as if this course was not a speaking club and they aimed to get information. ✓ The students are generally passive and look shy and anxious during the course.
<p>Lesson Procedures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Class flow is well organized and easy to follow. ✓ Transitions between sections, concepts and/or topics are well arranged. ✓ Teacher allows time for questions ✓ Teacher uses time management to cover the content. ✓ Teacher concludes and reviews of day's topic. 	<p>Strategies to cope with anxiety</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Instructor facilitates students to handle anxiety and speak more. ✓ Instructor behaves in an encouraging way. ✓ Students are called by their names. ✓ Students are given time when they are unable to speak so they are not forced to speak in the class. ✓ Students avoid eye contact when they feel anxious or do not want to participate to the class.

Table 17 (Continued)

Table 18: The Common Points of Teacher and Peer Observation

Observation Fields	Teacher Observation	Peer Observation
Student Manner	Students are more anxious in the first half of the lesson; however, they are less shy in the last parts of the lesson (especially in the production part)	Students tend to behave passively in the presentation and practice part yet they are more willing to speak with their peers.
Teacher Manner	Teacher behaves friendly, positively and patiently.	Teacher facilitates and encourages students to speak.
Topic Choice	It is the most interesting topic for the learners in comparison to other two topics. Students relate the topic with their own lives and question their lives about social media.	Students enjoy the topic, they find it interesting and make connections with their personal lives.

3.6.2.1.4. Fourth Week Report

For the fourth and last week, instructor decided to play a language game to increase students' talking time and provide a non-threatening classroom environment. The game choice was made by students since learners were given three language games (Taboo, Seek and Hide, Call My Bluff), they chose one of them (Call My Bluff). Allowing students to decide on the game they want made students feel valuable and responsible; moreover, students were able to search for the game rules and prepare for their statements.

The lesson is designed in accordance with "Presentation-Practice-Production" technique to lower learners' speaking anxiety. For this time, there is not a topic since the lesson is organized for the "Call My Bluff" game. Timing for the stages are 5 minutes, 10 minutes, and 35 minutes consecutively.

Observations about the Students

In the first minutes of the lesson students were quiet and introverted while the instructor were asking about their week. After the warm up part, the instructor

explained the game and one of the students (Student I) was well-informed about the game as she searched for the game on the internet. Students seemed willing and excited to play a game. To lessen their anxiety, the instructor displayed the game by herself two times and practiced it with the students. After that, observer teacher also displayed the game once. After these three demonstrations, students felt relaxed and comfortable. The instructor initiated the game by the volunteer students (Student I, C, A) and the most anxious learners (Student B, F) went to the board lattermost. Although the instructor allowed the anxious students to prepare their statements beforehand, student F was quite nervous and anxious about coming to the board and uttering her statements to the class.

Carrying out the Lesson

Stage 1- Warm up

Students were asked about how they feel and what they do during the week, they generally gave short answers (Student C, E, I). The instructor mentioned her week and also asked the observer teacher about her week to make learners' familiar with the observer and decrease learners' anxiety level.

Stage 2- Presentation of the Topic (Game)

The instructor explained the game to the students. "Call My Bluff" is a speaking game about personal information including two true and one false statements. The instructor asked learners to divide into two groups (Group A-B) to play the game. Each group should discuss the statements with each other in the target language and they have to explain their reasons for the false statement.

Game rules:

- Students write 3 sentences on the board.
- Two of them should be true and one of them should be a lie about the students' personal life.
- Other students try to find the incorrect statement.

Stage 3- Practice of the Topic (Game)

The instructor wrote three statements about herself and students tried to find the false statement. Each group discussed the statements with group members and explained their ideas about the false statements, afterwards the instructor told the false statement. The instructor wrote three other statements to practice the game one more time. For the third practice, the observer teacher wrote three statements about herself two groups and the instructor tried to find the false statement. These preparations for the game decreased learners' anxiety level and promote their self-confidence.

Stage 4- Production of the Topic (Game)

Each of the students came to the board one by one and told three statements about themselves and group A and B tried to find out which one was false. For gaining a point each group member had to state one reason about the false statements. There were eight students; therefore each group involved four students and eight students came to the board individually to tell their statements. In some statements both of the groups won and in some statements neither of the groups won. At the end each group had four points; therefore, the instructor wrote three statements about herself to determine the winner.

Best parts of the lesson

✓ Playing a language game.
✓ Instructor's supportive, tolerant, cooperative and friendly attitudes towards the students.
✓ Almost no error correction.
✓ Providing time for preparation before speaking.
✓ Group rapport.
✓ Learning some personal information about the students and the instructor.
✓ Practicing the target language.
✓ Team work.

Improvable parts of the lesson

✓ Encouraging shy students (Student B, F, G) more to speak.
✓ Balancing the speaking frequency of dominant (student E, I, H) and shy students (student B, F, G)

- The most enthusiastic students: Student A, C, E, H, I
- The most anxious students: Student B, F, G

Peer Observation

Good Parts

- The activity was interesting for the students.
- Instruction of the activity was clear.
- The instructor presented enough examples for students.
- Teacher talking time was low.
- The instructor encouraged students to talk.

Improvable Parts

- Sometimes students forgot the sentences or confused the order of the sentences, the activity may be reconsidered in terms of the situation.

Strategies used by the Instructor

- ✓ Learner-centered Classroom (Horwitz, 1988; Lee and Ng, 2009; Young, 1991)
- ✓ Positive Reinforcement, Achievable Expectations for learners (Price, 1991; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Zhiping and Paramasivam, 2013)
- ✓ Not overstating mistakes (Burden, 2004; Cutrone, 2009; Dörnyei, 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1990)
- ✓ Friendly, Patient, and Relaxed Manners (Alrabai, 2015; Dalkılıç, 2001; Han, Tanrıöver, and Şahan, 2016; Occhipinti, 2009; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Tüm and Kunt, 2013; Young, 1986, 1990)

- ✓ Being receptive to the instructional level and affective states of learners (Saito and Samimy, 1996)
- ✓ Collaborative classroom atmosphere (Kitano, 2001)
- ✓ Welcoming, supportive, and motivating language classroom atmosphere (Azher, Anwar and Naz, 2010; Çağatay, 2015; Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013; MacIntyre, 2012; Tabataba'ian, 2012; Tüm and Kunt, 2013)

Table 19: Strategies used by the Learners and Exemplar from the Lesson

Strategies used by the Learners	Exemplar from the Lesson
Preparation (Cohen, 2009; Gregersen et al., 2014; Occhipinti, 2009; Yunus and Singh, 2014)	Student I searches the game online and prepare her sentences before the lesson. Student B, F, and G write their sentences in the lesson before coming to the board.
Positive emotions (MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012)	All of the students enjoy playing a language game.
Collaboration (Burden, 2004; Kitano, 2001; Yunus and Singh, 2014)	Students in each group support each other to win the game.
Cooperation (Pappamihiel, 2001)	Each student acts with the team spirit to win the game.
Teacher-Student appreciation (Young, 1999)	The instructor also involves to the game and try to find the false sentence in the game. Teacher acts like one of the students during the game.
Self-talk, talk with peers (McCoy, 1979; Worde, 2003)	Students think individually and share their ideas with their group members to find the bluff of the students on the board.
Note taking (Kondo and Ying-Ling, 2004)	Student B, F, G, and H take notes about their statements before coming to the board.

Students enjoyed the game and had fun during speaking in English. The competition between the groups provided team spirit and collaboration between group members, they discussed the statements with each other in English and explained their ideas also in the target language. The more they realized their capacity for speaking the target language, the more they felt self-confident to speak in the target language and their speaking time increased. Since there was no evaluation, students seemed stress-free and be volunteer for joining the game.

Table 20: The Common Points of Teacher and Peer Observation

Observation Fields	Teacher Observation	Peer Observation
Student Manner	More active and less anxious.	Student talking time increases, they are more willing to speak and participate to the lesson.
Teacher Manner	Supportively, motivates students to participate the game.	Teacher speaking time is low, she encourages students to speak.
Topic Choice	Enjoy the game, have fun, and most significantly practice their speaking.	Find the game entertaining; they participate to the game with enthusiasm.

3.6.2.2. The Analysis of the Informal Assessment Techniques

3.6.2.2.1. The Analysis of First Week Learner Impressions

Student E: *“... I was nervous before I went but I felt relax when we met our teacher. She is a very friendly and optimist person. She encouraged me to talk so I felt better thanks to her. I am excited for the next lesson and pleased to meet her.”*

Student H: *“.. Teacher is really good. Firstly, she is a friendly teacher. I feel so because we are nearly at the same ages..... I feel nervous when there are nearly 50 people in class. That’s why I usually can’t talk in front of my friends. But there were 10 people in our speaking class. So, I wasn’t nervous. The subject was interesting. Our teacher’s method was good. I had fun. I hope that this class will be useful for me.”*

Student C: *“ I was very excited about the first lesson. Later I realized that our teacher was very friendly. She is very kind to the students. I realized that there was nothing to be afraid. First time I came to a lesson very eager.”*

Student F: *“.... Although I am very excited in speaking lesson I was relax in this lesson. I like the lesson and teacher but I didn’t have any practice for speaking so it is very difficult for me. So these lessons are very good for me because I think that I will improve speaking thanks to these lessons.”*

Table 21: Common Points in Students' First Week Impressions

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students feel nervous and anxious before the speaking club. • Students care about teacher's attitudes towards them. • Students are willing to speak in English but they are also afraid of speaking in a foreign language. • They feel comfortable after they experience the first lesson.

3.6.2.2.2. The analysis of second week self-assessment

In the second week, learners assess themselves about their strongest and improvable aspects of speaking skill and their emotions during the lesson. By means of self-assessment, learners evaluate their speaking proficiency and become self-conscious about it.

Table 22: Self-assessment of Second Week

	The strongest aspects of my speaking:	The improvable parts of my speaking:	How did you feel during the lesson?
Student E	<i>I feel relax when I speak English anymore. I pay attention the rules of grammar.</i>	<i>I should learn more vocabulary so that I can speak more fluently. I can watch more video about speaking.</i>	<i>I was feeling anxious before coming to lesson but I was so happy when lesson is over. Teacher makes me feel comfortable.</i>
Student F	<i>I haven't any strong aspects of my speaking.</i>		<i>I feel relax during the lesson but while I am speaiking I am very nervous.</i>
Student A	<i>The strongest aspect of my speaking are grammatical accuracy but when I talk I think too much. So it cause making mistake but I believe I can fix it.</i>	<i>The improvable aspects of my speaking are pronunciation and fluency. If I try to fix it I can do it I believe.</i>	<i>When I joined first I feel a bit nervous but after first lesson the teacher of speaking club get chill me about speaking and I feel really relaxed because noone criticize and evaluate.</i>
Student G	<i>I think the strongest aspects of my speaking is grammatical range and accuracy.</i>	<i>I should improve my lexical bundle, my pronunciation and listening ability.</i>	<i>I felt I wasn't enough to speaking English. I was generally nervous.</i>

Student I	<i>I can use my body.</i>	<i>If I can improve my vocabulary I can speak.</i>	<i>I felt relax and happy. I realized that I could speak.</i>
Student B	<i>When I see the topic I started to think about what I can say. After thought I can say something or make comment about topic. I am feeling that people around me can understand me. But sometimes I can't do this.</i>	<i>I need to learn a lot of new words. While thinking about what I am going to say I must find correct words instantly. The other improvable aspect of my speaking may be pronunciation. I am not sure that I have correct pronunciation or not.</i>	<i>I am feeling excited during speaking if I can express myself like I want, I am feeling nice. Moreover during the lesson I think I will learn new expression and my ability of speaking will be better than before. Generally I felt happy because everyone in the class was happy.</i>
Student C	<i>I can find new or special words when I am speaking. When I am speaking about anything a lot of things come my mind.</i>	<i>I can improve my speaking skills especially fluency if I can achieve or develop my fluency I will be more successful.</i>	<i>I really enjoy during the lesson. Merve teacher is kind person. She always try to be funny. This lesson just not lesson it is like meet up. I am really glad to join this lesson.</i>
Student H	<i>I don't think that my speaking has strong aspects. But, I think that my grammar knowledge is good enough. So while speaking I pay attention grammar rules.</i>	<i>Firstly, I should not pay attention grammar rules so much. And I can understand what is spoken but when someone ask me as "What do you think?" or "Can you talk..." I suddenly feel depressed. During lesson she asked me quite easy questions but I could not answer enoughly. And lastly, I should not feel nervous while speaking. If I can deal with all of them, I will be a good speaker.</i>	<i>Since the subject was good I did not feel bored. I wasn't nervous. It was fine.</i>

Table 22 (Continued)

The self-assessment handouts reveal that learners evaluate themselves objectively since they state their improvable aspects of speaking skills clearly. Linguistic deficiency is the most common reason for problems in speaking according to students yet students do not mention particular aspects for the strongest aspects of their speaking. Table 22 displays that learners feel comfortable during the lesson and they are motivated to speak in the classes.

3.6.2.2.3. The Analysis of Third Week Peer-Assessment

In the lesson of third week, the topic was “Social media” and learners talked about five different topics with different pairs and afterwards they chose one of these topics to speak about in front of the class. Learners were given peer evaluation rubric with two open-ended statements “ List 3 Strengths of the Presentation” and “List 3 Suggestions for Improvement”. The rubric contains eleven aspects of the speech presentation and students rated their friends from 1 to 5 points according to their speaking abilities.

The eleven aspects in the rubric are “Gained attention & interest, introduced topic ideas clearly, Organized ideas clearly, Developed & demonstrated each idea with enough detail w/i time limit, Used transitions between ideas, Used visuals to show & clarify main points/steps, Summarized ideas presented, Reinforced central idea, Closed presentation creatively, Kept eye contact, Use of voice, body & gestures”.

Student H:

Her peer states that *“student H is able to use transitions between her ideas and she feels more relax now. She can transmit her ideas simply. On the other hand, she should use her gestures and body while she speaks. Also she may keep eye contact with her friends.”*

In the rubric her friend gives high points for “gained attention & interest, introduced topic ideas clearly, summarized ideas presented”.

In the rubric her friend gives low points for “use of voice, body and gestures, developed & demonstrated each idea with enough detail w/i time limit”.

Student G:

Her friend states that *“She should speak with more confident, she should not be afraid of making mistakes, and she should join the conversations more.”*

In the rubric her friend gives the lowest points (needs improvement) for most of the statements, gives 2/5 for “organized ideas clearly, reinforced central idea, kept eye contact”.

Student D:

Her friend states that *“I don’t think that she needs suggestion from me. Because her speaking skills are good enough.”*

In the rubric her friend gives the highest points (excellent) and 4/5 for “reinforced central idea, closed presentation creatively.”

Student I:

Her friend states that *“She is using the words very clearly and appropriately. She can express her ideas very clearly. She really improves herself. On the other hand, she should improve her pronunciation skills, use transition words and be more calm.”*

In the rubric her friend gives the highest points (excellent) to nearly half of the statements gives 4/5 points for nearly other half of the statements and gives 3/5 points for “used transitions between ideas”.

Student C:

His friend states that *“He should attend the lesson much more and use his gestures. He had better improve his vocabulary skills.”*

In the rubric his friend gives 4/5 points for most of the statements, 3/5 points for “use of voice, body, and gestures”, and gives the highest points for “developed & demonstrated each idea with enough detail w/i time limit, used transitions between ideas”.

Student A:

His friend states that *“He can produce new ideas constantly and he is using his body and gestures during speaking. He does not use complicated words and everyone can understand him during his speaking. On the other hand, I think that some of his sentences are too short. He can use transition words while speaking and so he can get some better sentences.”*

In the rubric his friend gives the highest point for “kept eye contact”, 4/5 points for “gained attention & interest, organized ideas clearly, used visuals to show& clarify main points/steps, use of voice, body, and gestures” while s/he gives 2/5 points for “reinforced central idea”.

Student F:

Her friend states that *“She always makes an effort for presentation but she is always nervous so she often makes mistakes but she is good at keeping eye contact and introducing topic ideas and making an effort. On the other hand, she should relax and focus on her presentation and she should not care everything. She can be better by using these suggestions.”*

In the rubric her friend gives 3/5 points for most of the statements, and the highest points for “introduced topic ideas clearly, kept eye contact.”

Peer evaluation reports are coherent with instructor’s thoughts about the students since anxious learners are reported as nervous and they rated with low points in the rubric while the most participating students are reported as self-confident and they rated with high points in the rubric. Since each student has a different strongest and improvable speaking aspects there are few common points in their peer evaluation papers.

Table 23: Common Points in Students’ Peer Evaluation

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Students give suggestions about self-confidence and pronunciation.▪ Students pay attention to vocabulary knowledge, transition usage, and body& gesture use. |
|---|

3.5.2.2.4. The Analysis of Third Week Learner Impressions

Question 1: How is the topic?

Student B: *“Social media is a nice topic to talk..... I liked the topic because I had some idea to speak about it.”*

Student I: *“The topic social media is really important for us and it was very useful lesson for me.....”*

Student C: *“Merve teacher choose our lesson topics very attractive and they are very related with our social life so I really like these topics and we glad to speak about these topics.”*

Student H: *“The topic was really good. It is related to us. Since her age is near to us, she knows what kind of a topic she should select.”*

Student E: *“Social media is a well- chosen topic. Especially lately people depend on their social media accounts.”*

Question 2: How do you feel during speaking English?

Student A: *“I get nervous but our teacher reliefs me. I feel better than beginning of the course.”*

Student F: *“I feel nervous during speaking in English because I can't speak very well.”*

Student G *“I feel blue.”*

Student B: *“Speaking in English make me happy because I will be a English teacher and I must speak it. During speaking, I don't find suitable words sometimes. In that time our teacher helps me and I feel relaxed. Lastly I can say that while I am speaking and after speaking I am gaining self-confidence.”*

Student I: *“Actually, I would be shy and I was scared while I say speaking. But since I started this course I have not scared anymore and now I am relax.”*

Student C: *“While I speaking in English, I really exciting and sometimes I forgot the words although I like speak English. Especially I like to talk foreign people on social media or online game.”*

Student H: *“During our third lesson, I was relax enough. There were two teachers. They were 25 years old, namely our ages are close. So I felt that I am talking with one of my friend. They were really friendly. There were roughly 10 students in our class. That’s why I wasn’t nervous. I can’t talk in front of many people. But I know that it’s a must for me. I will be better.”*

Student D: *“I feel anxious due to lack of self confidence but sometimes I feel like I am in a comfortable position, I can talk about the topics that I would like to talk in Turkish too. If my friend group consist of foreigners, I am more relaxed but it is not the same when the group is full of Turkish people.”*

Student E: *“I feel excited when speaking English. Sometimes especially first times I feel nervous as well.”*

Question 3: How are your teacher’s attitudes?

Student E: *“Merve teacher makes us feel happy. She encourages us to speak.”*

Student D *“... She didn’t judge us, made us feel like we were talking nice even though we sometimes did not. I felt comfortable talking around her.”*

Student H *“... teacher acted as if she was our friend. She encouraged us to talk. She explained everything. She prepared presentations and games for us. Topics that she selected were all suitable for young people, like us. She enabled me to be relax, not nervous. Namely, she did her best. Thank you Merve teacher!”*

Student C: *“... teacher always act kind and friendly to us. We really happy to know her and I hope we always contact with each other. She is best English teacher I’ve ever seen.”*

Student I: *“Although we have known each other just one month, we love her so much. She always motivates us to speak. Thanks to her, I believe myself now. I hope we keep our contact.”*

Student B: *“Our teacher has a lot methods to speak better and also all of them are enjoyable and successful methods. Sometimes we don’t speak about the topic but she does not give up and encourages us so we can speak about the topic. Her attitudes are really sincere.”*

Student A: *“She behaves well and cares us. She is willing to do this course that’s why I enjoy this course.”*

Table 24: The Common Points in Learner Diaries

Common points in Topic	Common points in Student’s Feelings	Common points in Teacher Attitudes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The topic is related to students’ personal lives. ▪ The topic is easy to talk about. ▪ The topic is suitable for the students’ age. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Students feel nervous before the lesson. ▪ Students feel more comfortable after the lesson. ▪ Students care about teacher’s attitudes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher motivates and encourages students to speak. ▪ She does not judge. ▪ She is friendly and kind.

3.6.2.3. The Analysis of the RQ 2: What are the reasons of anxiety defined by Turkish pre-service ELT teachers at Balikesir University?

Open-ended questions are utilized to answer the second research question in the study. The learners’ responses are classified into categories for each class; thereafter, the overall classification for all the participants (N=122) are displayed by Figure.

Tables display the analysis of open-ended questions answered by freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior students in ELT department. The reasons of speaking anxiety, the causes of them, and percentage of each reason are illustrated in the tables.

Table 25: The Speaking Anxiety Reasons, Causes, and Percentage of Freshman Students

The Reasons of Speaking Anxiety for Freshman Students	Causes	Percentage
Speaking in front of others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being afraid of speaking in front of a crowd. • Being afraid of negative evaluation or criticism. 	22.5%
Linguistic Deficiencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammatical mistakes • Pronunciation mistakes • Lack of speaking skills 	22.5%
Speaking without preparation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Answering questions immediately. • Speaking without having time to think. • Speaking without preparation in front of others. 	19.3%
Having problems in expressing ideas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not knowing the exact words. • Not being able to express themselves. • Not being able to explain their thoughts. 	19.3%
Other reasons (Instructor-Peer manners, anxious character, speaking with native speakers etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instructors' and peers' challenging questions • Peers' not answering the questions during a presentation. • Speaking with native speakers. 	16.4%

Table 25 displays that nearly one quarter of freshman students care about the presence of other students in the classroom while speaking in the target language, the other one quarter of students experience speaking anxiety due to deficiencies in linguistic competence. Nearly 20% of the learners find speaking without preparation an anxiety provoking factor and the same amount of other learners face problems because they cannot express themselves in English. It can be said that the reasons of speaking anxiety of freshman students have linguistic , cognitive, emotional, and social aspects.

Table 26: The Speaking Anxiety Reasons, Causes, and Percentage of Sophomore Students

The Reasons of Speaking Anxiety for Sophomore Students	Causes	Percentage
Peers' harsh manners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peers laugh and criticize their peers. • Peers do not listen each other. • Peer pressure. 	29%
Linguistic Deficiencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammatical Mistakes • Pronunciation Mistakes • Lack of Practice 	25%
Learner Characteristic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of self-confidence • Perfectionism • Being shy 	16.5%
Speaking in front of others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feeling insecure in front of others. • Being afraid of judgments. 	16.5%
Error Correction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being afraid of making mistakes • Feeling embarrassed due to error correction 	9%
Comparison with other students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Considering other students are more proficient in speaking skills. 	4%

Table 26 shows that sophomore students care about their peers' unkind attitudes at most (29%) while speaking in English. It might be said that these learners are concerned about their peers' manners and thoughts. The other crucial reason for speaking anxiety is lack of linguistic competence and their mistakes while speaking. Their personality also plays a significant role in their speaking anxiety; moreover, these learners have problems about speaking in front of peers or others. It can be said that the reasons of speaking anxiety of sophomore students have linguistic, cognitive, emotional, and social aspects.

Table 27: The Speaking Anxiety Reasons, Causes, and Percentage of Junior Students

The Reasons of Speaking Anxiety for Junior Students	Causes	Percentage
Linguistic Deficiencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammatical mistakes • Pronunciation mistakes • Making false sentences • Lack of vocabulary 	35%
Having problems in expressing themselves	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not being able to remember words in English • Not being able to explain their considerations in English 	17.5%
Harsh Manners of Peers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative evaluation • Fear of judgment • Inappropriate error correction 	15%
Lack of practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not having the opportunity to speak in English • Not having adequate amount of speaking activities 	12.5%
Speaking without preparation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher's unexpected questions • Speaking without having time to think. 	12.5%
Speaking in front of others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear of negative evaluation • Fear of being on the spotlight 	7.5%

Table 27 reveals that one third of the problems junior students experience about speaking anxiety is due to lack of linguistic competence. Their mistakes about grammar and pronunciation, making incorrect statements, and inadequate vocabulary provokes speaking anxiety. The second reason might be related to the first reason since linguistic deficiency is also a cause for problems in expressing ideas in the target language. Other significant reasons are negative attitudes of peers, the inadequacy of speaking practice, and speaking spontaneously.

Table 28: The Speaking Anxiety Reasons, Causes, and Percentage of Senior Students

The Reasons of Speaking Anxiety for Senior Students	Causes	Percentage
Linguistic Deficiencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammatical mistakes • False words • Pronunciation mistakes 	48%
Speaking in front of others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear of negative evaluation 	20%
Fear of judgment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear of criticism 	12%
Learner characteristic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of self-confidence • Unwillingness • Comparison with others 	12%
Speaking without preparation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speaking without having time to think 	4%
Harsh manners of teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Error correction inappropriately 	4%

Table 28 reveals that nearly half of the reasons of speaking anxiety stated by the senior students are related to linguistic deficiencies in English. It can be said that students do not have the required linguistic competence in the target language or they do not practice the language adequately; as a result, grammatical and pronunciation mistakes occur in their statements or they face problems about retrieval of the required information (vocabulary etc.). The other vital reason is stated as “speaking in front of other”, the senior students might abstain from peers’ negative evaluations, criticism, and/or judgments.

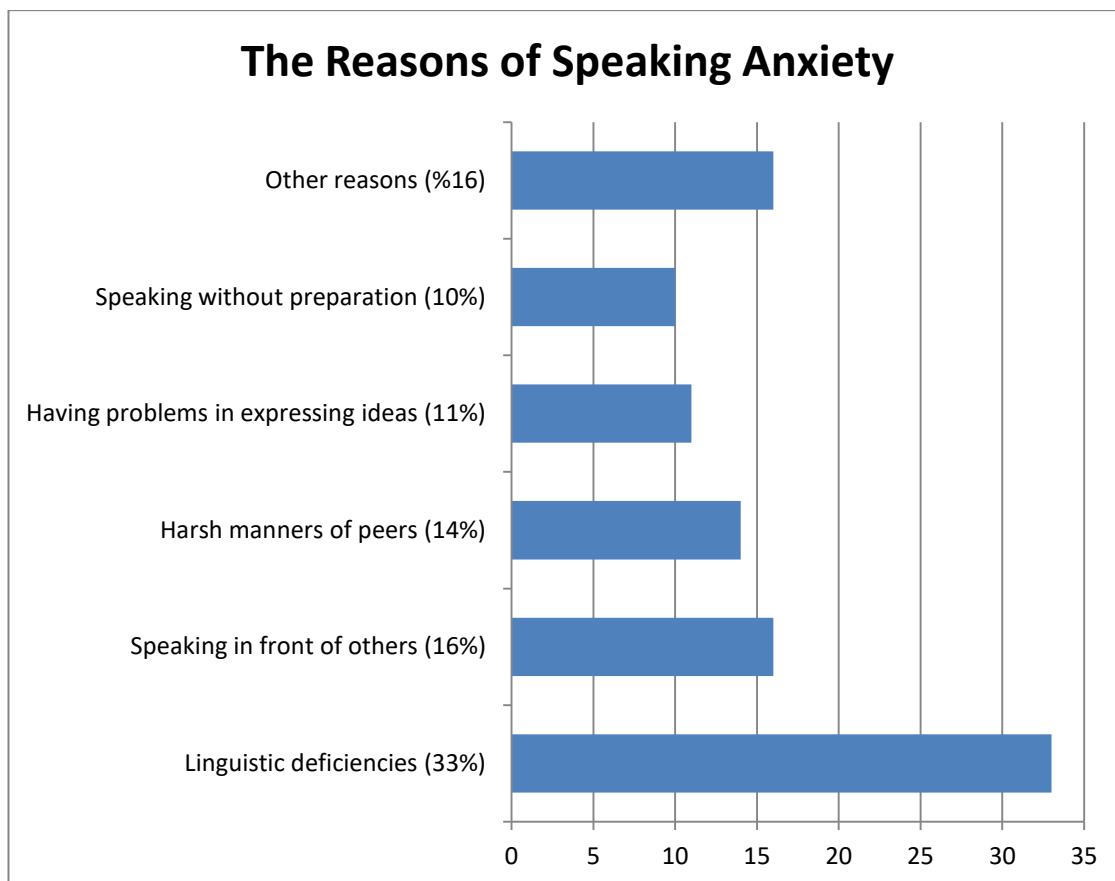


Figure 7: The Reasons of Speaking Anxiety

Figure 7 reveals that linguistic deficiencies (33%), speaking in front of others (16%), harsh manners of peers (13%), having problems in expressing ideas (11%), and speaking without preparation (10%) are the main sources of speaking anxiety stated by the pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University (N=122). Although numerous reasons are expressed by the learners, the topics in the figure constitutes %83 of the essential causes of speaking anxiety.

3.6.2.4. The Analysis of the RQ 3: What are the anxiety coping strategies utilized by Turkish pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University?

Open-ended questions are utilized to answer the third research question in the study. The learners' responses are classified into categories for each class; thereafter, the overall classification for all the participants (N=122) are displayed by Figure 8. Tables display the analysis of open-ended questions answered by freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior students in ELT department. The anxiety coping

strategies, the examples from learners' responses, and percentage of each strategy are illustrated in the tables.

Table 29: The Strategies used by Freshman students

The Strategies used by Freshman students	Examples	Percentage
Find solutions for linguistic deficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Use of simple words. ❖ Use sentences to explain forgotten words. 	23%
Keep speaking simple	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Think simple. ❖ Speak slowly. ❖ Give short answers. ❖ Use simple expressions. 	23%
Try to stay calm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Relax themselves. ❖ Take deep breathe. 	16.5%
Get help from teacher/peers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Cooperate with teacher and peers when necessitated. 	16.5%
Not over thinking about grammar rules	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Focus on fluency not accuracy 	10%
Practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Speak with foreigners. ❖ Read books in English. ❖ Listen audio books in English. 	11%

The correlation between reasons of speaking anxiety and strategies to handle it can be seen via table 29 since the two main reasons stated by the freshman students are “linguistic deficiencies” (22.5%) and “speaking in front of others” (22.5%) and the two main strategies for speaking anxiety are related to “find solutions for linguistic deficiency” (23%) and “keeping speaking simple” (23%). The first strategy is the enhancement of linguistic competence to cope with speaking anxiety and improvement of the accuracy of speaking whilst the second strategy is the simplification of words and statements to express themselves to others more straightforward. The other two important strategies are trying to feel comfortable and cooperating with instructors and peers to cope with speaking anxiety.

Table 30: The Strategies used by Sophomore students

The Strategies used by Sophomore students	Examples	Percentage
Preparation	❖ Prepare for the lessons beforehand.	23%
Not being afraid of making mistakes	❖ Perceive mistakes natural. ❖ Take advantage of mistakes.	19%
Find solutions for linguistic deficiency	❖ Use gestures. ❖ Use other words and expressions.	19%
Practice	❖ Practice speaking skills.	16%
Speak less	❖ Reticence. ❖ Avoidance of speaking.	11.5%
Try to stay calm	❖ Relax themselves. ❖ Take deep breathe.	11.5%

The correlation between reasons of speaking anxiety and strategies to handle it can be seen via the tables since the two main reasons stated by the sophomore students are “peers’ harsh manners” (29%) and “linguistic deficiencies” (25%) and the three main strategies to handle it are “preparation” (23%), “not being afraid of making mistakes” (19%), and “find solutions for linguistic deficiency”. Preparation and not being afraid of making mistakes can be solutions for managing the unkind attitudes of peers since learners feel prepared and ready to speak in front of others on account of preparation; furthermore, they perceive mistakes as natural signs of learning; therefore, they will not concern about grammatical or pronunciation mistakes and this approach aids them speaking more confidently.

Table 31: The Strategies used by Junior students

The Strategies used by Junior students	Examples	Percentage
Try to be calm/careful	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Use relaxation techniques. ❖ Teacher reduces students' concerns. 	20%
Practice of four language skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Read books in English. ❖ Watch videos in English. ❖ Listening exercises. 	17.5%
Preparation/ Think before speaking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Prepare for the lesson beforehand. 	13.5%
Ignore others' presence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Not paying attention to others. 	11.5%
Find solutions for linguistic deficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Use gestures. ❖ Check dictionary ❖ Express ideas with different words. 	11.5%
Not being afraid of making mistakes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Perceive mistakes natural. 	11.5%

The correlation between reasons of speaking anxiety and strategies to handle it can be seen via the tables since the two main reasons stated by the junior students are “linguistic deficiencies” (35%) and “having problems in expressing themselves” and the three main strategies to handle it are “try to be calm/careful” (20%), “practice of four language skills” (17.5%), and “preparation/think before speaking” (13.5%). All three of the strategies are functional for compensating for linguistic deficiencies, and problems in expressing ideas can be solved by feeling relaxed and practicing reading, listening, and writing skills.

Table 32: The Strategies used by Senior students

The Strategies used by Senior students	Examples	Percentage
Find solutions for linguistic deficiencies	❖ Improve pronunciation. ❖ Improve vocabulary.	22%
Practice	❖ Speak with peers, friends, foreigners.	16%
Improve other language skills	❖ Read and listen in English.	15%
Try to stay calm	❖ Try to handle heart pounding. ❖ Take breath.	15.5%
Preparation	❖ Come to the class with preparation. ❖ Having information about the topic.	15.5%
Not being afraid of mistakes	❖ Perceive mistakes usual.	10%
Keep silent	❖ Do not speak when they are not familiar with the topic.	7%

The main reason for speaking anxiety is stated as “linguistic deficiencies” (48%) by the senior students, and supportively the two main strategies to cope with it are stated as “find solutions for linguistic deficiencies” (22%) and practice (15.5%) and these two strategies are fundamental for the development of linguistic competence. Improvement of other skills, trying to stay calm, and preparation are also functional for linguistic deficiencies and speaking in front of others.



Figure 8: The Strategies for Speaking Anxiety

Figure 8 reveals that find solutions for linguistic deficiencies (18%), practice of four language skills (18%), try to stay calm (16.5%), preparation for the lesson (14), and not being afraid of making mistakes (12%) are the main strategies utilized by pre-service ELT teachers at Balikesir University (N=122). Although numerous strategies are expressed by the learners, the topics in the figure constitutes 79% of the essential strategies for speaking anxiety.

3.6.2.5. The Analysis of the RQ 4: What is the role of the instructors in coping with speaking anxiety?

Open-ended questions are utilized to answer the fourth research question in the study. The learners' responses are classified into categories for each class; thereafter, the overall classification for all the participants (N=122) are displayed by Figure 9.

Tables display the analysis of open-ended questions answered by freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior students in ELT department. The anxiety coping strategies used by the instructors and percentage of each strategy are illustrated in the tables.

Table 33: Strategies according to Freshman students

Strategies according to Freshman students	Percentage
Instructors help learners about speaking problems.	20.5%
They encourage and motivate students to speak in English.	18%
They correct pronunciation mistakes and teach the correct pronunciation.	18%
They correct mistakes.	16%
They provide opportunities to speak and practice English. (Student presentations, discussion topics)	13.5%
They do not allow L1 use	4.5%
They ask questions about the topic	4.5%
They show the mistakes and let learners correct them.	4.5%

Freshman students express that instructors in their department support them when they have speaking problems (20.5%) , they promote speaking practices (18%), and pay attention to pronunciation mistakes and demonstrate the correct versions

(18%). In addition to pronunciation mistakes, they are also careful about grammatical mistakes and wrong word uses (16%). To lessen these problems and facilitate speaking skills, they integrate speaking activities and tasks to provide opportunities for learners (13.5%).

Table 34: Strategies according to Sophomore students

Strategies according to Sophomore students	Percentage
Instructors show and correct mistakes.	26.5%
They provide opportunities to speak and practice English. (Student presentations, create an atmosphere to speak)	20%
They support students to speak in English.	16.5%
They comfort learners to speak confidently in English.	13.5%
They correct pronunciation mistakes.	10%
They give advices for improving speaking skills.	7%
They ask questions to help students.	6%

Sophomore students express that instructors in their department pay attention to the mistakes made by the students during speaking (26.5%); moreover, they create a non-threatening classroom environment to promote speaking in English (20%), and encourage students to speak in the classes, activities, and presentations (16.5%).

Table 35: Strategies according to Junior students

Strategies according to Junior students	Percentage
Instructors correct mistakes.	30%
They help for speaking accuracy and fluency.	16.5%
They provide opportunities to speak and practice English.	16.5%
They motivate and encourage to speak in English.	16.5%
They speak in English in the lessons.	10%
They provide opportunities to practice four language skills.	6.5%
They do not force to speak.	4%

Similar to sophomore students, junior students also express “correct mistakes” (30%) as the most utilized strategy by instructors to decrease speaking problems faced by the learners. Furthermore, instructors support learners to practice

English (16.5%), motivate them (16.5%) with a warm classroom environment and speaking activities (16.5%).

Table 36: Strategies according to Senior students

Strategies according to Senior students	Percentage
Instructors provide opportunities to speak and practice English.	22.5%
They use reading and listening activities and show videos in English.	16%
They show and correct mistakes.	16%
They correct pronunciation mistakes.	9.5%
They help students when necessary.	9.5%
They ask questions to aid students.	9.5%
They encourage students to speak in English.	5%
They comfort learners to stay calm.	5%
Teacher improves himself/herself about speaking in English.	4%
They provide time before letting students speak.	3%

Senior students express that instructors in their department attach importance to the activities for speaking skills (22.5%) and use other language skills to enhance these skills (16). They also pay attention to the demonstration and correction of mistakes (16%). Table also indicates that senior students define the strategies diversely and express different strategies used by the instructors.

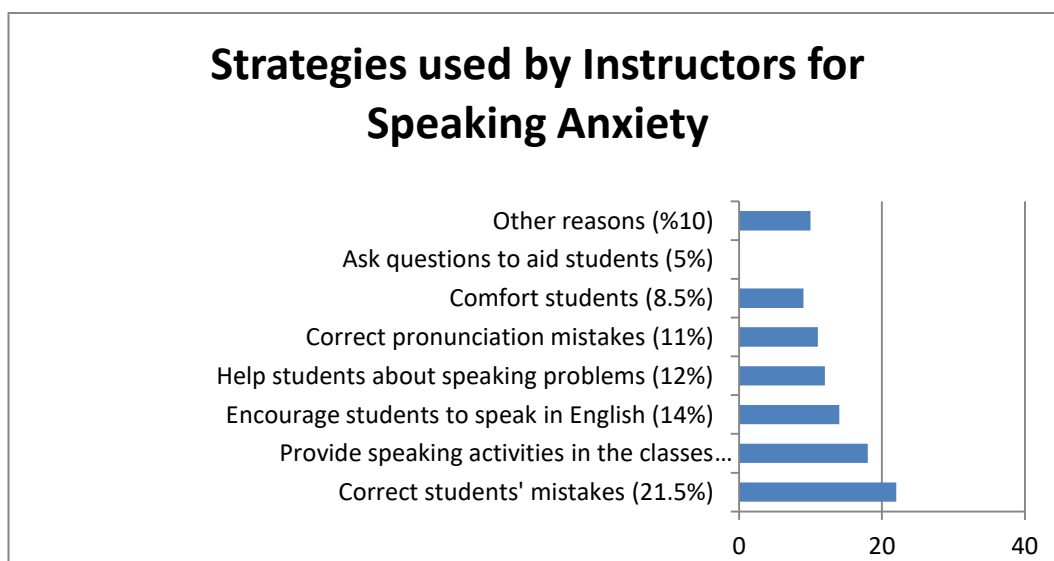


Figure 9: Strategies used by Instructors for Speaking Anxiety

Figure 9 reveals that the strategies utilized by instructors for speaking anxiety, stated by pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University, are correct students' mistakes (21.5%), provide speaking activities in the classes (18%), encourage students to speak in English (14%), help students about speaking problems (12%), correct students' pronunciation mistakes (11%), comfort students (8.5%), ask questions to aid students (5%). Although numerous strategies are expressed by the learners, the topics in the figure constitutes 90% of the essential strategies used by instructors for speaking anxiety.

3.6.2.6. The analysis of the RQ 5: What is the influence of anxiety coping strategies on decreasing the speaking anxiety level of learners?

In order to answer this research question, the research conducted 4 week speaking club with 8 freshman ELT students at Balıkesir University. Throughout these lessons, the researcher eliminates the fear of negative evaluation, utilizes informal assessment techniques (self-assessment, peer-assessment, and learner diaries), supports and encourages speaking in the target language, creates a non-threatening classroom environment, and makes learners use anxiety coping strategies to decrease their speaking anxiety level. Each week the researcher takes comprehensive notes about observations of each student and FLSAQ is conducted as a pretest and posttest in the study. The difference between pretest and posttest results is illustrated in the table.

Table 37: The Mean Score Differences between Pretest and Posttest

	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	p(sig.(2-tailed))
Pretest	8	3.67	.37			
				3.09	7	.017*
Posttest	8	3.04	.83			

p<.05*

Table 37 displays that there is a statistically significant difference between the pretest mean scores (M= 3.67, SD=.37) and the posttest mean scores (M=3.04,

SD=.83); therefore, the results indicate that anxiety coping strategies used by the instructor, namely, eliminating the fear of negative evaluation and formal evaluation, choosing interesting speaking topics, using language games, using informal assessment techniques (self-assessment, peer-assessment), friendly and supportive teacher attitudes, and a non-threatening classroom environment, influence the speaking anxiety level of learners in a positive way.

A thorough analysis is illustrated in the following tables for each student to examine their adjustment after the speaking club. The pretest results of FLSAQ, their anxiety coping strategies, and posttest results of FLSAQ are demonstrated in the tables; furthermore, the analysis of other reasons are explained by the researcher in accordance with her and peer observations.

Table 38: Student I Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies

Student	Pretest Results	The Anxiety Coping Strategies used by the Learner	Posttest Results
Student I	3.72	<p>1st Week: Positive emotions, collaboration with student C, self-talk</p> <p>2nd Week: Preparation, Positive emotions, Collaboration and cooperation with student C, Note taking, Self-talk</p> <p>3rd Week: Positive emotions, Cooperation, note taking, self-talk, Teacher-Student appreciation</p> <p>4th Week: Preparation, cooperation, positive emotions, collaboration, teacher-student appreciation, self-talk</p>	2.44

Table 38 shows that the speaking anxiety level of student I decreases from 3.72 to 2.44 as a result of the anxiety coping strategies used by the learner and the instructor throughout the 4 week speaking club. Particularly, the most recognizable aspect of this student is motivation to speak in English, as stated in her learner diaries, and her collaboration and cooperation with student C, as observed by the instructor. She comes to the lesson prepared since also finds the topics attractive. Owing to these strategies, her speaking anxiety level lessens at the end of the speaking club.

Table 39: Student B Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies

Student	Pretest Results	The Anxiety Coping Strategies used by the Learner	Posttest Results
Student B	3.50	1st Week: Positive emotions, cooperation with student A, self-talk 2nd Week: Positive emotions, Note taking, Self-talk 3rd Week: Positive emotions, note taking, self-talk, Teacher-Student appreciation 4th Week: Preparation, cooperation, positive emotions, collaboration, teacher-student appreciation, self-talk	2.67

Table 39 shows that the speaking anxiety level of student B decreases from 3.50 to 2.67 as a result of the anxiety coping strategies used by the learner and the instructor throughout the 4 week speaking club. Particularly, this student was shy in the first two weeks yet his good rapport with the instructor and peers in the club aided him to reduce his speaking anxiety level. Especially in the game week, he collaborated with his peers a lot. Owing to these strategies, his speaking anxiety level lessens at the end of the speaking club.

Table 40: Student A Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies

Student	Pretest Results	The Anxiety Coping Strategies used by the Learner	Posttest Results
Student A	3.28	1st Week: Note-taking, Positive emotions, cooperation with student B, self-talk 2nd Week: Preparation, Positive emotions, Note taking, Self-talk 3rd Week: Positive emotions, Cooperation, note taking, self-talk, Teacher-Student appreciation 4th Week: cooperation, positive emotions, collaboration, teacher-student appreciation, self-talk	2.22

Table 40 shows that the speaking anxiety level of student A decreases from 3.28 to 2.22 as a result of the anxiety coping strategies used by the learner and the instructor throughout the 4 week speaking club. Particularly, this student was quite in the first lesson yet he became more comfortable after being familiar with the classmates and the instructor. In the game week, he was one of the most participated students and his sentences were creative with proper explanations. Owing to these strategies, his speaking anxiety level lessens at the end of the speaking club.

Table 41: Student E Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies

Student	Pretest Results	The Anxiety Coping Strategies used by the Learner	Posttest Results
Student E	3.39	<p>1st Week: Note taking, Positive emotions, teacher-student appreciation (according to her learner diary), self-talk</p> <p>2nd Week: Preparation, Positive emotions, Collaboration with student H, Note taking, Self-talk</p> <p>3rd Week: Positive emotions, Cooperation, note taking, self-talk, Teacher-Student appreciation</p> <p>4th Week: cooperation, positive emotions, collaboration, teacher-student appreciation, self-talk</p>	2.28

Table 41 shows that the speaking anxiety level of student E decreases from 3.39 to 2.28 as a result of the anxiety coping strategies used by the learner and the instructor throughout the 4 week speaking club. Particularly, this student was self-disciplined from the very beginning of the club. Moreover, she was motivated and had positive emotions for the club; therefore, she participated to the activities as much as possible. Owing to these strategies, her speaking anxiety level lessens at the end of the speaking club.

Table 42: Student H Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies

Student	Pretest Results	The Anxiety Coping Strategies used by the Learner	Posttest Results
Student H	3.78	1st Week: Note-taking, teacher-student appreciation (according to her learner diary), self-talk 2nd Week: Preparation, Positive emotions, Collaboration with student E, Note taking, Self-talk 3rd Week: Preparation, Positive emotions, note taking, self-talk, Teacher-Student appreciation 4th Week: cooperation, positive emotions, collaboration, teacher-student appreciation, self-talk	3.00

Table 42 shows that the speaking anxiety level of student H decreases from 3.78 to 3.00 as a result of the anxiety coping strategies used by the learner and the instructor throughout the 4 week speaking club. Particularly, this student spoke with preparation as she took notes for answering the questions; moreover, she took notes for other speaking activities i.e. “Think, Pair, Share”. She had positive attitudes as stated by her diaries and teacher observations. Owing to these strategies, her speaking anxiety level lessens at the end of the speaking club.

Table 43: Student C Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies

Student	Pretest Results	The Anxiety Coping Strategies used by the Learner	Posttest Results
Student C	3.67	1st Week: Positive emotions, collaboration with student I, teacher-student appreciation (according to his learner diary), self-talk 2nd Week: Positive emotions, Collaboration and cooperation with student I, Note taking, Self-talk 3rd Week: Positive emotions, note taking, self-talk, Teacher-Student appreciation 4th Week: cooperation, positive emotions, collaboration, teacher-student appreciation, self-talk	3.39

Table 43 shows that the speaking anxiety level of student C decreases from 3.67 to 3.39 as a result of the anxiety coping strategies used by the learner and the instructor throughout the 4 week speaking club. However, the decrease is not significant; nonetheless, he expressed positive thoughts and feelings about the lessons in his learner diaries. The insignificant decrease might be due to his close friendship with student I since she was quite dominant and participative in the lessons. Due to his friend's attitudes, he might not be able to participate to the lesson adequately. On the other hand, his characteristic was observed introverted by the instructor. Yet owing to these strategies, his speaking anxiety level lessens at the end of the speaking club.

Table 44: Student G Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies

Student	Pretest Results	The Anxiety Coping Strategies used by the Learner	Posttest Results
Student G	3.56	1st Week: Collaboration with student F, self-talk, 2nd Week: Collaboration with student F, Self-talk 3rd Week: Preparation, Positive emotions, note taking, self-talk, Teacher-Student appreciation 4th Week: Preparation, cooperation, positive emotions, collaboration, teacher-student appreciation, self-talk	3.78

Table 44 shows that speaking anxiety level of student G increases from 3.56 to 3.78 in spite of the anxiety coping strategies used by the learner and the instructor. Particularly, this student was quite shy and anxious throughout the 4 week speaking club. She was the only student who could not state even few sentences about the topic in the first week and she generally answered questions in L1. The instructor tried to aid her with asking different questions, stating her own ideas, and supporting her to speak; nonetheless, she felt extremely nervous and this anxiety was recognizable by her tone of voice, body shaking, and uncomfortable gestures. Furthermore, the success and/or improvement of other students might influence her negatively. As a result, her speaking anxiety increased insignificantly at the end of

the speaking club. With a more long-continued language education or other anxiety coping strategies, her speaking anxiety level might be lessened.

Table 45: Student F Pretest-Posttest Results and Anxiety Coping Strategies

Student	Pretest Results	The Anxiety Coping Strategies used by the Learner	Posttest Results
Student F	4.50	<p>1st Week: Note-taking, Positive emotions, collaboration with student G, teacher-student appreciation (according to her learner diary), self-talk</p> <p>2nd Week: Preparation, Collaboration with student G, Self-talk</p> <p>3rd Week: Preparation, Positive emotions, note taking, self-talk, Teacher-Student appreciation</p> <p>4th Week: Preparation, cooperation, positive emotions, collaboration, teacher-student appreciation, self-talk</p>	4.61

Table 45 displays that that speaking anxiety level of student F increases from 4.50 to 4.61 in spite of the anxiety coping strategies used by the learner and the instructor. As it is shown in the table, the pretest mean score of student F was quite high and this anxiety level was recognizable during the speaking club by the instructor and peer of the instructor. She was not able to speak in front of others, her voice was low almost all the time (others had difficulties to hear her), and she usually acted in an anxious manner. The instructor tried to aid her with a facilitative and encouraging attitude, she also asked simple open-ended questions about the topic, and provided her time before speaking; however, her speaking anxiety level increased at the end of the speaking club. With a more long-continued language education or other anxiety coping strategies, her speaking anxiety level might be lessened.

3.7. Summary

In this chapter, the research design, data collection, instruments and procedures, participants and the analysis of the study were presented successively. In the analysis of the study, the findings of qualitative and quantitative data were displayed via tables and figures; furthermore, the answers for each research question of the study were also presented. The study includes two sections: the first section is an extensive examination of speaking anxiety levels of pre-service ELT teachers at Balikesir University, the relation between anxiety and different components involving gender, class, and language education of pre-service ELT teachers at Balikesir University via FLSAQ; furthermore, the reasons of speaking anxiety, anxiety coping strategies, and instructors' role in learners' speaking anxiety problems are also classified by means of open-ended questions; the second section is an action research with 8 freshman ELT students and this section aims to figure out the effect of anxiety coping strategies used by instructors and learners on speaking anxiety level of students. The findings of the first section indicate that learners has a moderate level of speaking anxiety and female students experience anxiety more than male students. The class and language education do not influence speaking anxiety significantly. The analysis of the open-ended questions reveals that the most general reasons for speaking anxiety are reported as linguistic deficiencies, speaking in front of others, and harsh manners of peers whilst the most common anxiety coping strategies are found as find solutions for linguistic deficiencies, practice of four language skills, try to stay calm. The most common strategies used by the instructors are reported as correction of students' mistakes, providing speaking activities in the classes, encouraging students to speak in English, and helping students about speaking problems. The findings of the second section indicate that anxiety coping strategies used by the instructor, namely, eliminating the fear of negative evaluation and formal evaluation, choosing interesting speaking topics, using language games, using informal assessment techniques (self-assessment, peer-assessment), friendly and supportive teacher attitudes, and a non-threatening classroom environment, influence the speaking anxiety level of learners in a positive way; therefore, the speaking anxiety level of students decreased (%75) after the speaking club.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the summary and discussion of the each research question is presented. In discussion part the summary of the each research question and comparison of it with other related studies are displayed. In conclusion part, a brief summary of the current study is presented.

4.1. Discussion

In this part the summary of each research question and comparison of it with other related studies are displayed.

RQ 1: What is the speaking anxiety level of pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University?

In the current study, the speaking anxiety level of pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University is found as moderate; therefore, students do not experience high or low level of anxiety. The results of the current study is parallel with other studies such as Balemir (2009), Bozok (2018), Çağatay (2015), Karakaya (2011), Occhipinti (2009), and Saltan (2003) since in these studies EFL learners experience a moderate level of speaking anxiety. However, Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014) report a low level of speaking anxiety level in their studies. To conclude, pre-service ELT teachers, as EFL learners, experience a moderate level of speaking anxiety as other studies in the field.

RQ 1a: Is there a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and gender?

In the current study, the results of the FLSAQ reveal that there is a statistically significant difference between male and female students in terms of foreign language speaking anxiety.

The mean scores of the two groups indicate that female students experience a higher level of speaking anxiety in comparison to male students. In the studies of Balemir (2009), Bozok (2018), Dalkılıç (2001), Occhipinti (2009), Öztürk (2012), Wilson (2006), and the findings also display that female students experience a higher level of speaking anxiety than male students. However in the studies of Tianjian (2010) and Tsai (2014), there is no significant difference between genders in terms of speaking anxiety. In conclusion, there are other studies in the field that reports female students experience a higher level of speaking anxiety than male students.

RQ 1b: Is there a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and language level?

In the current study, the results of the FLSAQ reveal that the language level of the students does not have a significant effect on learners' foreign language speaking anxiety; therefore, there is not a significant correlation between learners' language levels (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th) and their speaking anxiety level. Similarly, the studies of Balemir (2009), Bozok (2018), and Çağatay (2015) also report that there is not a significant correlation between learners' proficiency level and their speaking anxiety level.

RQ 1c: Is there a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety and language education?

In the current study, the results of the FLSAQ show that there is not a significant difference between freshman and senior ELT students in terms of foreign language speaking anxiety. Similarly, the studies of Balemir (2009), Bozok (2018), and Çağatay (2015) also report that there is not a significant correlation between learners' proficiency level and their speaking anxiety level. It can be supposed that, the period of education does not change or influence speaking anxiety level. However Dalkılıç (2001) finds a significant relation between speaking anxiety and achievement levels since the findings reveal that the higher the achievement level is, the higher the speaking anxiety is. Similarly, Tsai (2014) finds a significant relation between speaking anxiety and proficiency level yet in his study less proficient learners experience higher level of anxiety. In conclusion, there are different results in terms of the relation between speaking anxiety and language education possibly due to different participants and data collection tools.

RQ 2: What are the reasons of speaking anxiety defined by Turkish pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University?

In the current study, the reasons of speaking anxiety are found as linguistic deficiencies (%33), speaking in front of others (%16), and harsh manners of peers (%14), having problems in expressing ideas (%11), and speaking without preparation (%10) in general. Firstly, the study of Öztürk (2012) shows parallelism with the current study since the interview responses indicate that learners experience anxiety in the following circumstances: "When I forget or cannot remember appropriate words" and "When I cannot pronounce the words correctly"; moreover, Horwitz et al. (1986) state the incompetency in English as the main source of foreign language anxiety, similarly the studies of Dalkılıç (2001) and Bozok (2018) also find "lack of knowledge" as a main source of speaking anxiety and all these studies are related to "linguistic deficiencies".

Secondly, “speaking in front of others” is also found as one of the main sources of speaking anxiety in the following studies: Koch and Terrel (1991), Öztürk (2012), Price (1991), Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009), and Young (1990).

Thirdly, “harsh manners of peers” is also stated one of the main sources of speaking anxiety in the following studies: Balemir (2009), Bozok (2018), Öztürk (2012), and Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014), since these studies indicate that fear of negative evaluation, others’ negative thoughts or negative judgments by others cause speaking anxiety.

RQ3: What are the speaking anxiety coping strategies utilized by Turkish pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University?

In the current study, the speaking anxiety coping strategies are stated as “find solutions for linguistic deficiencies” (%18), “practice of four language skills” (%18), “try to stay calm” (%16.5), “preparation for the lesson” (%14), and “not being afraid of making mistakes” (%12). Similar to the first strategy in the study, Williams and Andrade (2008) state that incompetency in the target language can be a problem for speaking; therefore, the use of communication strategies are recommended to decrease anxiety; similar to the second strategy in the study, Atasheneh and Izadi (2012), Çağatay (2015), Cenoz and Lecumberri (1999), Cohen (2009), Kondo and Ying-Ling (2004), and McCoy (1979) suggest the practice of language skills to develop speaking skills and decrease speaking anxiety; similar to the third strategy in the study, Gilliland and James (1983), Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza (2014), Horwitz (1996), Kondo and Ying-Ling (2004), MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012), Marwan (2007), and Woodrow (2006) point the significance of relaxation techniques and trying to be calm for lessening speaking anxiety; similar to the fourth strategy in the study, Cohen (2009), Krashen (1982), Kondo and Ying-Ling (2004), Marwan (2007) Occhipinti (2009), and Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014) highlights the vitality of preparation for decreasing speaking anxiety, similar to the fifth strategy in the study, Azher, Anwar and Naz (2010) and Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014) suggest that learners should not be afraid of making mistakes in order to enhance their oral production and decrease their anxiety level.

RQ 4: What is the role of the instructors in coping with speaking anxiety?

In the current study, strategies used by the instructors to cope with speaking anxiety are reported as “correct students’ mistakes” (%21.5), “provide speaking activities in the classes” (%18), “encourage students to speak in English” (%14), “help students about speaking problems” (%12), “correct students’ pronunciation mistakes” (%11), and “comfort students” (%8.5).

The studies of Azher et al. (2010), Cohen (2010), Kitano (2001), MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), MacIntyre et al. (1998), and Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) state that “encourage students to speak in English” has a crucial influence on decreasing speaking anxiety. The studies of Azher, Anwar and Naz (2010), Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza (2014), and Tabataba’ian (2012) propose that “provide speaking activities in the classes” are vital for lessening speaking anxiety. On the other hand, Horwitz (1996) states that instructors should “comfort students” for promoting their speaking skills and lessening their speaking anxiety, finally, the studies of Azher, Anwar and Naz (2010) and Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) indicate that language teachers should pay attention to problems of learners and “help students about speaking problems”

RQ5: What is the influence of anxiety coping strategies on decreasing the speaking anxiety level of learners?

In the current study, the findings of the pretest and posttest results of FLSAQ display that anxiety coping strategies used by learners and the instructor have a positive influence on decreasing the speaking anxiety level of learners. These anxiety coping strategies are also recommended and found influential in different studies as stated in the following paragraphs.

The strategies used by the instructor are a non-threatening (anxiety-free) classroom environment (Anwar and Naz, 2010; Çağatay, 2015; Dinçer and Yeşilyurt,

2013; Öztürk and Gürbüz, 2014; Tabataba'ian, 2012; Young, 1990), instructors' supportive and facilitator manners (Alrabai, 2015; Cohen, 2010; Dalkılıç, 2001; Han, Tanrıöver, and Şahan, 2016; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991; Young, 1990); pair works, group works, personalized activities (Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza, 2014; Krashen, 1982; Lightbown and Spada, 2013; Occhipinti, 2009; Young, 1990); providing time for preparation (Çağatay, 2015; Gregersen et al., 2014; Öztürk and Gürbüz, 2014; Yunus and Singh, 2014); games (Saunders and Crookall, 1985, Young, 1991); positive teacher-student relation (Han, Tanrıöver, and Şahan, 2016; Kitano, 2001; MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012; Tüm and Kunt, 2013; Young, 1999); presentations (Dalkılıç, 2001); and collaborative classroom environment (Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013; Kitano, 2001; Tüm and Kunt, 2013; Yunus and Singh, 2014).

The strategies used by the learners are preparation (Cohen, 2009; Gregersen et al., 2014; Occhipinti, 2009; Yunus and Singh, 2014); positive emotions (MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012), collaboration (Burden, 2004; Kitano, 2001; Yunus and Singh, 2014); cooperation (Pappamihiel, 2001); teacher-Student appreciation (Young, 1999); self-talk, talk with peers (McCoy, 1979, Wörde, 2003); self-assessment (Dörnyei, 2009, MacIntyre and Gregersen, 2012); note taking (Kondo and Ying-Ling, 2004); and peer-assessment (Cheng and Warren, 2005).

4.2. Conclusion

The numerous studies in the field display that foreign language anxiety, particularly speaking anxiety, is one of the most anxiety provoking factors in foreign language learning. To facilitate oral proficiency and lessen the debilitating effects of speaking anxiety, the current study aimed to reveal the reasons of speaking anxiety, the strategies used by the learners, and the role of instructors in decreasing speaking anxiety of learners. Furthermore, an action research, with 8 freshman ELT students, was conducted in order to investigate the effect of anxiety coping strategies used by the instructors and learners on learners' foreign language speaking anxiety.

Firstly, FLSAQ was applied to pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University in order to investigate the speaking anxiety level of the learners and its relationship with different components (gender, class, and language education); moreover, this questionnaire was applied as a pretest and posttest to the participants of the action research to investigate their speaking anxiety level before and after the

action research. For quantitative data, FLSAQ, a modified version of FLCAS by Horwitz et al. (1986) was conducted. Saltan (2003) adapts FLCAS by choosing 18 questions out of 33 questions that are directly related to speaking anxiety, Saltan (2003), Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014), and Bozok (2018) utilized it since this version was found to be precisely related to foreign speaking anxiety by Saltan (2003), it was used in this study. The data was analyzed statistically via SPSS.

Secondly, 4 open-ended questions were asked to pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University to investigate the reasons of their speaking anxiety, the strategies used by the them, and the role of instructors in decreasing speaking anxiety of learners and the responses of participant were classified under categories in accordance with their percentages. Furthermore, throughout the action research teacher diary (observation), peer observation, self-assessment, peer-assessment, learner diary, and interview questions were utilized for qualitative data. The comprehensive analysis of each qualitative data instrument was presented with the purpose of an overall investigation. The participants were pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University and the data were collected in academic year of 2018-2019.

Thirdly, the quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed. The statistical findings reveal that pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University have a moderate level of speaking anxiety level ($M= 3.03$, $SD= 1.28$) whilst female students experience higher level of speaking anxiety ($M=3.10$, $SD= 1.27$) than male students ($M=2.90$, $SD= 1.30$). There was not a significant difference between the speaking anxiety mean scores in terms of the classes, as all classes have mean scores between 2.53 to 2.81. Sophomores (2nd class) have the highest speaking anxiety mean ($M=2.81$, $SD= ,653$) whilst Freshmen (1st class) have the lowest speaking anxiety mean ($M=2.53$, $SD= ,849$). As a result, the findings indicate that the class of learners does not influence the speaking anxiety level of learners. The comparison of the means of freshman ($M= 2.53$) and senior ($M= 2.58$), indicated that the period of education did not have an influence on speaking anxiety since the means were quite close to each other. Although senior students had been taking English language education for four years, they had nearly the same speaking anxiety mean ($M=2.58$) with the freshman students ($M=2.53$) who had been taking English language education for only one year. Therefore, it can be said that that anxiety does not influenced by education significantly because the means of freshman and senior's

does not change although there is a significant difference between two groups in terms of the periods of language education. The qualitative data, gathered from pre-service ELT teachers at Balıkesir University, displayed that the most common reasons for speaking anxiety were found as linguistic deficiencies, speaking in front of others, and harsh manners of peers whilst the most common anxiety coping strategies were found as find solutions for linguistic deficiencies, practice of four language skills, try to stay calm. The most common strategies used by the instructors were reported as correction of students' mistakes, providing speaking activities in the classes, encouraging students to speak in English, and helping students about speaking problems. The findings of quantitative data, gathered from 8 freshman ELT students at Balıkesir University, displayed that anxiety coping strategies used by the instructor, namely, eliminating the fear of negative evaluation and formal evaluation, choosing interesting speaking topics, using language games, using informal assessment techniques (self-assessment, peer-assessment), friendly and supportive teacher attitudes, and a non-threatening classroom environment, influence the speaking anxiety level of learners in a positive way; therefore, the speaking anxiety level of students decreased (%75) after the speaking club.

Lastly, as a result, learners felt more comfortable and spoke unconcernedly in a non-threatening classroom environment, with a supportive and facilitator instructor, small amount of students, and attractive topics. Moreover, the elimination of fear of negative evaluation and the use of informal assessment techniques also enhanced their speaking proficiency. The use of game decreased their speaking anxiety level since they focused on collaborating with group members and winning the game.

IMPLICATIONS

Several implications can be made in regard to the findings of the current study so as to improve communicative competence of EFL learners, particularly pre-service ELT teachers, and lessen their foreign language speaking anxiety. Implications can be listed under three categories: implications for English language teachers, implications for language teacher education programs, and implications for further research.

Implications for English Language Teachers

- 1) English language teachers should be conscious about the importance of their attitudes towards learners; since the current study displays that instructors' manners have a vital influence on learners' speaking anxiety. They should be supportive, facilitative, friendly, good-humored, warm, and patient to their learners.
- 2) Instructors can provide more opportunities for learners to practice their speaking skills in order to develop their oral proficiency and lessen their foreign language anxiety and/or speaking anxiety.
- 3) Since the lack of proficiency in linguistic and other language skills are reported as one of the main reasons for speaking anxiety, instructors can focus on all the language skills instead of focusing few of them.
- 4) Instructors should create an anxiety-free classroom environment in which learners can make mistakes without fear, and peers do not criticize each other

harshly. Moreover, the speaking activities can be selected in accordance with learners' interests, background knowledge, proficiency level, age, and gender.

- 5) Instructors should concentrate on linguistic deficiencies of learners as it is reported as one of the main reasons for speaking anxiety in the current study and other related studies (Bozok, 2018; Dalkılıç, 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986).

Implications for Language Teacher Education Programs

- 1) Since one of the reasons of speaking anxiety is lack of practice, language teacher education programs can support the participations of student exchange programs more; abroad experience can decrease learners' speaking anxiety with adequate amount of language practice. It would be better if these countries are English-speaking countries as positive communication and relation with native speaker can improve their self-confidence (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991).
- 2) Language education programs can involve online discussion boards or forums to encourage pre-service language teachers to share and/or discuss their ideas with other non-native and native pre-service language teachers to enhance their communicative competence, and handle their speaking anxiety. With these applications, both informal and formal language use can be practiced by the learners.
- 3) Language education programs can focus on pronunciation and other phonological aspects of English language since learners experience speaking anxiety when they are not certain about pronunciation of their statements. Linguistic deficiencies influence both accuracy and fluency of oral production; therefore, activities should be applied to facilitate their fluency and accuracy skills.
- 4) Language education programs should support informal assessment techniques such as self-assessment and peer-assessment; learner diaries are also functional for comprehending learners' thoughts and feelings about the classes. Since one of the main reasons of foreign language anxiety is "fear of negative evaluation" (Horwitz et al., 1986), the debilitating effect of formal

evaluation can be lessened or altered with alternative assessment techniques such as portfolios.

- 5) The curriculum can be arranged in accordance with the learner needs and integrate tasks to improve aural and oral skills as speaking and listening are interwoven language skills (Richards and Renandya, 2002), these tasks should develop communicative competence and aural skills of learners, moreover, they should decrease their speaking anxiety level.

Implications for Further Research

The current study was conducted in ELT Department at Balıkesir University. Additional studies with different departments, contexts, and/or universities can provide further and comprehensive perception to speaking anxiety. A comparative study can be conducted via involving other universities to the application of the questionnaire. The action research in the study was conducted with 8 freshman ELT students for 4 weeks; although 4 week is sufficient for a research, the period of the action research can be extended and/or the number of students can be increased. The longitudinal study can provide more accurate implications for the field. The current study used only one foreign language speaking anxiety questionnaire, other studies can apply other questionnaires to ensure the quantitative data results. In this study, there was not a significant difference between freshman and senior ELT students in terms of foreign language speaking anxiety. Similarly, the studies of Balemir (2009), Bozok (2018), and Çağatay (2015) also report that there was not a significant correlation between learners' proficiency level and their speaking anxiety level. It can be supposed that, the period of education does not change or influence speaking anxiety level. Additional studies can be carried out to investigate the relationship between proficiency level and/or language level and speaking.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

FOREIGN LANGUAGE SPEAKING ANXIETY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear participants,

The main purpose of this questionnaire is to have an idea on English language speaking anxiety in ELT departments. Your answers would contribute to this study.

After reading each statement, please circle the number which appeals to you most. There are no right or wrong answers for the items in this questionnaire. Thanks for your contribution. The answers to this questionnaire will be kept confidential.

Gender: Female/Male **Age:**..... **Class:**.....

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I am never quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am afraid of making mistakes in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I get frightened when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I get embarrassed to volunteer answers in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel nervous while speaking English with native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I don't feel confident when I speak English in classes.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I always feel that other students speak English better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I get nervous when I don't understand every word my English teacher says.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B

Please answer the 4 questions in a detailed way. You can answer the questions in English or in Turkish.

- 1. How do you feel while speaking in English in your lessons? What are your good and/or unpleasant experiences? What are the reasons of your unpleasant experiences?**

.....
.....
.....
.....

- 2. What are your strategies to cope with the problems you experience while you are speaking in English?**

.....
.....
.....
.....

- 3. What do your instructors do to solve your problems while you are speaking in English?**

.....
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.....
.....

- 4. What do your instructors do to enhance your speaking fluency and accuracy?**

.....
.....
.....
.....

Appendix C

FIRST WEEK WORKSHEET

Choose the correct option.

1.If you have a body mass index greater than 25, you are considered to be

- a)underweight b)overweight c) active d)an athlete

2.Researchers believe that one of the main causes of the current obesity is the of many people around the world.

- a)metabolism b)physique c)sedentary lifestyle d)anti-oxidants

3.Yogurt, cheese, eggs, milk, and meat are foods that contain high amounts of

- a)sugar b)protein c)carbonhydrate d)salt

4.Intermittent fasting means

- a)to eat only once a day
b) an eating pattern where you cycle between periods of eating and fasting
c)to abstain from all food
d)to go on a strict diet

5. What is “autophagy”?

.....
.....
.....

6.What is obesity?

- a)having a BMI of 20 b) having a BMI of 30 or more c) having a BMI of 15 d) having a BMI of 10

7. Eating poor diet of foods high in fats and calories, Not sleeping enough, Genetics, Growing older and Pregnancy can be a reason for

8.What do you think about the saying “You are what you eat”?

.....
.....
.....

Appendix D

SELF-ASSESSMENT

After reading each statement, please circle the number which appeals to you most.

	0-2 TRY HARDER	3-5 GOOD BUT CAN BE BETTER	6-8 GOOD	9-10 EXCELLENT
Interactive speaking and listening ability				
Production of extended responses				
Grammatical range and accuracy				
Lexical range and accuracy				
Pronunciation				

The strongest aspects of my speaking:

.....
.....
.....
.....

The improvable aspects of my speaking:

.....
.....
.....
.....

How did you feel during the lesson?

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.....

Appendix E

THIRD WEEK WORKSHEET

1. Do you know what these hashtags stand for?

#ootd: #foodporn: #f4f:
.....

#igers: #tbt: #l4l:
.....

2. How often do you use social media applications?

- a) once a day
- b) few times a day
- c) constantly
- d) I do not use any of them.

3. Which application is more popular among adolescents (ages between 10 to 24) in Turkey? What are the reasons in your opinion?

.....
.....
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.....

4. What do you think about “social media addiction”? Do you describe yourself as an addicted? Why or why not?

.....
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.....

“ Privacy is dead, and social media hold the smoking gun.”

5. Please write your opinions about the quote above with 50-70 words.

.....
.....
.....
.....

Appendix F

PEER EVALUATION FORM FOR INFORMATIVE (DEMONSTRATION) SPEECH

Speaker's Name: _____

Rate the following aspects of the speech presentation from 1 (needs improvement) to 5 (excellent) by circling the appropriate number.

	Excellent			Needs Improvement	
Gained attention & interest	5	4	3	2	1
Introduced topic ideas clearly	5	4	3	2	1
Organized ideas clearly	5	4	3	2	1
Developed & demonstrated each idea with enough detail w/i time limit	5	4	3	2	1
Used transitions between ideas	5	4	3	2	1
Used visuals to show & clarify main points/steps	5	4	3	2	1
Summarized ideas presented	5	4	3	2	1
Reinforced central idea	5	4	3	2	1
Closed presentation creatively	5	4	3	2	1
Kept eye contact	5	4	3	2	1
Use of voice, body & gestures	5	4	3	2	1

List 3 Strengths of the Presentation:

List 3 Suggestions for Improvement:

concepts and/or topics • Allows time for questions • Uses time management to cover content • Concludes and reviews of day's topic.

3. Interaction with Students

Potential areas for comment: • Presentation techniques are well utilized (i.e. movement, lecturing from notes vs. manuscript, eye contact) • Tone of voice indicates interest in the subject, students, and student questions • Creates a participatory classroom environment • Responsive to student nonverbal cues (i.e., excitement, boredom, confusion, apprehension) • Uses student names whenever possible • Encourages student questions • Provides clear explanations to student questions

4. Integration of Technology (if applicable)

Potential areas for comment: • Technology is used to engage students, enhance learning, and/or generally enrich students' class experience as part of lecture, activities, or discussion • Technology is leveraged to facilitate a learning experience that would otherwise not be possible • Student work done via technology outside of class is integrated into the class session (i.e. homework, discussion board).

5. General Comments, Summary & Suggestions: (to be filled out by peer observer)

This space could be used to describe the setting in which the lesson took place, relevant information about the makeup of the class, and any other descriptive characteristics that would provide appropriate context to the feedback. This space could also be used to highlight areas for suggested pedagogical improvement, along with concrete strategies for implementation.

Appendix H

Week 1 Lesson Plan

Title: Nutrition

Grade: Freshman English Language Students

Lesson Focus: Speaking

Objectives:

-Students will be able to speak out the topic “Nutrition”

Materials: Prezi presentation, Worksheet, Discussion topics handout, White board

Procedure	Details
<p>Presentation Introduction of Content and Language Describe activities that will introduce students to new language, or activities that will refresh the language for review. Time: 15 minutes</p>	<p>Topic : Nutrition Subtopics: Body Mass Index, Active- Sedentary Lifestyle, Obesity, Anorexia New vocabulary: Intermittent Fasting, Autophagy</p>
<p>Practice Students begin to work with the topic. Describe the activities that show how the students will practice the topic personally, or describe how students will practice with previously reviewed topic. Time: 10 minutes</p>	<p>Practice of the new vocabulary Students watch two videos and answer the related questions orally.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Can you explain “intermittent fasting” with ten words? 9. What is “high day/low day” in intermittent fasting program? 10. What is “protein cycling”? 11. What does 16/8 mean? 12. What is “autophagy”? 13. What are the benefits of autophagy? 14. What stimulates autophagy?
<p>Production Student internalize/master and use new vocabulary. Describe the activities that show how students will use language to communicate with peers or how students will use reviewed language to communicate with their peers Time: 20 minutes</p>	<p>Group work: Solutions for obesity, Intermittent Fasting Pros& Cons, and Tips for Weight Loss in Overweight Children. Students first talk about the topics in groups and then share their ideas with the class.</p>

Appendix I

Week 2 Lesson Plan

Title: Happiness

Grade: Freshman English Language Students

Lesson Focus: Speaking

Objectives:

-Students will be able to speak out the topic “Happiness”

Materials: Prezi presentation, Worksheet, Discussion topics handout, White board

Procedure	Details
<p>Presentation Introduction of Content and Language Describe activities that will introduce students to new language, or activities that will refresh the language for review. Time: 15 minutes</p>	<p>Topic : Happiness Subtopics: Happiness Essentials, Consumerism, The Effects of Consumerism, Minimalism, The Benefits of Minimalism New vocabulary: Consumerism, Minimalism</p>
<p>Practice Students begin to work with the topic. Describe the activities that show how the students will practice the topic personally, or describe how students will practice with previously reviewed topic. Time: 10 minutes</p>	<p>Practice of the new vocabulary Students watch an animation and answer the related questions orally.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. How often have you said “I just want to be happy”? 12. How often have you said to someone else, “I just want you to be happy”? 13. Have you ever stopped to consider exactly what happiness means? What exactly, is this happiness you are wishing for? 14. What is the difference between happiness and pleasure? 15. What are your needs in your life? 16. What are the happiness essentials for you? 17. What are the harmful effects of consumerism?

	<p>18. What can we do about consumerism?</p> <p>19. What is minimalism?</p> <p>20. Do you prefer consumerism or minimalism</p>
<p>Production</p> <p>Student internalize/master and use new vocabulary. Describe the activities that show how students will use language to communicate with peers or how students will use reviewed language to communicate with their peers.</p> <p>Time: 20 minutes</p>	<p>Think-Pair-Share Activity</p> <p>Students are given different topics related to the topic. First they think individually and silently, second they share their ideas with their pair, and third they share their ideas with the class.</p> <p>Speaking topics:</p> <p>“Ups and downs. Victories and defeats. Sadness and happiness. That’s the best kind of life.”,</p> <p>“Sing like no one is listening, love like you’ve never been hurt, dance like nobody is watching, and live like it’s heaven on earth.”, “Happiness is when what you think, what you say, and what you do are in harmony”,</p> <p>“Happiness is a place between too much and too little”,</p> <p>“Don’t waste a minute not being happy. If one window closes, run to the next window or break down a door”.</p>

Appendix J

Week 3 Lesson Plan

Title: Social Media

Grade: Freshman English Language Students

Lesson Focus: Speaking

Objectives:

-Students will be able to speak out the topic “Social Media”

Materials: Prezi presentation, Worksheet, Discussion topics handout, White board

Procedure	Details
<p>Presentation Introduction of Content and Language Describe activities that will introduce students to new language, or activities that will refresh the language for review. Time: 15 minutes</p>	<p>Topic : Social Media Subtopics: Social Media Addiction, Digital Detox, Social Media vs. Reality</p>
<p>Practice Students begin to work with the topic. Describe the activities that show how the students will practice the topic personally, or describe how students will practice with previously reviewed topic. Time: 10 minutes</p>	<p>Practice of the topic Students are asked questions related to the presented topic, also they watch a video and answer the related questions orally.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Why do you use social media? 2. Do you share in social media? 3. What is social media addiction? 4. Do you spend a lot of time thinking about social media or planning to use social media? 5. Do you feel urges to use social media more and more? 6. Do you use social media to forget about personal problems? 7. Do you often try to reduce your use of social media without success? 8. Do you become restless

	<p>or troubled if you are unable to use social media?</p> <p>9. Do you use social media so much that it has had a negative impact on your job or studies?</p> <p>10. What is digital detox?</p> <p>11. Do you have any ideas for digital detox?</p> <p>12. Have you ever tried digital detox?</p> <p>13. What do you think about the difference between social media and reality?</p> <p>14. What is an “insta-lie”?</p> <p>15. What are the harmful effects of social media?</p>
<p>Production Student internalize/master and use new vocabulary. Describe the activities that show how students will use language to communicate with peers or how students will use reviewed language to communicate with their peers. Time: 20 minutes</p>	<p>Pair interchange Five of the students are stable during the stage, each of them sit in the different parts of the class, other four students change their places one by one; as a result, these four students talk about five different topics while other five students talk about their own topic. Speaking topics: Relationships are harder now because conversations become texting, arguments become phone calls, and feelings become status updates.”, “Privacy is dead, and social media hold the smoking gun.”, “The best sign of a healthy relationship is no sign of it on social media.”, “Social media addiction”, “Social media detox”.</p>

Appendix K

Week 4 Lesson Plan

Title: Call My Bluff

Grade: Freshman English Language Students

Lesson Focus: Speaking

Objectives:

-Students will be able to speak while playing a game

Materials: White board

Procedure	Details
Presentation Presentation of the game to the learners Time: 5 minutes	The rules and procedure of the game are presented to the learners. Game rules: Students write 3 sentences on the board. Two of them should be true and one of them should be a lie about the students' personal life. Other students try to find the incorrect statement.
Practice Illustration of the game to the learners Time: 5 minutes	Instructor provide an example of the game procedure to the learners.
Production Playing the game. Time: 30 minutes	Each learner come to the board and write 3 sentences about his/herself. Others try to find the incorrect sentence.

Appendix L

Independent Samples T Test Results

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Speaking anxiety mean	Male	43	2,2668	,61223	,09336
	Female	79	2,8734	,66745	,07509

Independent Samples Test

	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	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
Speaking anxiety mean	,30	,580	-4,93	120	,000	-,60659	,12293	-,849	-,363	
										Equal variances assumed
Equal variances not assumed			-5,06	92,9	,000	-,60659	,11982	-,8445	-,3686	

Appendix M

One-way ANOVA results

Descriptives

Speaking Anxiety Mean

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
					freshman	38		
sophomore	21	2,8122	,65392	,14270	2,5145	3,1098	2,06	4,28
junior	31	2,7910	,68073	,12226	2,5413	3,0407	1,22	4,56
senior	32	2,5842	,56136	,09924	2,3818	2,7866	1,44	4,06
Total	122	2,6596	,70849	,06414	2,5326	2,7866	1,17	4,67

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Speaking Anxiety Mean

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,956	3	118	,416

ANOVA

Speaking Anxiety Mean

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1,829	3	,610	1,221	,305
Within Groups	58,908	118	,499		
Total	60,737	121			