T.C.
UNIVERSITY OF GAZİANTEP
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE SOURCES AND RELATIONS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LISTENING ANXIETY WITH RESPECT TO TEXT TYPE AND LEARNER VARIABLES: A CASE STUDY AT GAZIANTEP UNIVERSITY

MASTER'S OF ART THESIS

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Supervisor: Assist.. Prof. Dr. Berrin UÇKUN

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ABSTRACT

THE SOURCES AND RELATIONS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LISTENING ANXIETY WITH RESPECT TO TEXT TYPE AND LEARNER VARIABLES: A CASE STUDY AT GAZIANTEP UNIVERSITY

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The primary concern of this thesis was to explore the effects of different listening text types on EFL learners' Foreign Language Listening Anxiety levels.

The sample consisted of 157 Turkish EFL students at Gaziantep University – School of Foreign Languages. The participants were administered the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale in order to find out their classroom and listening anxiety levels. A background questionnaire was administered to determine the demographic qualities of the sample. Three types of listening texts (i.e. dialogue, lecture, and radio talk show) of three proficiency levels were administered to the participants and the anxiety levels were measured each time using an anxometer. The sources of Foreign Language Listening Anxiety were also analyzed based on students' responses to pre-identified sources.

As a result of an exploratory factor analysis, it was found that there were eight subcomponents of Foreign Language Listening Anxiety. Statistically significant negative correlations were obtained regarding the effects of Foreign Language Listening Anxiety and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety on subjects' listening performance and general English proficiency. It was also discovered that Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety was significantly related to subjects' exposure to English in the school medium but not significantly related to age, gender, or schooling background of participants. In terms of Foreign Language Listening Anxiety, none of the four factors was distinctive. The current study also demonstrated that listening text type was a distinctive factor for Foreign Language Listening Anxiety. Finally, three of Kim's (2000) sources of listening anxiety were found to influence the levels of listening anxiety experienced by subjects more than the other eleven sources.

Key words: Foreign Language Listening Anxiety, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, Listening Text Type, Affective Domain

ÖZET

YABANCI DİLDE DİNLEME KAYGISI'NIN METİN TÜRÜ VE ÖĞRENEN DEĞİŞKENLERİ İLE BAĞLANTILI OLARAK KAYNAK VE İLİŞKİLERİ: GAZİANTEP ÜNİVERSİTESİ'NDE BİR ÖRNEK-OLAY İNCELEMSİ

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Bu tezin temel amacı farklı dinleme metni türlerinin İngilizce öğrenenlerin Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı üzerine etkilerini araştırmaktır.

Örneklem Gaziantep Üniversitesi – Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'ndaki 157 Türk İngilizce öğrencisinden oluşturuldu. Katılımcıların sınıf ve dinleme kaygısı düzeylerini belirlemek için, kendilerine Yabancı Dilde Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği ve Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı Ölçeği verildi. Örneklemin demografik özelliklerini belirlemek için öğrencilere geçmişleriyle ilgili bir anket uygulandı. Üç farklı yabancı dil seviyesindeki üç farklı dinleme metni türü (dialog, konferans ve radyo konuşma programı) sınıflara dinletildi ve her seferinde kaygı düzeyleri bir kaygı-metre kullanılarak ölçüldü. Aynı zamanda Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı'nın kaynakları da öğrencilerin daha önceden belirlenmiş kaynaklara verdiği yanıtlar kullanılarak incelendi.

Betimleyici bir faktör analizinin sonucu olarak, Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı'nın sekiz adet alt bileşeninin olduğu tespit edildi. Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı ve Yabancı Dilde Sınıf Kaygısı'nın dinleme ve genel İngilizce yeterliğine etkisi açısından, istatistiksel olarak anlamlı negatif korrelasyonlar elde edildi. Aynı zamanda Yabancı Dilde Sınıf Kaygısı'nın İngilizce öğrenme süresiyle anlamlı bir ilişkisinin olduğu ancak yaş, cinsiyet ve daha önce okunan okulla anlamlı bir ilişkisinin olmadığı belirlendi. Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı açısından dört faktörün hiçbirisi ayırt edici değildi. Mevcut çalışma aynı zamanda dinleme metni türünün Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı üzerinde ayırt edici bir faktör olduğunu ortaya çıkardı. Son olarak, Kim'in (2000) dinleme kaygısı kaynaklarından üçünün İngilizce öğrenenler tarafından tecrübe edilen dinleme kaygısını diğer onbir kaynaktan daha fazla etkilediği bulundu.

Anahtar kelimeler: Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı, Yabancı Dilde Sınıf Kaygısı, Dinleme Metni Türü, Duygusal Alan

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1. PRESENTATION

This chapter includes the background information related to anxiety research, statement of the problem, the purpose and significance of the study, statement of the research questions, statement of the hypotheses, limitations of the study, assumptions of the study, definitions of the terms and abbreviations.

1.2. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

> "Sometimes when I speak English in class, I am so afraid I feel like hiding behind my chair." (Horwitz and Young, 1991)
>
> "I feel so dumb in my German class. I want to sit in the back of the room so maybe I won't get called on to speak. When I know I am going to have to say something, I spend what seems like eternity thinking of how it should be said and when I say it, it still doesn't come out right." (Horwitz and Young, 1991)
>
> "Sometimes, I don't even understand one word in the listening activities. I tremble when the teacher plays the tape in the exams. They speak so fast that I can't catch up with the speed of their utterances." (Uttered by a participant of the current study from Gaziantep University School of Foreign Languages - GUSFL)

Every foreign language learner sometimes feels inadequate, ineffective and helpless. When asked to comment on the feelings they experience in such situations, they pronounce some sound reasons. The reasons range from being unable to understand what is being spoken by the other party in the communication to being unable to produce the relevant utterances. For decades, researchers have tried to find out the possible reasons and outcomes of this situation. They have analyzed various variables that may affect a learner's foreign language learning. The major variables

seem to be related to the affective domain (Horwitz et al., 1986; Scovel 1991), the cognitive domain, personality (Littlewood, 1984), and demography.

Among these variables, affective ones are really useful in the way to explain the difficulties encountered in learning a foreign language. The affective variables include motivation orientations, learning strategies and anxiety states of the learners (Dörnyei, 2003). The focus of this thesis will be about one of these affective variables, namely anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986; Scovel, 1991), which is a hotly debated issue in foreign language teaching research. Researchers have attempted to identify and define the construct of anxiety, a key individual difference in language learning, for many years. Anxiety literature suggests some possible arguments explaining why language learners become anxious. Horwitz et al. (1986) claim that foreign language anxiety is a unique type of anxiety specific to foreign language learning, and their concept has been buttressed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, 1991a) and other theorists. They claim that language anxiety is a situation-specific type of general anxiety (trait anxiety) which influences language learning in various ways. It can influence learning negatively (which makes it *debilitating anxiety*) or positively (which makes it *facilitating anxiety*) *(*Scovel, 1991: 22).

It is claimed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) that language learners do not originally have anxiety when they start learning. Anxiety is a phenomenon developed in the course of language learning. It is a "learned emotional response". A teacher does not immediately see anxious learners in the first meeting with a class. Anxiety arises inside the students after they start forming impressions and attitudes towards language learning. If students' first impressions about language learning are negative, anxiety may begin to form. Moreover, if negative experiences persist, anxiety may cause the student to form negative self-perceptions, thereby performing poorly in the language learning process. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1989), the negative effects of language anxiety disappear as proficiency increases and more positive experiences begin to accumulate. They search the reason of anxiety not in the student but in the language learning experience, which indicates that the teacher of anxious students may be doing something unnatural leading the development of anxiety in his/her students.

Based on MacIntyre and Gardner's ideas on language learning, Ellis (1995, cited in Aydın, 2001: 3) proposed a model to explain the role of anxiety in language learning:

Table 1.1. A model by Ellis (1995) to explain the role of anxiety in language learning

Stage	***Type of anxiety***	***Effect on learning***
Beginner	Very little-restricted to state anxiety	None
Post beginner	Situation anxiety develops if learner develops negative expectations based on bad learning experiences	Learner expects to be nervous and performs poorly
Later	Poor performance and continued bad learning experiences result in increased anxiety	Continued poor performance

Table 1.1 illustrates the effect of language learning experience on anxiety which leads to the specified outcomes in the learning process. It shows that language learner has very little anxiety much of which is not related to situation specific anxiety at the beginning of language learning experience. Gradually, situation anxiety develops if learner forms negative expectations based on bad learning experiences. This causes the learner to expect to be nervous and to perform badly. So long as the anxiety-provoking experiences increase, the learner continues to possess anxiety as a reaction against the learning situation itself.

According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), language anxiety does not pose a threat to young learners (aged 5-11) since they haven't yet formed self-perceptions which will lead them to underestimate their performance and develop anxiety. It especially presents a great many difficulties to adults because they generally consider themselves as reasonably intelligent, socially adaptive and sensitive to different socio-cultural standards. When they have several bad experiences while learning a language, this becomes a reality shock and makes them doubtful about their own performance in language learning, which will eventually lead to foreign language anxiety.

The characteristic of language learning context also affects how anxious a language learner is. Since language learning context involves not only acquiring the linguistic properties of the language but also a new way to look at the world, foreign language anxiety should be considered separately from the general psychological anxiety concept. Guiora (1983) argues that language learning itself is "a profoundly unsettling psychological proposition" because it directly threatens an individual's

self-concept and worldview. It may sometimes be threatening to deal with multiple challenges for language learners. Attempting to acquire a new perspective for looking at the things, a language learner may feel more and more inadequate. This may lead to a lack of self-confidence, causing the learner to get in a vicious circle of anxiety.

The classroom environment is another factor creating anxiety or adding to the already existing anxiety (Aydın, 2001). Since the learners are always in a situation in which they have to prove themselves, they constantly face the threat of being humiliated by the peers. For example, they often have to produce unfamiliar structures for the sake of practice. However, in the event that they perform inadequately, they may be corrected or criticized by the teacher or the peers. This pressure is one of the most widespread causes of anxiety described in the anxiety literature (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989; Ellis, 1995).

The relationship between anxiety and language learning or performance in general has been examined in anxiety studies so far. However, literature mostly focused on significant negative correlations between anxiety and students' performance in speaking (Horwitz et al., 1986; Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002), in which students have been found to experience the greatest level of anxiety. Little research is available that investigates language anxiety as it relates to the other major language skills. Some views focusing on the relationship between anxiety and specific language skills have been pointed out by researchers as seen in the following part.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) claim that speaking can provoke anxiety, because it involves communicating with other people. By increasing the level of self-consciousness, it might easily generate anxiety. The learners might be aware of the deficiencies that they possess but do not often realize.

Hilleson (1996), in his diary study, observed various types of anxiety related to different skill areas. His participants demonstrated anxiety which was related to not only speaking and listening but also reading and writing. Other recent studies have attempted to measure anxiety specific to FL writing and reading. Cheng et al. (1999), for example, investigated the relationship between FL classroom anxiety and FL writing anxiety among English majors in Taiwan by using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and the adopted version of the Daly and Miller (1975a,b) Writing Apprehension Test

(SLWAT). They concluded that FL writing anxiety is a more specific type of anxiety, closely related to the language-particular skill of writing.

Saito et al. (1999) claim that, contrary to teacher intuitions, reading in a FL can be anxiety provoking to some students. They have found that FL anxiety is independent of target language. However, levels of reading anxiety were found to vary by target language and seem to be related to the specific writing systems. In addition, their study indicated that students' reading anxiety levels increased with their perceptions of the difficulty of reading in their FL, and "their grades decreased in conjunction with their levels of reading anxiety and general FL anxiety". These results refute the traditional teacher intuition that reading is not anxiety provoking since the students have time and opportunity to go back and forth and try to comprehend the text.

Listening is the least widely studied major skill as to whether it is anxiety-provoking or not. Krashen (cited in Young, 1992) suggests that listening may provoke anxiety when the input is incomprehensible. If the input is not comprehensible, the hearer may experience difficulty in understanding the content of the message. Also, the length of an utterance influences its comprehensibility level. Most language learners complain about the fact that they are having more difficulty with extended utterances in the foreign language.

In her study, Kim (2000) investigated the relationship between foreign language listening and anxiety. The results of the study demonstrated that listeners experience anxiety during foreign language learning. She also found out that listening anxiety is significantly related to both general foreign language anxiety and listening proficiency. This study also showed that foreign language learners are sensitive to the types of listening passages or tasks.

One of the published studies about anxiety in listening is done by Elkhafaifi (2005). His study presents the results of an empirical examination of the effect of general FL learning anxiety on students' achievement in an Arabic course and of listening anxiety on students' listening comprehension. He correlates the anxiety scores with final grades and listening comprehension scores. The results indicate that FL learning anxiety and listening anxiety are separate but related phenomena that both correlate negatively with achievement. The study also revealed significant negative correlations among FL learning anxiety, listening anxiety, and selected demographic variables.

So far, studies in listening anxiety have focused on major language skills as reflected by the use of course grades as performance measures. The current study will attempt to do the same thing with a significant difference. The researcher will control for text type in order to observe the effect of a certain type of listening text on students' listening anxiety as measured by an anxometer adopted from MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) and a checklist utilized to determine the sources of anxiety specific to each listening text type. In her study, Kim (2000) suggests that listeners are sensitive to different types of listening passages. However, her result is based on some retrospective interviews. The current study will look at the same research problem quantitatively.

1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Listening in a foreign language is an integrative skill, comprising of grammatical, phonetic and cognitive complexities. Unlike reading, there is no opportunity to go back and forth to control the text and have a second chance for comprehension. In addition, the listener has very little or no control over the speed, pace and sound quality of the listening (Buck, 2001). As Krashen (cited in Young, 1992) indicates when listening is incomprehensible, the listener experiences helplessness and apprehension because they feel that they cannot control their linguistic intake. The main reason for the incomprehensibility of the input is that the listener does not have the necessary listening competence, which leads to the decaying of the information in the listening text. Therefore, it is not inappropriate to assume that the more proficient a language learner at listening, the less apprehension s/he feels.

Based on the above assumption, it is possible to find novice listeners who complain that they do not understand a listening text. They are often unaware of what aspects of listening they should pay attention to or they try to pay attention to everything inclusively. In addition, they are usually unable to keep up with the pace of the listening. As a consequence, the listeners fall into a frustrating task-overload failure, perhaps with serious anxiety. In line with Ellis's model (1995), we can assume that the learners will experience anxiety as a result of failure, and this will lead to further anxiety.

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) found strong anxiety in listening as well as speaking and testing situations. They found out that highly-anxious learners suffer from so much anxiety that they miss the whole meaning. They experience difficulties in both distinguishing the sounds and structures of a listening message, and comprehending the content of the extended utterances in L2. Some quantitative studies support the contention that listening anxiety is significantly negatively related to listening comprehension (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994; MacIntyre et al., 1997). Nevertheless, these studies do not primarily focus on listening comprehension. Their main concern is about a combination of second language skills. Therefore, their findings cannot be considered as truly representative of listening anxiety. In those studies, only a small part of discussions and analyses were devoted to listening comprehension and listening anxiety was measured with only a few items on their overall anxiety scales. Kim (2000) realized this gap in the anxiety literature and devised a specific scale for listening anxiety, namely Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (will be referred to as FLLAS in this study). Her study suggested that foreign language learners do experience anxiety in response to listening comprehension. He performed a factor analysis on FLLAS and revealed two factors, the first of which was related to tension and worry over English listening, and the second concerning lack of self-confidence in listening.

1.4. PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The current study will add a new dimension to the listening anxiety issue. The existence of listening anxiety has been proved by the studies mentioned above and it was established that foreign language learning anxiety and listening anxiety are separate but related phenomena (Elkhafaifi, 2005). The first focus of the current study is to find out whether listening anxiety is affected by the text type. The current study will try to answer this question by giving students listening texts which belong to different text types i.e. dialogue, lecture, and radio talk show. Afterwards, the participants will be given an “anxometer” (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991) and a checklist of the sources of anxiety (based on Kim, 2000) to determine their level of anxiety while listening to different text types. The analysis of the results will either prove or refute the existence of a difference among text types in terms of creating listening anxiety in the learner. The second focus of the study is to look for relationships between Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) and listening

proficiency as measured by the year-long listening grades of the participants; Foreign Language Listening Anxiety (FLLA) and listening proficiency; some demographic variables and listening anxiety scores of the participants. Thirdly, the current study will quantitatively analyze the sources of listening anxiety and try to confirm the listening anxiety sources presented by Kim (2000) and also to see what other factors might negatively affect listening comprehension.

This study has both theoretical and practical significance. Theoretically, it is of great significance to analyze and examine the existence of listening anxiety and its effects on listening comprehension. It is also important to reach an understanding of the text-type-based sources of foreign language listening anxiety. If a statistically significant difference among students' performance on different listening text types is obtained, this will add a new dimension to the listening anxiety literature. This study will also test the usability of the newly developed FLLAS, providing implications as regards the reliability of the scale. Furthermore, the correlational statistics between listening apprehension, and listening proficiency and background variables (gender, major, age, etc.) will provide empirical evidence for the relationship between these variables.

The practical applications of the findings of this study will help GUSFL preparatory program administrators with the listening text selection for use in the classroom activities and achievement exams. Not only will it function to reduce the anxiety factors in the exams to a minimum, but it will also help the preparatory program to train the students to become more competent listeners in foreign language by making them conscious of listening texts and tasks that can provoke anxiety. Even though test anxiety is not a primary concern of the analysis, it will still be possible to have implications for the selection and utilization of listening texts in the placement and achievement tests in the School of Foreign Languages.

1.5. STATEMENT OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research Question # 1 Do the construct validation and reliability analyses of data collection tool (Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale) reveal acceptable statistics and coefficients?

Research Question # 2 Is there a relationship between GUSFL students' reported levels of listening anxiety (as determined by a adopted version of Kim's FLLAS, 2000)

a. and their listening proficiency (as measured by 5 midterm listening scores)?

b. and their foreign language end-of-the-year grades (as measured by the GPA of the students at the end of the preparatory year)?

Research Question # 3 Is there a relationship between GUSFL students' reported levels of foreign language anxiety (as determined by a adopted version of Horwitz and colleagues' Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), 1986)

a. and their listening proficiency (as measured by 5 midterm listening scores)?

b. and their foreign language grades (as measured by the GPA of the students at the end of the preparatory year)?

Research Question # 4 Is there a relationship between GUSFL students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their levels of listening anxiety?

Research Question # 5 Is there a relationship between GUSFL students' reported levels of foreign language anxiety and demographic variables (as determined by a background questionnaire)?

5a. Is there a relationship between students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their ages?

5b. Is there a relationship between students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their gender?

5c. Is there a relationship between students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their exposure time to the target language?

5d. Is there a relationship between students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their schooling background?

Research Question # 6 Is there a relationship between GUSFL students' reported levels of listening anxiety and demographic variables?

6a. Is there a relationship between students' levels of listening anxiety and their ages?

6b. Is there a relationship between students' levels of listening anxiety and their gender?

6c. Is there a relationship between students' levels of listening anxiety and their exposure time to the target language?

6d. Is there a relationship between students' levels of listening anxiety and their schooling background?

Research Question # 7 Do different listening text types have a differential effect on GUSFL students' reported levels of listening anxiety (as measured by the anxometer)?

Research Question # 8 What are the sources of listening anxiety created by different types of listening passages?

1.6. ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

The first assumption made at the beginning of the study is that the sample reflects the population which is all the students at Gaziantep University School of Foreign Languages (GUSFL). This assumption is firmly based on the fact that the selection was made via cluster random sampling which assures that the sample is representative of the whole population.

Another assumption is that the anxiety-provoking external factors were eliminated during the utilization of the scales and applications. This was achieved by making the applications in a stress-free environment. The participants did not have to attend the study. They were given the chance to reject being a participant of the study or quit at any time they wanted. They were told that the results of the study would have no effect on their classroom grades at all. Lastly, the researcher gave the instructions in their native language in order to diminish the anxiety-provoking effects of their oral-proficiency judgments about themselves.

The levels of the students were determined by the placement exam administered at the beginning of the academic year. We assume that this standard test was also reliable and valid for the given purpose.

Based on the above reasons, the author of the study assumes that the subjects have answered the questions in the scales sincerely, taking them seriously (p:.05).

1.7. DEFINITION OF THE TERMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

Affective domain: ...the emotional side of human behavior (Brown, 1980).

Cognitive domain: ...the mental process or faculty by which knowledge is acquired, and it includes all types of mental processing such as perception, comprehension, rehearsal, retrieval, problem solving and thinking (Brown, 1980).

Foreign language anxiety: ...the fear or negative emotional reaction occurring when a learner is expected to perform in the foreign language (MacIntyre, 1995). ...a unique type of anxiety specific to foreign language learning (Horwitz et al., 1986)

Trait anxiety: ...a stable predisposition to become anxious in a wide range of situations (MacIntyre, 1995).

State anxiety: ...an immediate transitory emotional experience with immediate cognitive effects (MacIntyre, 1995).

Facilitating anxiety: the "good" or "mild" type of anxiety… which assists performance, keeps students alert and aware of the process (Scovel, 1991).

Debilitating anxiety: the "bad" type of anxiety which "harms learners' performance in many ways both indirectly through worry and self-doubt and directly by reducing participation and creating overt avoidance of the language" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

Skewness value: Skewness is a measure symmetry, or more precisely, the lack of symmetry. A distribution, or data set, is symmetric if it looks the same to the left and right of the center point.
(http://www.itl.nist.gov/div898/handbook/eda/section3/eda35b.htm)

Kurtosis value: Kurtosis is a measure of whether the data are peaked or flat relative to a normal distribution; that is, the data sets with high kurtosis tend to have a distinct peak near the mean, decline rather rapidly, and have heavy tails. Data sets with low kurtosis tend to have a flat top near the mean rather than a sharp peak. A uniform distribution would be the extreme case.
(http://www.itl.nist.gov/div898/handbook/eda/section3/eda35b.htm)

FLCA: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

FLLA: Foreign Language Listening Anxiety

FLCAS: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

FLLAS: Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale

LCDH: Linguistic Coding Deficiency Hypothesis (Sparks and Ganschow, 1991)

GUSFL: Gaziantep University School of Foreign Languages

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. PRESENTATION

This chapter reviews the literature on anxiety, listening comprehension and particularly listening anxiety. Anxiety, its types and some anxiety theories are presented. It goes on with an account of what "listening" is. Lastly, listening anxiety is analyzed as a separate anxiety type.

2.2. ANXIETY

2.2.1. What is anxiety?

As a pathological emotion, anxiety refers to a complex combination of negative emotions that includes fear, apprehension and worry, and is often accompanied by physical sensations such as palpitations, nausea, chest pain and/or shortness of breath. "The physiological symptoms of anxiety included heart palpitations, nausea, disturbances in respiration, sweating, muscular tension, tremor and vertigo" (Spielberger and Sarason, 1975).

However, in psychological terms, anxiety can be defined as "an unpleasant emotional state or condition which is characterized by subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, and worry and by activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Spielberger, 1983, cited in Horwitz et al., 1986, p.125)

Sarason lists some characteristics accompanied by anxiety:

1. The situation is seen as difficult, challenging, and threatening.
2. The individual sees himself as ineffective, or inadequate, in handling the task at hand.
3. The individual focuses on undesirable consequences of personal inadequacy.
4. Self-deprecatory preoccupations are strong and interfere or compete with task-relevant cognitive activity.

5. The individual expects and anticipates failure and loss of regard by others. (1980, p.6)

Linguistic anxiety in Daly (1991) is described as communication apprehension which refers to "a fear or anxiety an individual feels about orally communicating". Concluding from the literature, he offers five possible explanations for the development of communication apprehension. He gives "genetic predisposition" as the first explanation for the development of apprehension.

> Early research on fraternal and identical twins, later research on twins raised apart, and, most recently, studies of adopted children consistently indicate that one's genetic legacy may be a substantial contributor to one's apprehension.... Clearly, apprehension has no single causative agent. Rather, one's genetics establishes a predisposition that is either ameliorated or exacerbated by other environmental factors.

His second explanation is about the reinforcements or punishments regarding one's experiences with the act of communicating. What he means is in line with MacIntyre and Gardner's suggestion (1989) that anxiety is a phenomenon developed in the course of language learning. As the learner accumulates negative experiences about language learning, anxiety begins to fore and it persists if the negative experiences are maintained. After several experiences with the second language context, the student forms attitudes that are specific to the situation, that is, emotions and attitudes about learning a new language. If these experiences are negative, foreign language anxiety may begin to develop. "Thus, foreign language anxiety is based on negative expectations that lead to worry and emotionality" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989). This leads to cognitive interference from self-derogatory condition that produces performance deficits. Poor performance and negative emotional reactions strengthen the expectations of anxiety and failure, further anxiety being a reaction to this perceived threat.

Another explanation for the development of communication apprehension focuses on "the adequacy of people's early communication skills acquisition" (Daly, 1991). Children who are not provided with opportunities to improve their communicative skills are likely to be apprehensive when they grow up. "Although the evidence for this explanation is indirect at best, there does seem to be some justification for believing that skill development is related to the development of apprehension". The fourth explanation is based on the area of learned helplessness. This explanation suggests that "individuals become apprehensive when they receive random and unpredictable patterns of rewards and punishments for engaging in the

same verbal activity". The final point of view stresses the role of appropriate models of communicating. This perspective suggests that children who have more adequate "communication models" in their childhood will tend to be less apprehensive. Researchers have found that "by exposing socially withdrawn youngsters to films where other children engage in appropriate social-interactive activities, their level of withdrawal decreases significantly" (Daly, 1991).

Freimuth (1976) investigated whether physiological, psychological, and verbal behavior indices of communication apprehension can predict comprehension, perception of speaker credibility, and ratings of speech effectiveness. The author used videotapes of the first minute of 85 different students expressing their views on women's liberation as the stimulus materials. Measurement on all the indices of communication apprehension had been taken on these students as the videotapes were being prepared. Each of these one-minute videotapes was shown to a single receiver who then filled out forms measuring comprehension, perception of source credibility, and rating of speech effectiveness. Results supported the hypothesis that the indices of communication apprehension could predict all the communication effects save one, perception of character. The study found out the strongest relationship between the set of communication apprehension variables and the set of communication effectiveness variables, which indicated that individuals who reported high apprehension experienced much silence in their speech and received low ratings on language facility, vocal characteristics, and general effectiveness.

Tobias (1986) proposed a model of the effects of anxiety on learning from instruction. He thinks that anxious people have a tendency to engage in self-directed, derogatory cognition rather than focusing on the task itself. These thoughts which are irrelevant to the task at the processing stage compete with task-relevant ones for limited cognitive resources. This theory helps to explain the findings of an interaction between anxiety, task difficulty, and ability (Spielberger, 1983).

Tobias (1986) suggests that interference of anxiety may occur at three levels: input, processing, and output. At input, anxiety may cause attention deficits and poor initial processing of information. Not as much information is registered. For instance, people with high anxiety are easily distracted from the task because time is divided between the processing of emotion-related and task-related cognition. If the task is difficult, anxiety may have a big impact on processing. At output, anxiety may interfere with the retrieval of previously learned information. According to

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989), the experience of "freezing" on a test can be attributed to the influence of anxiety at the time of retrieval.

In their 1988 article, Foss and Reitzel elaborate on Spitzberg and Cupach's (cited in Foss and Reitzel, 1988) Relational Competence Model. In this model, competence is not an objective performance but a matter of perception that varies across interactions. Spitzberg and Cupach (1984) are aware of the fact that actual behaviors play a role in perceptions of competence. However, they simply emphasize the importance of discovering these norms anew in each contextual episode. In order to discover these norms, the learner should be able to control the following five components of attainment of competence in language classroom.

Firstly, the students should be able to control their motivational behavior. Motivation, in Foss and Reitzel's terms, "means the difference between communicating and not communicating" (p. 442). Learners' perceptions of their language abilities will lead to either effective communication or avoidance behavior. "Avoidance at the motivational level reinforces the perception of incompetence because the individual never puts himself or herself in a position to increase skill levels and to be evaluated positively by others" (p. 442).

Secondly, the learner has to possess a certain amount of knowledge about how to communicate in a given context. Thus, knowledge is the second step in the model. The knowledge includes a set of behavioral patterns and strategies upon which a learner draws in order to decide how to communicate in a particular situation.

Thirdly, the learner is to have the necessary communication skills. Even if the learner has the motivation and the knowledge, they cannot operate without the help of necessary skills. However, students' perceptions may or may not be consistent with their actual skill levels. Their actual performances may be adequate according to others' perceptions of them, but they themselves may misevaluate their own performance.

The next component of Spitzberg and Cupach's model is about the outcomes of the communication. According to the model, the outcomes of communication competence are communication satisfaction, relational trust, and interpersonal attraction. If the learner obtains these outcomes after they conversed in the foreign language, this will help improve their perceptions of their competence in that language.

Context is the final component of the model. Each language learner creates a self-perception of the context, which will either facilitate or hinder language learning. The components of these model lead to either perceived communication competence or avoidance behavior, which causes either low or high anxiety. "Although the communication anxiety a native speaker suffers is not identical to that experienced by ESL students, self-perceptions of competence are crucial in the management of anxiety for both groups of students" (Foss and Reitzel, 1988)

2.2.2. Types of Anxiety

2.2.2.1. State vs. Trait Anxiety

Spielberger (1966) suggests that conceptual ambiguity has surrounded the term "anxiety because it has been typically used in two different ways: (1) as a complex response, (2) as a personality trait. On the basis of factor analytic studies, he identified two distinct anxiety factors, which were labeled (1) trait anxiety, (2) state anxiety. Trait anxiety refers to stable, individual differences in relatively permanent personality characteristics and state anxiety to transitory, fluctuating state.

> An anxiety state (A-state) is evoked whenever a person perceives a particular stimulus or situation as potentially harmful, dangerous or threatening to him. A-states vary in intensity and fluctuate over time as a function of the amount of stress that impinges upon an individual. The term anxiety is also used to refer to relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness as a personality trait. Trait anxiety (A-trait) is not directly manifested in behavior, but may be inferred from the frequency and the intensity of an individual's elevations in A-state over time. Persons who are high in A-trait... are disposed to perceive the world as more dangerous or threatening than low A-trait individuals. (Spielberger, 1972, p.248)

Trait anxiety may be defined as an individual's likelihood of becoming anxious in any situation (Spielberger, 1983). A person with high trait anxiety is likely to become anxious in a number of situations. Trait anxiety is not situation-specific and is shown to impair cognitive functioning, to disrupt memory, to lead to avoidance behaviors, and to have several other effects (Eysenck, 1979).

State anxiety is "a blend of the trait and situational approaches" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1986). State anxiety is apprehension experienced at a particular moment in time, for example, prior to taking examinations (Spielberger, 1983). Spielberger found a moderately strong correlation between trait and state anxiety (r=.60, Spielberger, 1983). Thus, high levels of trait anxiety are associated with higher state anxiety.

Spielberger (1966) proposes an interesting trait-state conceptualization of anxiety. He suggests that anxiety as a state is characterized by subjective, conscious feelings of apprehension and tension. Anxiety as a personality trait is more like a motive or an acquired behavioral disposition, predisposing the perception of a threatening environment and also predisposing disproportionate responses to these threatening situations. He suggests that anxiety-trait level will only affect some anxiety-state responses, depending on the stressfulness of the situation.

2.2.2.3. Facilitating vs. Debilitating Anxiety

It is believed that anxiety can sometimes be helpful rather than harmful. The "good" or "mild" type of anxiety is called "facilitating" anxiety which assists performance, keeps students alert and aware of the process (Scovel, 1991). As Scovel states, facilitating anxiety motivates the learner to "fight" the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behavior.

Eysenck (1979) explained facilitating anxiety by accounting for learners' putting increased amounts of effort into learning or performance when they are anxious, which leads to success. It can be said that, to some extent, anxiety helps the learner improve his/her performance. However, if anxiety passes the threshold level, it starts to impede learning and performance. Scovel (1991) illustrates the functions of the two anxiety types by stating that "facilitating anxiety motivates the learner to fight the new learning task" while "debilitating anxiety motivates the learner to flee".

Horwitz (1986) believes that facilitating anxiety can only be helpful for very simple learning tasks, but not for language learning involving more complicated tasks. Therefore, in his opinion, there is no such thing as facilitating anxiety. Since the term "anxiety" has negative connotations, it can only be used to refer to "debilitating" anxiety, which motivates the learner to "flee" the new learning task, and stimulates the individual emotionally to adapt avoidance behavior. Therefore, it is called the "bad" type of anxiety in the literature (Horwitz, 1986; Eysenck,1979). It harms learners' performance in many ways both indirectly through worry and self-doubt and directly by reducing participation and creating overt avoidance of the language (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

Madsen (1982) made a study in order to assess how detrimental the effects of anxiety are in ESL. He administered a battery of six different ESL examinations to 114 ELL students ranging in ability from beginning to advanced. The students were also administered the Alpert and Haber Achievement Anxiety Test. Their

performance on most anxiety-provoking subtest is shown to be debilitating for the most anxious-prone students. The study demonstrated that ESL tests which are high anxiety-producing were both psychologically debilitating and less valid and potentially biased in favor of students with low test anxiety.

2.3. FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ANXIETY

> The research into the relationship of anxiety to foreign language learning has provided mixed and confusing results, immediately suggesting that anxiety itself is neither a simple nor a well-understood psychological construct and that it is perhaps premature to attempt to relate it to the global and comprehensive task of language acquisition. (Scovel, 1978)

As Scovel puts it above, the relationship between anxiety and foreign language learning has been subject to a considerable amount of debate and research since the beginning of 20th century. Some studies have revealed incomplete correlations between anxiety and measures of language proficiency. Other studies have revealed complete correlations, that is, there is a consistent relationship between the academic performance of a language learner in the classroom and an anxiety measure. Nevertheless, the results obtained in some studies totally contradict this generalization. For example, Backman (1976) found that two worst English Learning Spanish students scored the highest and the lowest on the anxiety scale she utilized. Chastain accurately states the crux of the problem in these anxiety studies by stating: "perhaps some concern about a test is a plus while too much anxiety can produce negative results" (Chastain, 1975).

Despite the conflicting exceptions, it is clear that students experience a considerable amount of foreign language anxiety in their classes. In a study by Horwitz et al. (1986) 38% of the subjects endorsed the item *I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.* In another study, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) compared French, Math and English class anxieties and the French class was rated as significantly more anxiety-provoking than were the other two, which did not differ between themselves.

In the anxiety literature, there are some studies which are based on causal models. "Such models tend to be fairly more elaborate and consider the simultaneous influence of several variables, including attitudes and motivations (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991)". These models suggest that anxiety plays an important role in

language learning. Specifically, these models are proposed by Gardner (1985) and Clement (1987).

Lalonde and Gardner (1984) tried to investigate the role of personality in the language learning process. They suggested that personality variables do not present the same results from one language study to the next. They found relatively few correlations of personality traits with language aptitude, French achievement (language proficiency), or self-rated French proficiency.

Gardner and associates devised some studies in order to develop a socioeducational model of language acquisition. Even though the focus of this model has been on general issues of attitudes and motivation, they had findings relevant to anxiety as well. Lalonde and Gardner (1984) investigated a causal model, including the relevant personality traits and scales. The final model illustrated that motivation led to French class anxiety. This anxiety changes the self-perceptions of proficiency. They hypothesized that both anxiety and perceived proficiency led to changes in actual performance.

Trylong (1987) looked for the relationships of student aptitude, attitudes, and anxiety with achievement on written tests, oral quizzes, and final marks in a first year university French course. He found that anxiety was negatively correlated with achievement while favorable attitudes were positively related to achievement. Moreover, a negative relationship between anxiety and attitudes was determined. In other words, anxious students had a tendency to have less positive attitudes. After a regression analysis, he found that the inclusion of anxiety contributed significantly to achievement, independent of aptitude and attitudes. The conclusion was that aptitude, attitudes, and anxiety provided a useful combination of effects for understanding the process of language learning.

Another causal model was developed by Clement and his associates. Clement suggests that a self-confident language learner lacks anxiety. The studies were done with Canadian Francophones learning English. Their self-confidence resulted from their contact with English speakers. Clement (cited in MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991) suggests that, in bicultural or multicultural settings, self-confidence becomes a secondary motivation arising from the quality and frequency of interaction with the second language group. Self-confidence gives the learners a motivation to use the language, which predicts the language achievement. “The studies that support this model generally assess self-confidence by a group of measures that combine anxiety

and self-ratings of second language proficiency". (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991) This shows us that Clement's concept of self-confidence has a direct effect on motivation, thus indirectly determines the anxiety level of the learner.

In Clement's model of second language acquisition, primary motivation is determined by "the interplay of integrativeness (affective reactions toward the majority group) and fear of assimilation into the majority group" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991). If the contact between the learner and the majority group is intense, the learner may gain self-confidence in using the target language. Nevertheless, studies supporting Clement's model found that pleasant contact produced increased self-confidence when frequency of contact was low. "When frequency of contact was high, the pleasantness of contact was less influential in determining relative self-confidence" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991).

Horwitz et al. (1986) tried to create a theoretical framework of foreign language anxiety. They suggest that foreign language anxiety differs from general communication anxiety in that it is "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Aydın, 2001). In general communication anxiety, the person feels anxious simply about communicating with others. However, in foreign language anxiety the learner has the additional burden of dealing with the medium, which is the language with which s/he is not yet familiar enough.

Horwitz et al. (1986) indicated that the main sources of anxiety in foreign language learning were listening and speaking. It is especially anxiety-provoking when the learner faces a situation in which s/he has to give an unprepared and free speech. In listening, sound and linguistic structure discrimination present problems over the potential comprehension difficulties. Horwitz et al. observed problems of "poor retrieval of items from memory under anxious conditions, over studying as compensation, avoidance of the situation as in learned helplessness, and a fear of making mistakes that leads to silence instead of participation" (cited in MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991).

Horwitz et al. drew parallels between foreign language anxiety and three related performance anxieties: (1) communication apprehension; (2) test anxiety; and (3) fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is defined as a type of shyness characterized by fear or anxiety about communicating with people. The manifestations of communication apprehension are "difficulty in speaking in dyads

or groups (oral communication anxiety) or in public (stage fright), or in listening to or learning a spoken message (receiver anxiety)" (Horwitz et al. 1986). Communication apprehension obviously plays a role in foreign language anxiety. People who have communication apprehension in their own language also have apprehension about communicating in a foreign language. The language classroom forces students to communicate via a medium in which they only have a limited amount of proficiency. This makes even a talkative person silent in the language classroom. The reason is that the learner knows his/her inabilities in using a language and as a result of learned helplessness, the learner hesitates or avoids communication. MacIntyre and Gardner describes communication apprehension specific to language learning as "metacognitive awareness" that full comprehension of foreign language messages is impossible. Therefore, the possibility of frustrated or aborted communication is always present. Such frustration may even be considered part of the learning process.

The second component of Horwitz et al.'s framework is test anxiety which refers to a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure. The problem with test anxious students is that they overestimate their performance and get disappointed when they cannot conform to their expectations about their own academic performance. They fail because they set unrealistic targets. Test anxiety obviously plays a role in foreign language learning process, because traditionally tests and quizzes in foreign language classes are frequent and even the best students sometimes make mistakes. This increases the possibility of test anxiety arousal. Oral tests provoke both test anxiety and communication apprehension in anxious students. Nonetheless, Horwitz et al. (1986) are not clear whether this test anxiety is specific type of tests encountered in language class or whether it is a generalized test anxiety such as measured by the Test Anxiety Scale. Öner (1990) claims that test anxious people are likely to have low self-esteem and behave defensively.

The third process is fear of negative evaluation. It is the "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (Horwitz et al. 1986). It is similar to test anxiety but differs from it in that it is not restricted to testing situations. Fear of negative evaluation can be experienced anywhere where there is social interaction.

> Although communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation provide useful conceptual building blocks for a description of foreign language anxiety, we

> propose that foreign language anxiety is not simply the combination of these fears transferred to foreign language learning. Rather, we conceive foreign language anxiety as a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process (Horwitz et al. 1986).

Horwitz et al. suggest that adults typically perceives themselves as reasonably intelligent, socially adept individuals, sensitive to different sociocultural mores. These assumptions are rarely challenged when communicating in a native language as it is usually not difficult to understand others or to make oneself understood. Nevertheless, the situation when learning a foreign language is different. "Because individual communication attempts will be evaluated according to uncertain or even unknown linguistic and sociocultural standards, second language communication entails risk taking and is necessarily problematic" (Horwitz et al. 1986).

Horwitz et al. prepared a scale in order to determine the foreign language anxiety levels of language learners based on their theory. Evidence in support of this theory has been reported by Horwitz (1986). Spielberger (1983) reports that significant correlations were obtained between the Foreign Language Class Anxiety Scale and the scales of test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, communication apprehension, and trait anxiety.

However, Horwitz's point was not accepted by every researcher in the area. Sparks and Ganschow (1991) proposed a hypothesis concerning the problems encountered by language learners in the language learning process. It was named Linguistic Coding Deficiency Hypothesis (LCDH) since they explained the difficulties in language learning with a problem in the linguistic coding of the students who have problems in language rather than relying on some affective deficiencies experienced by the students. The hypothesis regarded language anxiety merely as a consequence of the students' cognitive deficits, suggesting therefore that anxiety was not a core construct worthy of research but a mere byproduct. They claim that the learners with anxiety do not necessarily have particular difficulties related to language. They think that the learners who have specific language capabilities experience less anxiety-provoking foreign language learning. Their primary point is that anxiety is a result, rather than a cause in language classes. LCDH attribute the difficulties encountered in the language learning process to the

deficiencies in phonological, syntactic, and semantic codes, rather than affective variables such as anxiety and motivation.

> The authors of the LCDH speculate that inefficiency in the phonological, syntactic, and semantic codes, rather than affective variables such as attitude and motivation, causes individual differences in FL learning. Affective differences are thought to result from native language learning difficulties and to further impact on language learning. (Sparks and Ganschow, 1993: 58)

MacIntyre (1995a) opposes their view by saying that anxiety plays a role in contributing to difficulties encountered in the language learning process, although he accepts that experience of difficulty can provoke anxiety. He thinks that Sparks and Ganschow do not dispute the existence of a relationship between affective variables and difficulties. They just assume that difficulties are caused by aptitude and this is an alternative explanation to affective explanations.

Sparks and Ganschow carried out some studies. In one study, they compared successful and unsuccessful female college students. They found no significant difference between the groups' levels of intelligence or measures of semantics were observed. However, significant differences were found in phonology and syntax. A pattern emerged which suggested that phonological coding had an immediate effect on their performance in the foreign language classroom. Semantic codes of language did not appear problematic. They concluded that higher levels of anxiety might be a consequence of being asked to perform language learning tasks in a new and unfamiliar linguistic coding system.

MacIntyre (1995a) identified a problem in Sparks' and Ganschow's view of language anxiety and claims that they do not give anxiety due credit and attention. They think that it is only a "side effect" of linguistic coding deficiencies. In his study, he proved that state anxiety-provoking situations led to performance deficits on second language tasks. However, he found no performance deficits in non-anxiety-provoking situations. This proves that anxiety can cause individual differences in second language learning as a result of direct interference in the process.

Sparks and Ganschow (1993) criticized MacIntyre's model by suggesting that self-report questionnaires have measurement problems. MacIntyre (1995a) on the other hand, argues that highly reliable and valid measures of affective measures are available such as Horwitz and colleagues' (1986) Foreign Language Classroom

Anxiety Scale. They extend the discussion by stating that affective variables are unrelated to language and cannot explain the language learning problems. They think that variables specific to language can explain the problems. They named this the "assumption of specificity". MacIntyre (1995a) claims that Sparks and Ganschow uses the term "language" only to refer to linguistic aspects of language. However, MacIntyre thinks this is inadequate since language is more than the pure linguistic aspects of it. He claims that the scales developed to assess affective variables are clearly related to language.

> They (scales) may not measure purely linguistic variables, but they are certainly language related... the assessment of anxiety must specifically refer to that arising in language learning contexts in order to obtain consistent correlations between anxiety and language learning. Essentially, this is the assumption of specificity. Second, rather than posing a problem, the fact that affective variables are not measures of pure linguistic processing is a valuable asset. Affect represents a unique source of variance impinging on the system. To arbitrarily restrict potential explanations for individual differences in language learning achievement diminishes our potential to understand fully the process. (MacIntyre, 1995a)

MacIntyre (1995a) believes that aptitude, anxiety, and performance are three sides of a relationship triangle. "Thus, aptitude can influence anxiety, anxiety can influence performance, and performance can influence anxiety" (MacIntyre, 1995a). He summarizes his point by stating that the linguistic coding deficit hypothesis neglects the context in which language occurs and ignores the potential for social context to influence cognitive processes. He claims that LCDH is incomplete because of this deficiency. He thinks that Sparks and Ganschow are unable to see the forest because they are too much concerned with the trees (MacIntyre, 1995b). MacIntyre's criticisms of Sparks and Ganschow's model (1991) are based on the fact that their theory focused on cognitive ability factors in terms of the coding of the stimuli. They paid little if any attention to the social factors involved in language learning.

The relationships among several variables, including test anxiety, trait anxiety, reserved versus outgoing personality, and creativity were examined by Chastain (1975). Test anxiety was significantly positively correlated with marks in Spanish, marginally positively related to marks in German, negatively correlated with marks in audio-lingual French. Trait anxiety was not related to marks in any of the courses.

Liu (2006) conducted a research on anxiety at three different proficiency levels. By means of survey, observations, reflective journals and interviews, the study revealed that "(1) a considerable number of students at each level felt anxious when speaking English in class, (2) the more proficient students tended to be less anxious, (3) the students felt the most anxious when they responded to the teacher or were singled out to speak English in class. They felt the least anxious during pair work, and (4) with increasing exposure to oral English, the students felt less and less anxious about using the target language in speech communication" (Liu, 2006: 301).

Young (1986) investigated the effect of anxiety on the oral proficiency ratings of prospective language teachers. Self-ratings of proficiency as well as a dictation test were taken in addition to a practice interview. Both the self-ratings of proficiency and the dictation tests were significantly correlated with oral proficiency interview scores. Young also reports nonsignificant partial correlations between the anxiety scales (State Anxiety Scale (Spielberger, 1983), the Cognitive Interference Questionnaire (Sarason, 1980), FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986)) and the oral proficiency interview scores after statistically removing the effects of the other proficiency measures. The author concludes that ability is the major factor influencing the oral proficiency interview scores and that, after controlling for ability, anxiety has little effect.

2.3.1. Major Language Skills and Foreign Language Learning Anxiety

So far, the biggest number of anxiety studies concerning major language skills is on speaking which has been assumed to be the most anxiety-provoking skill together with listening (Horwitz et al., 1986). In their study, counselors in a study skills center specified speaking and listening as "the most frequently cited concern of the anxious foreign language students needing help…" (p. 126)

Kleinmann (1977) was among the first people to exclusively investigate the effects of anxiety on speaking. She found out that subjects' oral performance was positively affected by facilitating anxiety.

There are somewhat contrasting views about the role of anxiety on oral performance. In her 1986 study, Young addressed the question whether oral interview performance was affected by anxiety. The result was that three of the four anxiety measures, there was a significant negative correlation between the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) and anxiety, which led to the conclusion that as anxiety

increases, oral proficiency decreases. Nevertheless, as a result of four-way partial correlations performed to control for proficiency score variances, the same significant correlations were not obtained. That indicated that the real determinant of oral proficiency was ability, rather than anxiety. However, the author also indicates the possibility that the results could be different if the same OPIs were administered in an official context. To sum up, it is possible to reiterate that anxiety did not have as much influence as ability on foreign language oral proficiency scores in an unofficial administration of the OPI.

In one of her other studies relating to the role of anxiety on oral performance, Young (1990) investigated students' perspectives on anxiety and speaking. The author designed a questionnaire to identify sources of anxiety over speaking in the foreign language. The questionnaire was administered to 135 university-level beginning Spanish students and 109 high school students. Results of the survey suggested, among other things, that speaking in the foreign language is not exclusively the source of student anxiety, but that speaking in front of the class is. It also indicated that the teacher's relaxed and positive error correction can greatly reduce language anxiety.

Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) investigated anxious and non-anxious learners' reactions to their own oral performance. The chief aim of the study was to clarify the relationship between foreign language anxiety and perfectionism. The researchers recorded the comments of anxious and non-anxious students as they watched themselves interact in a videotaped oral interview. The results of the analysis suggested that anxious and non-anxious learners differ in their personal performance standards, procrastination, fear of evaluation, and concern over errors. The results of this survey indirectly imply that speaking does have an influence on students' oral performance ratings, and thus, on their anxiety levels.

Kitano (2001) investigated two potential sources of the anxiety of college learners of Japanese in oral practice: (a) fear of negative evaluation and (b) his or her self-perceived speaking ability. The study illustrated that "(a) An individual student's anxiety was higher as his or her fear of negative evaluation was stronger, and the strength of this tendency depended on the instructional level and the experience of going to Japan; (b) an individual student's anxiety was higher as he or she perceived his or her ability as lower than that of peers and native speakers; (c) the anxiety level of a male student became higher as he perceived himself less competent; and (d) the

fear of negative evaluation and the self-perceived speaking ability did not interact to influence the anxiety level of an individual student" (p. 549).

One may think that reading may be less susceptible to anxiety effects. Unlike speaking a foreign language, reading is done privately and there are unlimited opportunities for reflection and reconsideration. However, Saito et al. (1999, p.202) claim that reading has great potential for eliciting anxiety in two aspects: (a) unfamiliar scripts and writing systems and (b) unfamiliar cultural material. With respect to unfamiliar writing systems, it seems likely that the less the learner can depend on the reliability of a specific system of sound-symbol correspondences, the more anxiety he or she would be expected to experience in the act of reading. Unfamiliar cultural contents would seem to have an impact at a point in the reading process that is less immediate than that of unfamiliar scripts and writing systems. The reader would first encounter the symbols, decode them into sounds, and associate the sounds with words, and then attempt to process the meaning of a text.

Saito et al. (1999) scrutinized whether foreign language reading anxiety exist as a phenomenon distinguishable from general foreign language anxiety. Another research question was related to whether or not the levels of foreign language reading anxiety and general foreign language anxiety vary according to the specific target language. Their final concern was about whether learner perceptions of the difficulty of their particular target language relate to their levels of foreign language reading anxiety. The study rumbled that contrary to previous teacher intuitions, reading in a foreign language can be anxiety provoking to some students. While general FL anxiety has been found to be independent of target language, levels of reading anxiety were found to vary with target language and seemed to be related to the specific writing systems. In addition, students' reading anxiety levels increased with their perceptions of the difficulty of reading in their FL, and their grades decreased in conjunction with their levels of reading anxiety and general FL anxiety.

Mills et al. (2006) found out that students' reading self-efficacy in French was positively related to reading proficiency, whereas reading anxiety was not related.

Omaggio Hadley (cited in Young, 1992) asserts that writing is not an anxiety-provoking skill, because in writing students have opportunity to think and respond. Blanton (1987), on the contrary claims that language learners often associate written work with tests, marks and examinations and thus with potential failure. They bring

to their courses perceptions about writing that create anxiety and work against their becoming proficient writers (cited in Aydın, 2001).

Rogers (1989) thinks that the reason of anxiety in writing in a foreign language is the deep-seated sense of inadequacy in students. "In his opinion, students are generally afraid that teachers will see through them if they put anything down on paper" (cited in Aydın, 2001: 9).

Cheng et al. (1999) found out that second language writing anxiety is a language-skill-specific anxiety, whereas second language classroom anxiety is a general type of anxiety including a strong speaking anxiety element.

2.4. THEORETICAL CONCEPTS RELATED TO LISTENING COMPREHENSION

2.4.1. Definition of Listening Comprehension

Much of our knowledge about the listening process comes from first-language research. Bacon (1989) claims that the hearer's ability to dig out the speech signal depends not simply on being able to discern sounds and syllables, but more importantly to imply meaning from a larger context. Redundancy of speech allows the listener to build meaning even when much of the signal is distorted. He further claims that we know listening is a process in which recognition of sounds, knowledge of lexicon, syntax, discourse markers, and the world, all interact with each other.

Clark and Clark (1977) provide a model to account for the instances of language understanding and to describe listening comprehension, which succeeds in accounting for observations of perception and memory.

> First, hearers take in the raw speech and retain a phonological representation of it in 'working memory.' Second, they immediately attempt to organize the phonological representation into constituents, identifying their content and function. Third, as they identify each constituent, they use it to construct underlying propositions, building continually onto a hierarchical representation of proposition. Finally, once they have identified the propositions for a constituent, they retain them in working memory and at some point purge memory of phonological representation. In doing this, they forget the exact wording and retain the meaning. (Clark and Clark, 1977: p. 49)

Rost (cited in Hinkel, 2005) asserts that listening refers to a complex cognitive process that allows a person to understand spoken language. In his opinion, listening encompasses receptive, constructive, and interpretive aspects of cognition,

which are utilized in both first language (LI) and second language (L2) listening. In LI acquisition for children, listening ability and cognition develop interdependently; as such, in normal hearing persons, listening as a specific skill is rarely given direct attention in L1 education. In L2 development, more direct intervention is considered necessary, because in most cases the learner is acquiring a second language after cognitive processing skills and habits in the LI have been established. In L2 development, listening constitutes not only a skill area in performance, but also a primary means of acquiring a second language. Listening represents the channel through which a learner processes language in real time – utilizing, pacing, pausing, and units of encoding that are unique to the spoken language.

Rost (cited in Hinkel, 2005) asserts that listening consists of three basic processing phases that are simultaneous and parallel: decoding, comprehension, and interpretation. There is a fourth phase, listener response, which is often included as well in descriptions of listening competence and performance. Decoding involves attention, speech perception, word recognition, and grammatical parsing; comprehension includes activation of prior knowledge, representing propositions in short term memory, and logical inference; interpretation encompasses comparison of meanings with prior expectations, activating participation frames, and evaluation of discourse meanings. Rost (cited in Hinkel, 2005) thinks that each of these phases contributes to the larger goal of finding what is relevant to the listener in the input, and what kind of response may be required. He sets different goals for the three basic phases of listening. "The goal of decoding is to feed recognized lexical items and parsed propositions for comprehension. The goal of comprehension is to connect the input with relevant knowledge sources for further interpretation. The goal of interpretation is to present a set of viable listener response options to the listener" (Rost, 1999)

Anderson (1985) provides a listening comprehension model representing the process of listening in three stages, namely perception, parsing, and utilization. The phases are inter-correlated and recursive. The first phase, perception, involves listeners' endeavors to store the sounds of the target language in echoic memory, which is so limited that they immediately start to process the sound for meaning, using contextual information or intonation. In the parsing stage, listeners use words and phrases to construct meaningful representations that can be stored in short-term

memory. In the utilization phase, listeners try to link what is said with their background knowledge stored in long-term memory. (cited in Kim, 2000: 19)

Kim (2000) claims that the attempts by first and second language listening researchers to find an acceptable definition of listening could not lead to a universal definition. Nevertheless, he further expresses that these studies "show that listening is an active process in which listeners attempt to deduce meaning through continual negotiation with the verbal cues and surrounding contexts" (p. 14).

2.4.2. The Bottom-up vs. Top-down Views

Buck (2001) thinks that linguistic processing either starts up with the lowest level of detail and moves up to the highest level or depends on some hypotheses about what is likely to come next. In the former way, it is often assumed that the acoustic input is first decoded into phonemes and then this is used to identify individual words. Then processing goes on to the next higher stage, the syntactic level, followed by an analysis of the semantic content to arrive at a literal understanding of the basic linguistic meaning. This is the bottom-up view, which sees language comprehension as a process of passing through a number of consecutive stages, or levels, and the output of each stage becomes the input for the next higher stage.

Nevertheless, it is rather possible to understand the meaning of a word before decoding its sound, because we have expectations about what we will hear. The expectations may be some hypotheses about what we are likely to hear. Our background knowledge about the topic of the listening allows us to make some assumptions about the likely course of listening and helps us to determine what the next word is. Buck (2001) suggests that this is the top-down process and he claims that listening comprehension is a top-down process in the sense that the various types of knowledge involved in understanding language are not applied in any fixed order. Rather, they can be used in any order.

L2 reading and listening comprehension have also been explained through the interactive process model in which bottom-up and top-down processes work together compensating for each other (Park, 2004). According to Park, the bottom-up process is evoked by an external source, or language data, proceeding from words, to phrases, to sentences, and to a whole text. Therefore, linguistic knowledge of word and structure is really significant in the bottom-up process. On the other hand, what evokes the top-down process is an internal schema which is a knowledge structure in

memory and which is often used interchangeably with background knowledge. In the interactive process, linguistic knowledge and background knowledge interact together and often compensate for each other. According to the interactive process approach, L2 reading and L2 listening comprehension may be summarized as "linguistic knowledge + background knowledge" (Park, 2004: 449).

2.4.3. Why Does the Listening Process Go Wrong?

Speech takes place in the real time, because the text is heard only once and then gone. We cannot go back to a piece of speech and hear it again. Of course, we can ask a speaker to repeat what they said, but strangely, speakers virtually never do this. Even if the speakers reiterate what they said, the stress and intonation of the statement change. So, in normal language use, we have only one chance at comprehension. There are two consequences of this, the first of which is that the listener must process the text at a speed determined by the speaker. The second is that the listener cannot refer back to the text. These two consequences might be anxiety-provoking, since they contribute to the incomprehensibility of the text.

The situation is similar in the classroom context. Listening texts are played at most twice. This creates the same real-time nature in the classroom as well. The learner does not have a second chance to go back and try to dissolve the utterances. This may also lead to anxiety for it reduces the comprehensibility of the input.

Since speakers generally speak very quickly: three words a second is quite normal, "there is really little time to think about the precise meaning of each word, or the way relative clauses are structured, or to speculate on what the pronouns might refer to" (Buck, 2001). This leads to the necessity that the listening processes must be automatic. It is really helpful to make a distinction between *controlled processes* and *automatic processes* (Buck, 2001: 7). Controlled processes involve a series of cognitive activities under active control, while automatic processes are a sequence of cognitive activities that occur automatically. The distinction is most obvious in the example of learning to drive. Changing the gears is a burden at the beginning of the learning process. However, it gradually becomes automatic and you do not even recognize that you are changing the gears. In the first place, the procedure involves controlled processes which you have to pay attention to. Then you pass onto automatic processes which do not require your deliberate attention.

> Given the speed and complexity of normal speech, the more automatic the listener's processing, the more efficient it will be, and the faster it can be done; and conversely, the

> less automatic the processing, the more time will be required. For language learners with less automatic processing, comprehension will suffer. As the speech rate gets faster, they will not have sufficient time to process everything, so they will start paying proportionally more attention to lexical and grammatical processing and less attention to the wider interpretation of the meaning. Then, as the speech rate gets even faster, the listener will have insufficient time to process even the lexical and grammatical information, and they will begin to miss parts of the text. At a certain speed, their processing will tend to break down completely, and they will fail to understand much at all. (Buck, 2001: 7)

The process mentioned by Buck above is an aspect of listening comprehension which is most likely to provoke anxiety. When the listening comprehension process breaks down, the learner begins to feel more and more tension which leads to the occurrence of anxiety in that specific situation.

The listening process may go wrong due to several other reasons. The background noise may intervene in comprehension, or listeners may have their attention distracted, or be thinking of something else. Unknown vocabulary, complex syntax, or the speed of the text may be other intervening factors. In all these cases, "the listeners' representation about what the text was about is likely to be incomplete" (Buck, 2001: 8). This is another provoking factor for anxiety.

2.4.4. Listening Situation

Buck (2001) claims that the situation where listening takes place is likely to have a remarkable effect on various aspects of the listening process. He, then, lists some characteristics of the situation which might have an effect on the listening process. Firstly, the situation can determine the content of listening, namely the topic. Secondly, it will determine the degree of interaction between the listener and speaker. Listener's role may be *non-collaborative* (Buck, 2001: 12) – requiring nothing more than interpreting the speaker's utterance or it may be *collaborative* – making appropriate requests for clarification, back-channeling, making responses to interactional language, or taking responsibility for organizing turn-taking. Thirdly, the listening situation may influence the listener's responsibility to respond. In many occasions, the listener has to respond in a predetermined way. This aspect of the listening situation brings the learner the extra responsibility of providing back-channeling which is the combination of the signs and gestures indicating to the speaker that we understand what is being said and that we are paying attention. Fourthly, the function of interaction changes according to the listening situation. Brown and Yule (1983) make a distinction between *transactional language*, whose

primary purpose is to communicate information, and *interactional language*, where the primary purpose is social interaction.

2.4.5. Listening Comprehension Aid

Buck claims that in order to process spoken language, we need to possess knowledge of the language and the ability to apply that knowledge. According to him, the two kinds of knowledge we have to possess are *declarative knowledge* and *procedural knowledge* (Buck, 2001: 14). Declarative knowledge concerns the knowledge of facts or about things: procedural knowledge is the knowledge about how to do things (Anderson, 1976). It is procedural knowledge which is important for listening performance because, in practical terms, something is not really known until it can be used correctly and efficiently. In order to have procedural knowledge, one must be able to understand words, understand and process sentences or idea units, and understand longer discourse (Buck, 2001: 14).

The second thing Buck (2001) suggests that a learner should have in order to process spoken language is the knowledge of the world. In other words, he thinks that a learner must use world knowledge to draw inferences which will shed light on the meaning of the words heard. Hildyard and Olson classify the necessary inferences into three types: "(i) *propositional inferences* are those that follow on logically and necessarily from any given statement; (ii) *enabling inferences* are related to the causal relationships between events or concepts; and (iii) *pragmatic inferences* provide extra information which is not essential to the interpretation of the text, but which expands on it" (cited in Buck, 2001: 18-19). These inferences help us expand interpretation and also restrict it. Without inference words, phrases, and sentences are nothing more than just the structural elements in them.

2.4.6. Factors Influencing Listening Comprehension

Samuels (1984, cited in Kim, 2000: 21) presented a framework for the diagnosis of potential causes of poor listening comprehension, listing a wide range of factors, both inside and outside the head, which affect listening comprehension. The "inside-the-head factors" are intelligence, language facility, background knowledge and schema (Schemata are described by Rumelhart (1980) as structures for representing knowledge in memory, and are assumed to exist for more things we would want to represent in memory, including general concepts, situations, events, sequences of events, actions, sequences of actions etc (cited in Buck, 2001: 20). They may be considered as representing stereotypes of these concepts.), speech registers,

awareness of contextual influences, meta-cognitive strategies, kinetics and motivation. On the other hand, comprehension failure may result from the "outside-the-head factors", which include the discussion topic, speaker awareness of audience needs, clarity and speaker effectiveness, and other contextual factors.

Rubin (1994, cited in Kim, 2000) attempted to reflect on the factors influencing second language listening, and also suggested that teachers and scholars use awareness of such factors to analyze L2 communication situations. As shown in table 2.1, five major factors were seen to influence listening comprehension: 1) text characteristics, 2) interlocutor characteristics, 3) task characteristics, 4) listener characteristics, and 5) process characteristics.

Table 1.1. Factors Affecting L2 Listening Comprehension (cited in Kim, 2000)

Text characteristics	Acoustic-temporal variables	Speech rate, hesitation and pause phenomena
	Acoustic-other variables	Level of perception, Sandhi, stress and rhythmic patterning perception, L1/L2 differences
	Morphological and syntactic modifications	Syntactic modifications, redundancy, morphological complexity, word order, discourse markers
	Text type	Visual support for texts
Interlocutor characteristics	Gender	
Task characteristics	Task type	
Listener characteristics	Language proficiency level, memory, attention, affect, age, gender, learning disabilities in L1, background knowledge	
Process characteristics	Top-down, bottom-up, and parallel processing, listening strategies, note taking, strategy training, negotiation of comprehensible input	

The table above describes the characteristics of the listening process defined by Rubin (1994) and leads to a superficial conclusion that the sources of listening anxiety are related to the characteristics of the listening comprehension process. For

example, speech rate is an acoustic-temporal variable according to Rubin's model. It is also presented as a source of foreign language listening anxiety in Kim's (2000) study. The current section of this study has dealt with the characteristics of listening comprehension. The following section is going to handle listening anxiety specifically.

2.5. LISTENING ANXIETY

2.5.1. Definition of Listening Anxiety or Receiver Apprehension

As is previously stated, in most of the literature on language learning anxiety, speaking is reported as the most anxiety-provoking skill of all the major language skills (Young, 1990; Phillips, 1992). The emergence of listening as a problematic area for students learning foreign languages was considerably later. Only recently, there have been some researchers who argued that listening comprehension can also be highly anxiety-provoking (Krashen, cited in Young, 1992: 168; Horwitz et al., 1986).

Scarcella and Oxford (1992, cited in Vogely, 1998: 67) state that listening anxiety occurs when students feel they are faced with a task that is too difficult or unfamiliar to them. This anxiety is brought about by listeners' negative "listening self-concept", which is a low level of self-confidence in the area of listening (Joiner, 1986, cited in Vogely, 1998: 68).

Since human communication does not only involve producing, it is really useful to look at the issue from the receiver's point of view. Researchers have tried to find communication apprehension for the receiver function in communication and they have found that "this type of communication apprehension may influence a person's encoding-decoding ability and behavior" (Wheeless, 1975). Wheeless defined "receiver apprehension" as "the fear of misinterpreting, inadequately processing and/or not being able to adjust psychologically to messages sent by others" (1975: 263, cited in Kim, 2000: 42). He also stated that the fear of receiving messages stems from low confidence in processing abilities and low psychological self-approval, and that the nature of receiver apprehension differs from that of fear related to sending information.

Receiver apprehension, or listening comprehension anxiety, (The terms will be used interchangeably in the rest of this study.) was tested by "Receiver Apprehension Test" (RAT) which is a self-report instrument developed to examine

listening anxiety with a Likert-type scale. Wheeless tested listening apprehension at the college level, and demonstrated that listeners experienced a limited degree of receiver communication apprehension, and that the correlation between speaking and listening apprehension is low. However, highly significant correlations between source and receiver apprehension were obtained by McDowell and McDowell (1978, cited in Kim, 2000: 42).

2.5.2. Some Empirical Studies on Receiver Apprehension

Aneiro (1989) devised a study to ascertain the relationship between Receiver Apprehension (RA) in the second language/foreign language and listening comprehension, language competency, exposure to the second language, and the gender in a sample of 451 college students in Puerto Rico. She found that high receiver apprehension was significantly related to lowered listening and language proficiency in the second language and there were no significant differences in receiver apprehension levels between male and female students. Another finding was that high exposure to English was significantly related to lowered receiver apprehension and there was no significant relationship between receiver apprehension in the first language and the second language. The final finding suggested that dyadic communication created the greatest amount of receiver apprehension, followed by receiving information, communication in a group, and watching TV, respectively and receiver apprehension is most affected by listening competency, followed by exposure and language competency, respectively.

In conformity with Aneiro's results, a significant linear relationship was found to exist between listening comprehension and receiver apprehension in Fitch-Hauser, Barker and Hughes's 1990 study.

In contrast, Bocchino (1984) and Paschall (1984) found out that there was no significant correlation between receiver apprehension and listening comprehension.

Bocchino investigated possible relationships between cognitive complexity, receiver apprehension, and listening comprehension in an education environment. Mood state was also examined as a possible covariate in listening comprehension as correlated to cognitive complexity. Procedure correlation analysis demonstrated a statistically significant positive relationship between levels of cognitive complexity and listening comprehension. Also, using procedure correlation, a statistically significant negative relationship was found out for levels of cognitive complexity and receiver apprehension. However, no significant correlation was found to exist

between receiver apprehension and listening comprehension. Finally, mood state was not found to be a significant covariate in relationship to cognitive complexity as correlated to listening comprehension.

Paschall (1984) investigated the possible effect of receiver apprehension and source apprehension on an individual's listening comprehension in an educational environment under threat or anxiety-producing conditions. Mood state was also examined as a possible intervening variable in listening performance.The conclusions of the study were: (1) Receiver apprehension and source apprehension are separate and distinct dimensions of communication apprehension. (2) There is no relationship between listening comprehension and receiver apprehension or source apprehension in an educational environment. Further, an anxiety-producing condition does not significantly affect listening comprehension regardless of the level of communication apprehension. (3) An individual's speech training may be a significant factor in listening comprehension and should be further investigated (Paschall, 1984).

2.5.3. Foreign Language Listening Anxiety

Since speaking proficiency is the primary concern of most language courses, there are only a few studies conducted to examine the effects and sources of listening anxiety.

Researchers who are into listening skills have also started agreeing that foreign language listening creates anxiety (Young, 1992; Bacon, 1989). They agree that foreign language listening may provoke anxiety, for it may sometimes be incomprehensible. In Krashen's terms, listening anxiety may act as an affective filter, which makes comprehension more difficult.

Scarcella and Oxford (1992) suggested that listening tasks are likely to become anxiety-provoking for listeners when they are difficult or unfamiliar to them. This also relates to the learners' learning goals and beliefs. Learners' self-perceptions of their own listening ability may be another source of foreign language listening anxiety or vice versa. For instance, a listener may assume that s/he must understand each and every word in a listening text. When this theory fails, anxiety inevitably occurs. If the learner sticks with the previous theory, the occurence of anxiety becomes a repetitive event.

In their study, Mills et al. (2006) indicated that listening self-efficacy was positively associated with listening proficiency only for the female participants, and

listening anxiety was positively related to the listening proficiency of both male and female participants. This shows that listening self-efficacy and listening anxiety are two indirectly related notions.

Vogely (1998) conducted a research to present the sources of and solutions for listening comprehension anxiety as reported by foreign language students. The students in her study associated listening anxiety with the characteristics of listening comprehension input (51 %) and process-related factors (30 %), more so than instructional factors (6 %) and personal and interpersonal variables (13 %). Their solutions for weakening listening comprehension anxiety involved instructional factors (60 %) and input characteristics (31 %). The tables below are adopted from her study and represent the sources and solutions as reported by the students themselves.

Table 2.2. Students' Reported Sources of Listening Anxiety

Category	*Sources*	*% of responses*
Input	Nature of the speech	28%
	Level of difficulty	11%
	Lack of clarity	5%
	Lack of visual support	4%
	Repetition of input	3%
		Total 51%
Process	Inappropriate strategies	24%
	Lack of time to process	3%
	Can’t study for listening	2%
	Can’t check answers	1%
		Total 30%
Instructional Factors	Lack of listening practice	3%
	“the test thing”	2%
	Uncomfortable environment	1%
		Total 6%
Personal Factors	Fear of failure	10%
	Nerves	2%
	Instructor’s personality	1%
		Total 13%

Table 2.3. Students' Suggestions for Alleviating Listening Anxiety

Category	*Sources*	*% of responses*
Input	Make input comprehensible	18%
	Use variety of input	6%
	Structure tasks	7%
		Total 31%
Process	Focus on strategies needed	3%
	Note taking/use of English	1%
		Total 4%
Instructional Factors	Increase class time for listening	39%
	Combine listening with other skills	16%
	Provide regular feedback	4%
	Create out-of-class opportunities	1%
		Total 60%
Personal Factors	Experience small successes	4%
	Meditation/breathing, etc.	1%
		Total 5%

Vogely (1998) concludes that "listening comprehension activities that address listening anxiety will empower both the teacher and the learner. When teachers and students make the shift from listening for correctness to listening for a message, the motivation to understand increases and the fear of being "wrong" decreases. Learners that are motivated to listen and learn will have positive attitudes toward the target language and its speakers" (p. 75-76)

Preiss, Wheeless and Allen (1990, cited in Kim, 2000: 43) determined five kinds of effects of receiver apprehension: (1) listening effectiveness, (2) processing anxiety, (3) information processing effectiveness, (4) cognitive complexity, and (5) education level. They have suggested as the result of their analysis that these five factors significantly explain variance in receiver apprehension.

Wheeless and Scott (1976, cited in Kim, 2000: 46) explains the source of listening anxiety as it relates to three factors. The first one of them is about a situational fear of encountering new information. The second factor is related to the

fear of information processing or psychologically adjusting to messages. The third factor creating listening anxiety is based on the use of interpretive schemes or strategic repertoires to respond to incoming information. Therefore, the learners who lack the appropriate schemata to strategically process messages tend to feel anxious over a variety of situations.

Horwitz et al. (1986) found strong anxiety in listening as well as speaking and testing situations. Two items in FLCAS are directly related to listening anxiety. MacIntyre (1995) emphasized the foreign language students' worry about misunderstanding linguistic structures or inferring meaning from situational context because they make embarrassing mistakes in listening activities.

More recently, Kim (2000) devised a research on foreign language listening anxiety, which forms the basis for the current study. The author looked for a relationship between foreign language listening and anxiety. Her thesis had two components, the first of which examined the existence of listening anxiety and general foreign language anxiety quantitatively. The second component which was qualitative looked at sources and effects of listening anxiety. The author sampled 245 university students in Korea during spring semester, 2000. The assumption was that the students had an adequate range of emotional experiences with listening to English to participate in an anxiety study because they had had to take a series of listening texts in their English classes.

The instruments used in Kim's 2000 study were the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS), a listening proficiency test (TOEFL), four listening passages for the elicitation of listening anxiety, and a background questionnaire for personal background information. The author conducted a pilot study in order to measure the time required to fill out the questionnaires, to clarify the data collection procedures, and to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaires. Kim (2000) tested the translation accuracy of the questionnaires by applying a translation/back-translation procedure. She gathered the data through the application of the questionnaires. She also devised a retrospective interview in order to understand the experiences of anxiety more clearly.

Kim (2000) used descriptive statistics, factor analysis, and correlation/regression methods for the quantitative analysis of the data gathered thorugh questionnaires. She performed principle component analysis to find out the

underlying factors in both FLCAS and FLLAS. She, then, compared the results by means of Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). Finally, she used Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to compare the variables that showed significant effect in the MANOVA analysis. The last step was to utilize Pearson Product-Moment correlations to look at the relationship between anxiety and listening proficiency.

For the qualitative component of her dissertation, Kim used five open-ended questions in the questionnaires and retrospective interviews. She analyzed the interviews by using a qualitative coding/analysis method suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited in Kim, 2000; 75). She categorized, identified relationships, and filled patterns.

The results of Kim's study suggested that foreign language learners indeed experience anxiety in response to listening comprehension. A majority of the participants of the study acknowledged having experienced listening anxiety in foreign language classrooms and real-life communication situations. These results were also confirmed by the qualitative component of the dissertation. This study also revealed that FLLAS is a reliable and valid measure of foreign language listening anxiety. The Cronbach's alpha of its final version was $\underline{r} = .93$. The analyses of internal consistency ($\underline{r} = .91$) and test-retest reliability ($\underline{r} = .84$) all proved that FLLAS is a reliable measure.

Factor Analysis performed by Kim (2000) on the FLLAS demonstrated two orthogonal factors, one of which was related to the tension and worry over English listening, and the other concerning lack of self-confidence in listening. Also, the mean FLCAS score of the participants of this study was higher than "any observed in the various language anxiety studies" (Kim, 2000: 146). Kim also found a significant correlation ($\underline{r} = .71$) between listening anxiety and foreign language anxiety. However, the squared correlation ($\underline{r}^2 = .50$) showed that half of the variance of the FLLAS was not explained by variation in the FLCAS. Kim concludes that "the two constructs seem to be not only associated, but also relatively independent" (2000: 148). The rest of the variance may be due to other factors or sampling error. This result corresponds with Elkafaifi's (2005) result that FL learning anxiety and listening anxiety are separate but related phenomena that both correlate negatively with achievement. Kim (2000) also found out that listening anxiety actually interferes with foreign language listening, but moderately ($\underline{r} = -.36$). In her study, humanities students showed higher levels of foreign language anxiety and listening

anxiety than non-humanities participants. The author asserts that the reason for this difference lies in the fact that humanities students are required to take more language related course than non-humanities students, or have to choose optional language courses in order to obtain certificates related to English proficiency in Korea. The author found another significant difference between those who had studied in a private language institute with tutors, and those who had not. Other apparently important factors, such as living abroad or experience in ESL classes conducted in English had no effect on levels of anxiety.

The retrospective interview protocol of Kim's dissertation also presented interesting results. Students' general responses to retrospective interview tasks indicated that foreign language learners are sensitive to both types of listening texts and kinds of tasks. The students experienced substantially higher anxiety in authentic listening such as a very colloquial dialogue or a news report. Another finding was that the students attributed their listening difficulties to the delivery speed. Kim's study also supported that listening anxiety is profoundly related to learner beliefs and socio-cultural contexts.

2.6. STUDIES CONDUCTED IN TURKEY

There are several studies conducted in Turkey concerning anxiety and its manifestations in specific language skills. In this section of the current study, these studies will be outlined briefly.

In 2000, Sarıgül investigated how trait anxiety and foreign language anxiety affect learners' level of foreign language proficiency and achievement. She conducted her study in Beykent University with the participation of 177 students enrolled in the English language program for freshmen. The results of the study indicated that foreign language anxiety is a distinct, situation specific form of anxiety, not necessarily related to trait anxiety, which is a general personality characteristic. The results also illustrated that foreign language anxiety reported by a large share of the participants was negatively related to their foreign language achievement. Another finding was that trait anxiety and foreign language anxiety was separate but related phenomena. In addition, the study also supported the view that foreign language anxiety encompasses test anxiety.

Aydın (2001) investigated the sources of foreign language anxiety in two productive skills; speaking and writing. She conducted a diary study upon three

anxiety groups determined with the utilization of FLCAS. She also administered the questionnaire BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) in order to analyze whether or not beliefs about language learning influence students' anxiety. Qualitative analyses on the diaries and interview data unearthed three main sources of foreign language anxiety. The first source was found to be related to personal reasons such as negative self-assessment of ability, self-comparison to other students, high personal expectations, and irrational beliefs about language learning. The second anxiety source discovered in Aydın's study concerned the teachers' manner towards learners and towards their error. The last source was about the teaching procedures in speaking and writing classes i.e. speaking in front of the classroom, making oral presentations, studying individually, and writing in the paragraph form.

Oner and Kaymak (1986, cited in Aydın, 2001: 9) points out to the role culture plays in the frequency with which anxiety occurs and also in the form of its expression. The authors attribute the generation of fear of failure and anxiety to "the highly structured and authoritarian organization of Turkish schools, the non supportive and critical behavior of teachers, and the strict grade promotion policies".

Vancı-Osam (1996, cited in Aydın, 2001: 10) argues that learning a foreign language is anxiety-provoking invariably for all learners. She thinks that what makes it worse for Turkish EFL learners is the unfamiliarity of the typical in-class activities and tasks in foreign language learning process.

Sertçetin (2006) investigated foreign language anxiety with a sample from primary school students. She also analyzed the effect of gender factor to the type and level of anxiety. As a result of the analyses, the author found out that young learners experienced significantly higher levels of Test Anxiety, Communication Apprehension, and Fear of Negative Evaluation than teenagers.

Kuru Gönen (2005) conducted a study in order to illustrate the sources of reading anxiety from students' point of view. Diaries and interviews were used as data for the study. As a result of the analyses, the author refined three major sources of foreign language reading anxiety, namely personal factors, reading text and reading course. The personal factors were students' lack of strategy use, fear of comprehension, lack of motivation, negative background experiences, lack of self-confidence, and high expectations. The sources related to the reading text concerned the topic of the text, the intensity of unknown vocabulary, the complexity of the linguistic structures, physical characteristics of the text (e.g. illustrations, font size

etc.), and the cultural content of the reading passage. The last source of reading anxiety as presented by the students themselves was the features of the reading course. The teachers' attitude in the classroom, the attraction of the book, the physical characteristics of the classroom, and the compulsory nature of the reading course were among these features.

2.7. CONCLUSION

All in all, the anxiety literature has dealt with a great many aspects of foreign language anxiety. The previous studies have all complemented to the growing body of knowledge on this area, leaving significant research concerns behind. One of these research concerns is about foreign language listening anxiety. In fact, there are several studies which have dealt with foreign language listening anxiety and several of its characteristics, effects, and sources. What is left behind is about the effect of listening text type on the level of FLLA experienced by foreign language learners. This is a really significant aspect of foreign language listening anxiety. The current study will deal with this aspect of foreign language listening anxiety. Actually, in her 2000 study, Kim made an assertion that foreign language listeners are sensitive to the listening text type, based on the qualitative analyses of some interview data. Nevertheless, the quantitative analysis of this assertion is needed in order to confirm the result obtained through qualitative analyses. It is plausible to try to verify that claim quantitatively in order to reach more reliable conclusions based on the analyses. The following sections of this thesis will first describe the methodology of this study and then primarily focus on the effect of text type on foreign language listening anxiety.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1. PRESENTATION

This chapter presents information regarding the current study's design, participants, instruments, data collection and analysis. This chapter will introduce the reader into the discussion of findings. It will give the readers an insight into the nature of the study and help them understand better the procedures used in this study.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

The current study is a descriptive analysis of the listening anxiety levels of the students at GUSFL and aims at finding the sources and relations of listening anxiety in EFL learners. The study will have two parts. The former will deal with students' FLCA and FLLA profiles and their relations to each other, to their listening and general language achievement levels, and to some demographic qualities of the participants (i.e. age, gender, schooling background, and department). The latter part of the thesis will provide information on the possible relationship between listening text type and listening anxiety. The second part will also look at the sources of listening anxiety as adapted from Kim (2000).

3.3. PARTICIPANTS

The samples for the two components of the analysis were different. The samples were parts of a whole population of 600 preparatory level students. In the first sample, there were 160 participants all of which were students at GUSFL in spring semester of 2007. Since our study was a descriptive study, almost 25 % of the whole population was sampled, which exceeded the necessary 10 %. Three subjects

did not follow the instructions, so their data were eliminated, leaving a total sample of 157 for the first part of the analysis. The ages of the participants ranged from 17 to 27 with an average age of 19.6. The male-female ratio was 111:46.

Table 3.1. Descriptives for the Proficiency Level

Proficiency Level

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Pre-Intermediate level	71	45.2	45.2	45.2
Intermediate Level	49	31.2	31.2	76.4
Upper-Intermediate Level	37	23.6	23.6	100.0
Total	157	100.0	100.0	

As can be seen in table 3.1, the participants were drawn out of three proficiency levels (as determined by a placement exam at the beginning of the academic year). Seventy-one (45.2 %) were pre-intermediate; 49 (31.2 %) were intermediate; and 37 (23.6 %) were upper-intermediate EFL learners. Approximately one-forth of the whole population was gathered from each proficiency level.

Table 3.2. Descriptives for the Schooling Background

Schooling Background

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
-Public High School	46	29.3	29.3	29.3
-Anatolian High School	54	34.4	34.4	63.7
-Science High School	11	7.0	7.0	70.7
-Super Lycee	27	17.2	17.2	87.9
-Anatolian Teacher Training High School	10	6.4	6.4	94.3
-Vocational High School	9	5.7	5.7	100.0
-Total				

Table 3.2 illustrates the schooling background of the participants in the first part of the study. The greatest percentage came from Anatolian High Schools (54; 34.4 %). 46 of the participants were graduates of Public High Schools (29.3 %). There were 27 Super Lycee (17.2 %), eleven Science High School (7 %), 10 Anatolian Teacher Training High School (6.4 %), and nine Vocational High School (5.7 %) graduates participating in the study.

Table 3.3. Descriptives for the Department

Department

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Medicine	29	18.5	18.5	18.5
Civil Engineering	11	7.0	7.0	25.5
Machine Engineering	31	19.7	19.7	45.2
Physics Engineering	22	14.0	14.0	59.2
Food Engineering	20	12.7	12.7	72.0
Electricity-Electronics Engineering	19	12.1	12.1	84.1
Industry Engineering	10	6.4	6.4	90.4
Textile Engineering	9	5.7	5.7	96.2
English Language and Literature	6	3.8	3.8	100.0
Total	157	100.0	100.0	

It is clear from table 3.3 that a great proportion of the participants are under-graduate engineering students (122; 77.7 %). The sample includes students from the departments of Civil (7 %), Mechanical (19.7 %), Physics (14 %), Food (12.7 %), Electrics-Electronics (12.1 %), Industry (6.4 %), and Textile Engineering (5.7 %). The rest of the sample was made up of Medicine (29; 18.5 %) and English Language and Literature (6; 3.8 %) students.

The students were assumed to have had adequate emotional experience with English to participate in an anxiety study because they had been exposed to a series of listening activities both in the classes and in the exams. In GUSFL, exams play an important role in the accomplishment of the preparatory level English class. More specifically, listening questions form 10 % of each midterm. Therefore, students are accustomed to listening in English. In other words, they must have developed a certain level of consciousness about their listening ability and their emotional status during listening in English. Thus, the responses obtained from the participants were expected to reflect the experiences.

The sample for the second component of the thesis composed of 130 drawn out of the 160 students participating for the first component of the thesis. The reduction in the number of the students was due to restrictions of time and space. Since the administrations of the listening texts were done in students' classrooms in order not to alter the conditions making up some part of their anxiety, it was really hard to devise the administrations with large number of students. Nevertheless, 130 is the maximum which could be reached.

3.4. INSTRUMENTS

The instruments used in this study consisted of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS), a scale used to measure sources of listening anxiety and the anxiety levels of the students during listening to different texts (with an anxometer), nine listening texts for the elicitation of listening anxiety, listening scores from four midterms to be used as students' listening proficiency scores, and students' preparatory class final scores to be used as their English proficiency scores. All the questionnaires were translated into Turkish and three ELT M.A. students were asked to verify the accuracy of the translation.

3.4.1. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

After Horwitz et al. (1986) defined the concept of Foreign Language Anxiety, they prepared a scale in order to determine the FLCA levels of EFL learners and named it the FLCAS. This scale was a self-report measure of EFL learners' feelings about the anxiety they felt during foreign language learning process. The scale has 33 items which aim to measure the learners' anxiety levels as a reaction to language learning. The scale uses 5-point Likert-type scales, ranging from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree".

The validity and reliability of the FLCAS have been reported in several studies. For example, Horwitz (1986) claims that the internal consistency of the scale is .93 based on Cronbach's Alpha, and it has a test-retest reliability of $\underline{r} = .83$ ($\underline{p} < .001$, $n = 78$) over a period of eight weeks. In addition, Horwitz (1986) asserts that the scale has construct validity and it can differentiate FLCA from other types of anxiety. Elkhafaifi (2005) found the estimated reliability for the FLCAS (Cronbach's alpha) as .94 ($n = 233$). Liu (2006) also found a quite high reliability coefficient for the FLCAS ($\underline{r} = .92$).

For the current study, Turkish version of the FLCAS was adapted from Aydın (2001), who reports a reliability of .91 for her own research population. One of the 33 items was omitted from the scale since the participants have no other courses than English. (*Item # 26: I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.*) The reliability of this scale for the current study was .90.

3.4.2. The Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS)

Since Wheeless' (1975) Receiver Apprehension Test which had often been used to measure listening anxiety was specifically designed for first language acquisition, Kim (2000) felt the need to design a scale specific to foreign language learning to better measure listening anxiety. The researcher interviewed some language learners in order to have an insight into listening anxiety and listening difficulties after reviewing the literature on the topic. Then, a pool of appropriate items for inclusion in the scale was generated on the basis of four basic categories: Fear of Spoken English, Process-related Anxiety, Lack of Self-confidence, and Concern about Insufficient Prior Knowledge. The pool of items numbered 41 was reduced to 33 based on *a priori* criteria such as questionable relevance and undesirable similarity. A 5-point Likert-type scale was chosen because it had been widely used in scales related to beliefs, attitudes and anxiety. After numerous revisions by PhD students in Foreign Language Education, the scale attained its final form. Then, Kim devised a pilot study to obtain information about the reliability and item-scale correlations. The omission of eight items created an alpha of .93.

For the current study, the items in the FLLAS were translated into Turkish by the author. Then, the translated version was back-translated by 3 area specialists and the problematic translations were corrected. Colleagues from the Turkish Language Department were asked to evaluate the final version of the translation and the minor points which may have lead to misunderstandings were corrected accordingly. In order to be able to comment on the construct validation of this scale, a factor analysis was conducted. The results of the factor analysis suggested that there were eight subcomponents of the foreign language listening anxiety. The reliability value of this scale for the current study obtained after the final factor analysis was .86.

3.4.3. The Scale Used to Measure the Sources of Listening Anxiety and Students' Anxiety Levels during Listening to Different Texts

Kim (2000) established some sources of listening anxiety as a result of the qualitative analyses of some semi-controlled interviews. The current study tried to confirm these sources by using them together with an anxometer adapted from MacIntyre and Gardner (1991). The sources were listed and the students were asked to check the one/s they thought affected them. The anxometer used in the scale

would give information about the anxiety levels of the students during listening to texts of different types. Figure 3.1 shows the anxometer used in the scale.

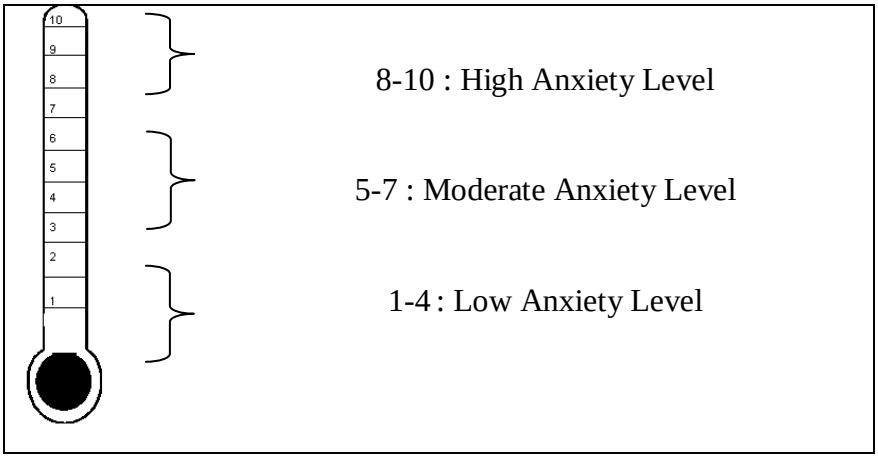

Figure 3.1. Anxometer (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991)

The students were required to choose a level on the anxometer which would indicate their level of anxiety during listening to the texts.

3.4.4. Listening Texts for the Elicitation of Listening Anxiety

For the second component of this study, nine listening passages were chosen for administration. Three of these passages were dialogues from everyday life; three were lectures; and the remaining three were extracts from radio talk shows. These three listening types were chosen because the first one reflects the colloquial usage of English; the second one is an example of the academic use of English; and the last type relates to the usage of English in the media which can be regarded as a separate genre. It can be said that there was a wide spectrum of text types. Dialogues and lectures were taken from Randall Davis's ESL Cyber Listening Lab (http://www.esl-lab.com/). Radio talk shows were extracted in the Pathfinder which is used in participants' English classes (Mugglestone, 2003). The passages were a little above the students' current listening proficiency ability in order that the students would experience listening anxiety when they had to participate in activities which were more challenging. This was ensured with the help of some interviews with the class teachers. Every class teacher was asked to choose one of the listening texts from a pool of 4 listening texts before administration.

3.4.5. Listening and General English Proficiency Scores

The listening proficiency scores of the students were acquired from four midterm exams. The listening components of the midterms for each student were summed and transformed into a 100-point scale in order to achieve equivalence among the scores of different proficiency levels. Then, the reliability was measured for the listening components of the exams so as to be sure of the usability of the scores. The reliability values (KR-21) were respectively .76, .89, .84, and .77 all of which can be regarded in the acceptable reliability limits.

General English proficiency scores were obtained from students' overall achievement scores at the end of the academic year in the preparatory program. The KR-21 measured for the scores was .82 which shows that the scores can be used reliably.

3.5. DATA COLLECTION

In this section the data collection procedures for the formal study are described and the pilot study is explained in detail.

3.5.1. Pilot Study

The pilot study was conducted in order to measure the time needed to fill out the questionnaires, to clarify the data collection procedures, and to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaires. Fifty-eight students from intermediate level of English proficiency were administered the questionnaires. The alpha (α) reliability score for the FLCAS was .87 and for the FLLAS .90 which showed that the questionnaires would reliably serve the purpose of the study. The same subjects were not included in the main study in order to prevent the effect of the pilot study on the main study. This was done in order to avoid short-term memory effect.

3.5.2. Data Collection

The data were collected in the spring semester of 2007 in Turkey in regular class hours in the classrooms. The reason why the administrations were delayed until the spring semester was to give the students an opportunity to become more familiar with English and to accumulate some experience in listening to English. First, the students were told they were absolutely free to reject becoming a participant or quit the study at any time during the data collection procedure. None of the students

withdrew from the study. Firstly, the FLCAS with some demographic questions was administered to the participants in December. Three months later, the students were given the FLLAS in order to prevent any undesired effect of the former scale on the latter such as scale-tiredness, weariness, or boredom.

To analyze the listening process better, the researcher periodically had participants listen to three different types of listening passages with an interval of one and a half months between each two administrations. After listening to the passages, the students were asked to complete the questionnaire with the anxometer. The aim was to determine the level of listening anxiety each type of listening text provoked. As mentioned in the instruments part, the scale also included some (14) sources of listening anxiety that allowed students to describe what the major cause of their anxiety was.

3.5.3. Data Analysis

Having collected all the data required for the investigation, the researcher typed the data into SPSS 15.0 which is a package programme for statistical analyses in social sciences. The first step was to gather the Cronbach's Alpha values for the two scales (i.e. FLCAS and FLLAS). After that, the researcher conducted a principal component analysis on FLLAS in order to detect the underlying factors which comprise listening anxiety. The next step was to carry out Pearson Product Moment Correlations in order to spot the significant relationships among foreign language listening anxiety scores, foreign language classroom anxiety scores, English proficiency scores, listening proficiency scores, duration of English education, and age. After that, the researcher performed independent samples t-tests to find out the effect of gender on both listening anxiety and classroom anxiety levels. One-way ANOVAs were run so as to identify the effects of schooling background and department on participants' listening anxiety and classroom anxiety levels.

For the second component of the thesis, the scores obtained by the use of anxometer were run in a one-way ANOVA in order to see the effect of text type on participants FLCA levels.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. PRESENTATION

In this chapter of the current study, the results obtained through data analyses will be presented. The first part of this chapter provides information on the descriptive analyses and reliability coefficients for the FLCAS and FLLAS. The second part will try to answer the research questions using inferential analyses. The first step in this part will be about the factor analysis done with the FLLAS. After that, Pearson Product Moment Correlations among foreign language listening anxiety scores, foreign language classroom anxiety scores, English proficiency scores, and listening proficiency scores will be examined. Independent samples t-tests and one-way analysis of variances (ANOVAs) will give information about the relationship between subjects' demographic qualities and their anxiety levels (i.e. FLCA and FLLA). For the second component of the thesis, the results of a one-way ANOVA will yield information on the effect of text type on participants' listening anxiety levels. As the last step of this chapter, the sources of listening anxiety will be analyzed.

4.2. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSES

The FLCAS comprised of 33 items scored on a five-point Likert scale. After the omission of the 26^{th} question due to the reason presented in the methodology chapter, the remaining 32 questions yielded a theoretical range between 32 and 160. The descriptive statistics for the FLCAS are given in table 4.1:

Table 4.1. Descriptive Statistics for the FLCAS

	Statistic	Std. Error
Mean	86,497	1,527
Median	73,000	
Variance	365,970	
Std. Deviation	19,130	
Minimum	41,00	
Maximum	140,00	
Range	99,00	
Skewness	,558	,194
Kurtosis	,307	,385

In this study, the total scores for the FLCAS ranged from 41 to 140 with a mean of 86.4968 and with a standard deviation of 19.1303. When compared to the participants in Kim's (2000) study, the subjects in this study exhibited a lower level of anxiety. The skewness and kurtosis values were in the acceptable limits. The Cronbach's Alpha was .90 for the FLCAS.

There were initially 33 questions scored on a five-point Likert type scale in the FLLAS. However, as a result of the factor analysis run on the scale, the researcher found out that 9 of these questions were not able to serve the purpose of the current study. The details will be presented in the next part of this chapter. The analysis created a scale comprising of 24 items with a theoretical range of 24 to 120. Below are the descriptive statistics for the FLLAS after the principal component analysis:

Table 4.2. Descriptive Statistics for the FLLAS

	Statistic	Std. Error
Mean	72,287	1,094
Median	73,000	
Variance	187,796	
Std. Deviation	13,704	
Minimum	30,00	
Maximum	106,00	
Range	76,00	
Skewness	-,360	,194
Kurtosis	,546	,385

The range for the total scores for the FLLAS was 76 with a minimum of 30 and a maximum of 106. The mean was 72.2866 and the standard deviation was 13.70385. For the FLLAS, the skewness and kurtosis values were in the acceptable limits. The Cronbach's Alpha was .86 after the problematic items were suppressed.

4.3. INFERENTIAL ANALYSES

Research Question # 1 **Do the construct validation and reliability analyses of data collection tool (FLLAS) reveal acceptable statistics and coefficients?**

In order to answer this research question, a factor analysis was conducted to summarize the questions within valid and plausible components; and Cronbach's Alpha (α) values were calculated to check internal reliability of the whole scale along with individual factors. The factor analysis is particularly used as a data reduction technique, which takes a large set of variables and looks for a way to reduce or summarize the data using a smaller set of components (Pallant, 2001). Items that did not serve the purpose of the whole scale were eliminated through this analysis in the current study. That is, eliminated items did not serve the purpose of the study, since they were not reliable or valid indicators of the study's construct.

Principal component was applied as the extraction method since it is more popular in the research area and easier to interpret (Pallant, 2001). In line with the assumptions of orthogonal and non-orthogonal rotation methods, inter-item correlations were checked and Varimax with Kaiser Normalization was preferred for rotation as suggested by Field (2000). The following section includes the factor analysis conducted for cooperating teachers.

Since four questions were positively worded in comparison to other questions, they were reverse-coded to attain parallel forms of responses for all questions. Then, Cronbach's Alpha value was calculated for the whole scale which revealed a value of .848 which was considerably good. Then, items with inappropriate corrected item-total correlation values (Item-total correlation values for the FLLAS are presented in the Appendix C.) were suppressed as suggested by Pallant (2001). Particularly 20^{th} and 28^{th} questions had very low corrected-item total values which revealed that those items did not serve the purpose of the current study's data collection tool (i.e., .139 and .111, respectively). The new Cronbach's Alpha raised to .878 after these two items were eliminated.

Items of the scale were examined through principal component analysis using SPSS 15.0 for Windows. First of all, the suitability of data for factor analysis was checked. The first concern was the sample size. Kass and Tinsley (1979) suggest having between 5 and 10 subjects per items of the scale up to a total of 300. If the number reaches up to 300, test parameters tend to be stable regardless of the subject to variable ratio. Field (2000) and Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) agree that it is appropriate to have at least 300 cases for factor analysis. Comrey and Lee (1992) believe that 100 is poor sample size, 300 can be considered as good, and 1000 and more is excellent. Finally, Pallant (2001) suggests that researchers should be cautious if they have less than 150 participants. The current dataset had 157 participants which meant that the dataset was suitable for factor analysis.

Even though the sample size was acceptable, further inspections were conducted as suggested by Pallant (2001). Thus, the next step was to check the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is calculated for individual and multiple variables and represents the ratio of the squared correlation between variables to the squared partial correlation between variables (Field, 2000). The KMO value varies between 0 and 1. A value of 0 indicates that the sum of partial correlations is large relative to the sum of correlations, whilst a value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are compact, and so factor analysis will yield reliable factors. Kaiser (1974) suggests that values greater than 0.5 should be accepted. Pallant (2001) claims that the KMO statistic should be larger than 0.6. Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999) suggest that values between 0.5 and 0.7 are normal, values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great, and values above 0.9 are superb. The initial solution of the factor analysis revealed a KMO value of .804, which was far above the acceptable value.

The next concern is that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity should reach a significant value to support the factorability of the correlation matrix obtained from the items (Pallant, 2001). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity revealed an ideal Approx. Chi-Square value (χ^2=1508.400) with a significance value of .0005 which meant that the factorability of the correlation matrix was proper.

The principal component analysis revealed 9 factors with eigen values exceeding 1 in the initial factor solution, which could explain 61.798 % of the total variance. As the next step of the analysis, complex items were examined in the

component matrix to prevent multicollinearity. More specifically, items having close loadings under several factors were eliminated as they were ambiguous items contaminating the factor structure. Eliminated items along with their component loadings are provided in table 4.3:

Table 4.3. Complex items eliminated from the scale

Item Number	Component loadings
1	.367 & .401
2	.404 & .468
7	.406 & .495
15	.381 & .395
24	.425 & .500
27	.430 & .482

After inappropriate items with regard to their corrected-item total values along with complex component loadings were eliminated from the scale, the Cronbach's Alpha was .86. A new factor analysis was conducted with this final question set. The KMO value increased to .820 with an ideal Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p<.0005$). The principal component analysis revealed 8 factors which explained 62.715 percent of the total variance. However, the 13^{th} question had close loading under several factors (i.e. 301, 337, and .361). Thus, the question was eliminated. This increased the KMO value to .825. The principal component analysis revealed 8 factors again with a total explained variance of 63.433 percent. The Cronbach's Alpha was .86 after all these eliminations were realized. In brief, after all these inappropriate items were eliminated, the new scale explained more variance with fewer factors which was an ideal condition (Pallant, 2001).

As mentioned above, it is important to explain as much variance as possible with fewer numbers of factors. Based on a) explained variance changes for each component, b) eigenvalue changes, c) the screeplot provided in figure 4.1, the number of factors was determined as 8 for further extraction and rotation.

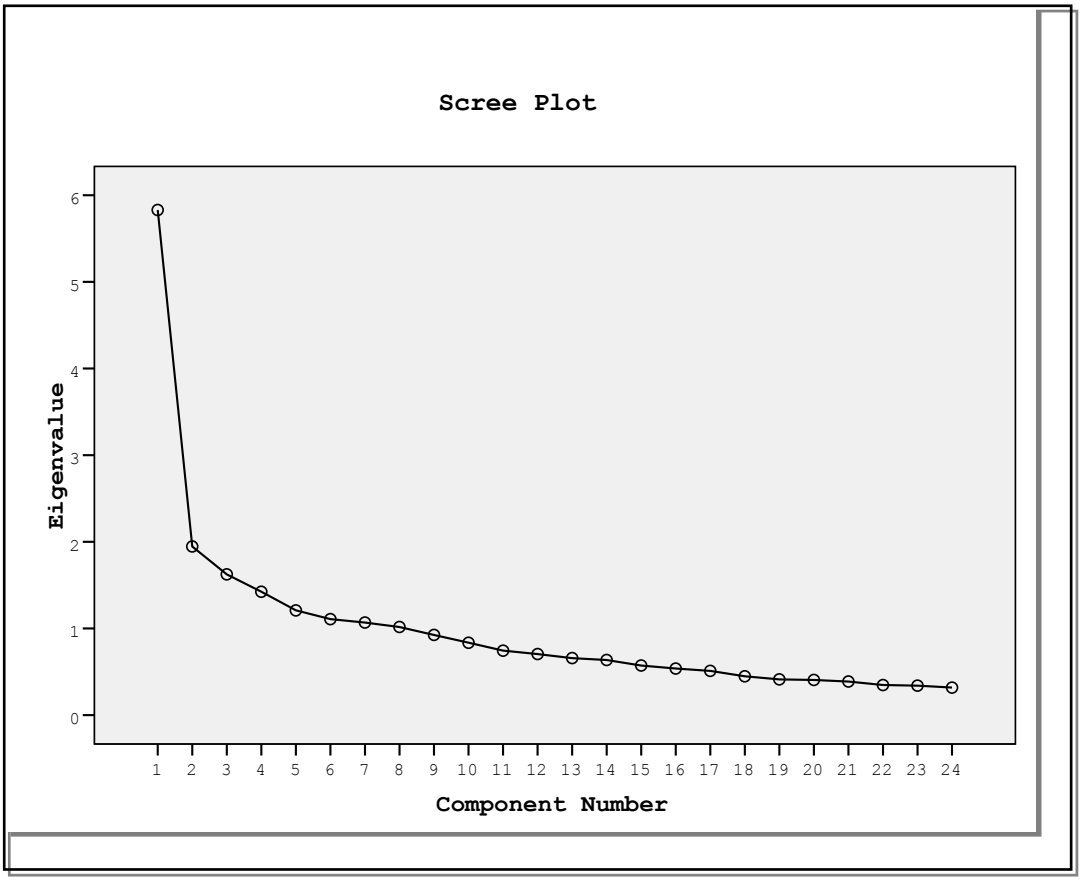

Figure 4.1. The screeplot regarding the final factor analysis

There are studies claiming that the limit for factor loadings should be between 0.30 and 0.40 (Coombs & Schroeder, 1988; Dunteman, 1989). Pallant (2001) claims if items load above 0.30, this is an appropriate loading. Field (2000) suggests that loadings less than 0.40 be suppressed in the output. The current research considered 0.40 as the limit to create robust and conservative results. This limit was also preferred in a recent study published in an SSCI journal, Computers and Education (Namlu & Odabasi, 2007).

The total number of questions for eight factors was determined as 24, which meant that a total of 9 questions were eliminated from the scale, since they did not serve the purpose of the data collection instrument. KMO and Bartlett of the values were ideal as provided in Table 4.4:

Table 4.4. KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin measure of sampling adequacy	,825
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Approximate χ^2	1003,614
Df	276
Sig.	,0005

The analysis with eight factors and 24 indicators explained 63.433 % of the total variance. The variance explained can be considered above the acceptable limits based on the suggestion of Dunteman (1989). Variance explained by each component is illustrated in Table 4.5:

Table 4.5. Total variance explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5,830	24,290	24,290	5,830	24,290	24,290	2,902	12,092	12,092
2	1,946	8,108	32,398	1,946	8,108	32,398	1,913	7,971	20,062
3	1,624	6,768	39,166	1,624	6,768	39,166	1,888	7,867	27,930
4	1,424	5,932	45,097	1,424	5,932	45,097	1,834	7,643	35,573
5	1,208	5,035	50,132	1,208	5,035	50,132	1,833	7,636	43,208
6	1,108	4,615	54,747	1,108	4,615	54,747	1,741	7,252	50,461
7	1,068	4,450	59,197	1,068	4,450	59,197	1,623	6,761	57,221
8	**1,017**	**4,236**	**63,433**	**1,017**	**4,236**	**63,433**	**1,491**	**6,211**	**63,433**
9	0,925	3,854	67,286						
10	0,835	3,480	70,766						
11	0,744	3,099	73,865						
12	0,704	2,935	76,800						
13	0,657	2,739	79,539						
14	0,636	2,649	82,188						
15	0,572	2,383	84,571						

Extraction Method: Principal Component

(Subsequent rows are deleted to save space)

As mentioned above, the number of factors was determined as eight. To interpret factors easily, they were rotated through Varimax Rotation. Factors were labeled as follows: 1) The effect of topic, time, pace and vocabulary on listening anxiety, 2) Confidence in listening proficiency, 3) The role of pronunciation, stress and intonation, 4) Listening anxiety in authentic contexts, 5) Listening anxiety in lecture situations, 6) Fear of incomprehension, 7) The effect of visuals and thorough comprehension on listening anxiety, and 8) Negative self-evaluation. Items included under each label, reliability coefficients, item means and standard deviations, and Varimax rotation loadings are provided in Table 4.6:

Table 4.6. Means, standard deviations, Alpha Coefficients, and Varimax rotation loadings

	Items and Factors	Mean	SD	Varimax factor load
Factor 1: The effect of topic, time, pace and vocabulary on listening anxiety (α=,725)				
5	I am nervous when I am listening to English if I am not familiar with the topic.	3,344	1,164	0,445
11	I feel uncomfortable in class when listening to English without the written text.	2,841	1,217	0,569
18	I get worried when I have little time to think about what I hear in English.	3,261	1,277	0,588
21	I get worried when I can't listen to English at my own pace.	3,083	1,115	0,570
30	I get annoyed when I come across words that I don't understand while listening to English.	3,299	1,211	0,758
33	It frightens me when I cannot catch a key word of an English listening passage.	3,089	1,263	0,563
Factor II: Confidence in listening proficiency (α=,538)				
6	It is easy to guess about the parts that I miss while listening to English. (reverse coded)	3,159	1,107	0,739
14	I feel confident when I am listening in English. (reverse coded)	2,905	1,108	0,660
Factor III: The role of pronunciation, stress and intonation (α=,599)				
3	When someone pronounces the words differently from the way I pronounce them, I find it difficult to understand.	3,580	1,188	0,652

4	When a person speaks English very fast, I worry that I worry that I might not understand all of it.	3,688	1,275	0,515
10	When listening to English, it is difficult to differentiate the words from one another.	3,172	1,110	0,698
31	English stress and intonation seem familiar to me. (reverse coded)	3,452	1,206	0,439
Factor IV: Listening anxiety in authentic contexts (α=,593)				
12	I have difficulty understanding oral instructions given to me in English.	2,484	1,228	0,503
26	I am nervous when listening to an English speaker on the phone or when imagining a situation where I listen to an English speaker on the phone.	2,682	1,177	0,78
32	When listening to English, I often understand the words but still can't quite understand what the speaker means.	2,847	1,144	0,68
Factor V: Listening anxiety in lecture situations (α=,322)				
25	I have no fear of listening in English as a member of an audience. (reverse coded)	2,669	1,146	0,784
29	Listening to new information in English makes me uneasy.	3,172	1,220	0,49
Factor VI: Fear of incomprehension (α=,552)				
19	When I am listening to English, I usually end up translating word by word without understanding the contents.	2,701	1,293	0,698
22	I keep thinking that everyone else except me understands very well what an English speaker is saying.	2,439	1,205	0,550
23	I get upset when I'm not sure whether I understand what I am listening to in English.	3,503	1,084	0,521
Factor VII: The effect of visuals and thorough comprehension on listening anxiety (α=,518)				
8	When I am listening to English, I am worried when I can't watch the lips or facial expression of a person who is speaking.	2,452	1,106	0,776
9	During English listening tests, I get nervous and confused when I don't understand every word.	2,752	1,186	0,609
Factor VIII: Negative self-evaluation (α=,541)				
16	I fear I have inadequate background knowledge of some topics when listening in English.	3,083	1,176	0,777
17	My thoughts become jumbled and confused when listening to important information in English.	2,631	1,082	0,529

(Extraction: Principal Component; Rotation: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.)

In Table 4.6, alpha coefficients (α) are provided for each factor. As mentioned in the first factor analysis, it is common to see factors with alpha values lower than .70 since there were very few indicators in those factors. This situation does not mean that given factors were not reliable. As mentioned before, it is usual to see low alpha values for measurement tools involving less than ten indicators (Pallant, 2001). Corrected-item total correlations should be checked in these situations to be sure about the quality of the items within a specific factor. As mentioned before, items with low corrected-item total values were already removed from the analysis. Corrected-item total values of items of the final form of the scale ranged between .307 and .597 which meant that the reliability assumptions of factors were met.

The Cronbach's Alpha was .86 after the problematic items were suppressed. Based on the factor structure and the component matrix which indicated that all items were related, the author suggests that the total score be used as "FLLAS score". The maximum possible score from the current 24-item scale is 120 while the minimum score is 24. The total score calculated for the current sample revealed a normal distribution. According to criteria of Huck (2000), skewness and kurtosis values were within the limits of a normally distributed sample. The maximum score was 106 while the minimum was 30. The current sample's descriptive statistics are provided in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7. Descriptive statistics of the total scores

		Statistic	Std. Error
Mean		72,287	1,094
95% Confidence	Lower Bound	70,126	
Interval for Mean	Upper Bound	74,447	
5% Trimmed Mean		72,564	
Median		73,000	
Variance		187,796	
Std. Deviation		13,704	
Minimum		30,00	
Maximum		106,00	
Range		76,00	
Interquartile Range		17,00	
Skewness		-,360	,194
Kurtosis		,546	,385

Research Question # 2a **Is there a relationship between students' listening anxiety (as determined FLLAS) and their listening proficiency (as measured by 5 midterm listening scores)?**

In order to answer the research question above, a Pearson product moment correlation was used. Pearson product moment correlation is the most commonly used type of correlation. According to Hatch and Farhady (1981: 203), there are some underlying assumptions that have to be met for Pearson correlation analysis. "The assumptions are: (1) the two variables are continuous, (2) scores on X and Y are independent of each other, and (3) the relationship between X and Y is linear". Since we can meet these assumptions for the relationship between listening anxiety and listening proficiency, Pearson product moment correlation was an appropriate method to be used. Table 4.8 shows the correlation:

Table 4.8. Correlation between FLLA and Listening Proficiency

Correlations

		Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	Listening Proficiency Score
Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	1	-.301**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	157	157
Listening Proficiency Score	Pearson Correlation	-.301**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	157	157

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

The Pearson product moment correlation indicated that there is a significant negative correlation between subjects' FLLA scores and their listening proficiency scores at the 0.01 level ($r = -.301$, $p > .01$). This means that as FLLA increases, listening proficiency decreases and vice versa. This correlation value is a perfect indicator of the relationship between listening anxiety and listening proficiency. Kim (2000) found that foreign language listening anxiety correlated negatively with listening proficiency ($r = -.364$, $p > .01$). Therefore, that result is confirmed by the current study as well.

Research Question # 2b **Is there a relationship between GUSFL students' reported levels of listening anxiety (as determined FLLAS) and their foreign**

language end-of-the-year grades (as measured by the end-of-the-year grades of the students at the end of the preparatory year)?

The relationship between students' FLLA and their general English proficiency meets the assumptions set up by Hatch and Farhady (1981) as well. Therefore, the researcher conducted another Pearson correlation in order to look for the relationship. Table 4.9 shows the findings:

Table 4.9. Correlation between FLLA and English Proficiency

Correlations

		Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	English Proficiency Score
Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	1	-.241**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	157	157
English Proficiency Score	Pearson Correlation	-.241**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	157	157

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

The Pearson product moment correlation was a sign of a significant negative correlation between subjects' FLLA scores and their English proficiency scores at the 0.01 level ($r = -.241$, $p > .01$). This implies that as FLLA increases, English proficiency decreases and vice versa. This correlation value is a sign of the relationship between listening anxiety and listening proficiency.

Research Question # 3a **Is there a relationship between GUSFL students' reported levels of foreign language anxiety (as determined FLCAS) and their listening proficiency (as measured by 5 midterm listening scores)?**

The next step in the analysis was to find out whether FLCA has any effect on students' listening proficiency. The researcher analyzed the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient in order to find an answer to the research question above. Table 4.10 illustrates the coefficient:

Table 4.10. Correlation between FLCA and Listening Proficiency

Correlations

		Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	Listening Proficiency Score
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	1	-.201*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	157	157
Listening Proficiency Score	Pearson Correlation	-.201*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	157	157

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

The Pearson product moment correlation illustrated a significant negative correlation between subjects' FLCA scores and their listening proficiency scores at the 0.05 level (r= -.201, p>.05). This indicates that as FLCA increases, listening proficiency decreases and vice versa. This correlation value is an indicator of the relationship between FLCA and listening proficiency. Kim (2000) also found a significant negative correlation between foreign language classroom anxiety and listening proficiency (r= -.356, p>.01).

Research Question # 3b **Is there a relationship between GUSFL students' reported levels of foreign language anxiety (as determined FLCAS) and their foreign language grades (as measured by the end-of-the-year grades of the students at the end of the preparatory year)?**

To answer this research question, another Pearson product moment correlation was applied to the dataset. The results are presented in table 4.11:

Table 4.11. Correlation between FLCA and English Proficiency

Correlations

		Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	English Proficiency Score
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	1	-.383**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	157	157
English Proficiency Score	Pearson Correlation	-.383**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	157	157

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

The Pearson product moment correlation pointed up to a significant negative correlation between subjects' FLCA scores and their English proficiency scores at

the 0.01 level (r= -.383, p>.01). This indicates that as FLCA increases, English proficiency decreases and vice versa. This correlation value is a sign of the relationship between FLCA and English proficiency.

Although negative correlations were found between listening proficiency and the overall FLLA and the overall FLCA, it is a must to be cautious while explaining the relationships. Since FLLA and FLCA are significantly related to each other (r = .446, p>.01), it is wise to control FLCA in a partial correlation in order to see the effect of FLLA better. Hair et al. (1998, cited in Kim, 2000) state that a partial correlation coefficient measures the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable and a single predictor variable when the effects of the other predictor variables in the model are held constant.

Table 4.12. Partial Correlation between FLLA and Listening Proficiency Controlling for FLCA

Correlations

Control Variables			Listening Proficiency Score	Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	Listening Proficiency Score	Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000	-.241
			.	.002
		df	0	154
	Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	-.241	1.000
			.002	.
		df	154	0

Interestingly, when the effect of FLCA was partialed out, the partial correlation between FLLA and listening proficiency was not significant anymore (r = -.241). This reconfirms the finding that FLCA and FLLA are separate but highly related phenomena (Elkhafaifi, 2005). This result may indicate that the relationship between FLLA and listening proficiency is not a significant one, but it is important to bear in mind that the correlation coefficient is negative although not significant. The indication is that FLLA is still negatively correlated with listening proficiency.

Research Question # 4 Is there a relationship between GUSFL students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their levels of listening anxiety?

Several previous studies (Kim, 2000; Elkhafaifi, 2005) have found that there is a strong positive correlation between FLCA and FLLA (r = .71, p>.01; r = .66, p>.01 respectively). To analyze the same relationship, the researcher of the current study used a Pearson product moment correlation. The findings are provided in table 4.13:

Table 4.13. Correlation between FLLA and FLCA

Correlations

		Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	1	.446**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	157	157
Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	.446**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	157	157

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

Confirming the previous findings, the current study also revealed a significant relationship between FLCA and FLLA (r = .45, p>.01). Students with higher levels of FLCA tended to have higher levels of FLLA and vice versa.

For the sake of completeness, the researcher prepared a correlation matrix for the correlation coefficients given for the previous research questions. This will show the relationships among the variables mentioned until now in a more regular way.

Table 4.14. Correlation Matrix

Correlations

		1	**2**	**3**	**4**
1- Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	1			
	N	157			
2- Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	.446**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	157	157		
3- English Proficiency Score	Pearson Correlation	-.383**	-.241**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002		
	N	157	157	157	
4- Listening Proficiency Score	Pearson Correlation	-.201*	-.301**	.286**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.000	.000	
	N	157	157	157	157

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Research Question # 5a **Is there a relationship between students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their ages?**

Another Pearson product moment correlation was administered to find an answer to the research question above. The results are as follows:

Table 4.15. Correlation between FLLA and Listening Proficiency

Correlations

		Age	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	.112
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.164
	N	157	157
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	.112	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.164	
	N	157	157

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient demonstrates that the relationship between age and FLCA is not a significant one (r = .11).

Research Question # 5b **Is there a relationship between students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their gender?**

The answer to this research question can be found with the help of an independent samples t-test. The independent samples t-test compares the means of two groups on a given variable. Büyüköztürk (2002) states that there are three assumptions which have to be met in order for a t-test to be a reliable indicator of the difference between the means of two groups. The first assumption for this test is that the two groups are independent of each other. In our case, the female and male groups are totally independent of each other, which means that the case meets the first assumption. The second assumption is that the two groups have approximately the same variance on the dependent variable. This will be checked with the help of the Levene's test. If the significance is greater than .05, this will mean that the second assumption is met with our case. The last assumption is that the distribution of the dependent variable is close to the normal distribution. This can be checked by looking at the skewness value. Huck (2000) indicates that the skewness value is not considered extreme if it is between -1.0 and +1.0. For our dataset, the skewness value is .56, which is a positively distributed set. Analyzing the Quartile-Quartile plots is another way to check the assumption of normality. The Q-Q plots provide us with an

opportunity to compare the observed values against expected values. If the sample reflects a normal distribution, each observation falls on a line which is congruent with the fit line of the plot. More congruence points to a more normal distribution.

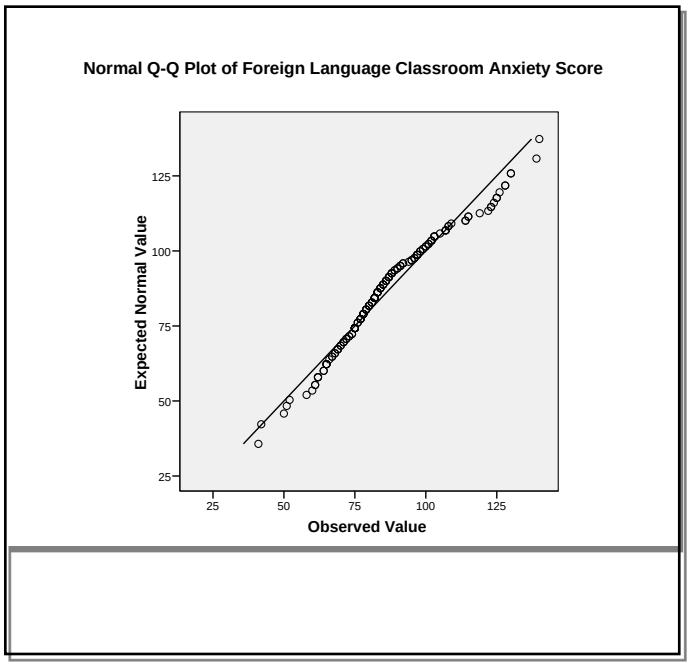

Figure 4.2. Normal Q-Q Plot of FLCA Score

The Q-Q plot shows that the fit line is more or less congruent with the distributions of observations, which points to the normality of distribution. Thus, the assumption of normality is perfectly met.

The results of the t-test are presented in table 4.16:

Table 4.16. Summary of the Levene's Test for FLCA

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety	**Equal Variances Assumed**	**F**	**Sig.**
	Equal Variances Not Assumed	**2.124**	**.147**

The significance value in the Levene's test (sig.: .147>.05) shows that our dataset meets the first assumption. In other words, the two groups have approximately the same variance on the dependent variable.

Table 4.17. Summary of the Independent Samples T-test for FLCA and Gender

			t-test for Equality of Means			
					95 % Confidence Interval of the Difference	
T	**df**	**sig. (2 t.)**	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**
.172	**155**	**.863**	**.580**	**3.365**	**-6.067**	**7.227**

The t-test indicates that the difference between the means of the two groups is not significant (t_o = .172 < t_t = 1.97, p>.05). The indication is that the difference between males and females in terms of FLCA is not significant. Thus, gender is not a distinctive factor for FLCA.

Research Question # 5c **Is there a relationship between students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their exposure time to the target language?**

The researcher made use of another Pearson product moment correlation in order to answer the research question # 5c. The results are as follows:

Table 4.18. Correlation between Time of Exposure to English and FLCA

Correlations

		Duration of English Education	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score
Duration of English Education	Pearson Correlation	1	-.171*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.033
	N	157	157
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	-.171*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.033	
	N	157	157

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

The Pearson product moment correlation illustrated a significant negative correlation between subjects' FLCA scores and their exposure time to the FL at the 0.05 level (r= -.171, p>.05). This indicates that as duration of exposure increases, FLCA decreases and vice versa. This correlation value is a sign of the relationship between FLCA and duration of English education.

Research Question # 5d **Is there a relationship between students' levels of foreign language anxiety and their schooling background?**

To answer this research question, the researcher decided to use a one-way ANOVA based on some assumption stated by Büyüköztürk (2002). The first assumption is that the dependent variable is a scale variable. Our dataset meets the first assumption. The second assumption is that the scores on the dependent variable are normally distributed. To test this, we can look at the skewness value. Since the skewness value is between -1.0 and +1.0 (.558), it can be said that the dependent variable is normally distributed.

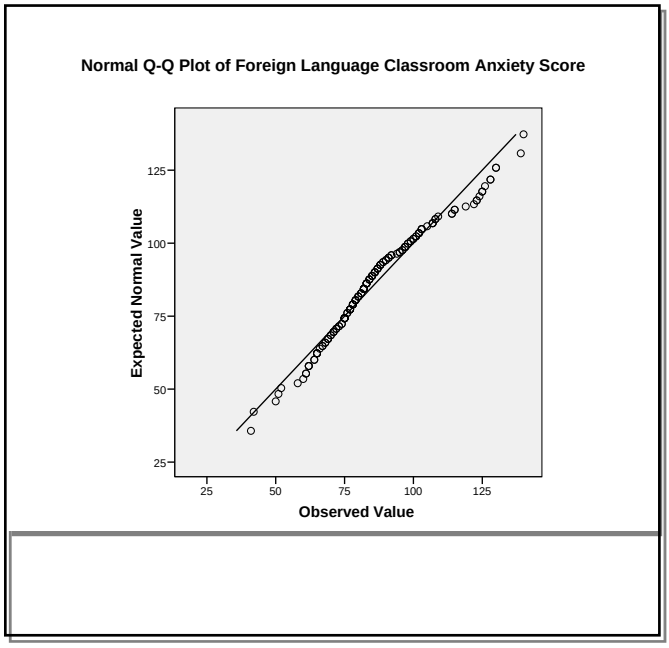

Figure 4.3. Normal Q-Q Plot of FLCA

The Q-Q plot shows that the fit line is congruent with the distributions of observations, which points to the normality of distribution. Thus, the second assumption is met. The third assumption is that the groups whose means will be compared are independent of each other. The dataset meets the third assumption as well. The last assumption is that the variances related to the dependent variable are equal for each group. A Levene's test will be used to test this assumption.

Table 4.19. Summary of the Levene's Test for FLCA

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Score

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.69	5	151	.023

Since the significance value is smaller than .05, the last assumption is not met (sig. = .023<.05). To put it another way, the variances are not homogenous. Therefore, we are not going to assume that the variances are equal.

Table 4.20. Summary of the One-way ANOVA for FLCA and Schooling Background

ANOVA (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale**)**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2577.529	5	515.506	1.428	.217
Within Groups	54513.719	151	361.018		
Total	57091.248	156			

The results of the ANOVA suggest that the differences among the groups are not significant. Thus, schooling background is not a distinctive factor for FLCA.

Research Question # 6a **Is there a relationship between students' levels of listening anxiety and their ages?**

The relationship between FLLA and age is one that meets the assumptions of a Pearson product moment correlation. Therefore it was appropriate to devise a correlation in order to determine whether the relationship was a significant one. In table 4.21, the results are presented:

Table 4.21. Correlation Between Age and FLLA

Correlations

		Age	Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.850
	N	157	157
Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	-.015	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.850	
	N	157	157

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient demonstrates that the relationship between age and FLLA is not a significant one (r = .015).

Research Question # 6b **Is there a relationship between students' levels of listening anxiety and their gender?**

To answer this research question, and independent samples t-test was employed. First of all, the assumptions stated by Büyüköztürk (2002) were checked

to make sure that the assumptions were met in order for the t-test to be a reliable indicator of the difference between the means of the two groups. The first assumption for this test is that the two groups are independent of each other. In our case, we have two totally independent groups, which means that the case meets the first assumption. The second assumption is that the two groups have approximately the same variance on the dependent variable. A Levene's test will be used to check the probability of this assumption. The last assumption is that the distribution of the dependent variable is close to the normal distribution. We will check this assumption with the help of the skewness value. For our dataset, the skewness value is -.36, which points to a negatively distributed set. The skewness value is between -1.0 and +1.0, so it can be said that the sample is normally distributed.

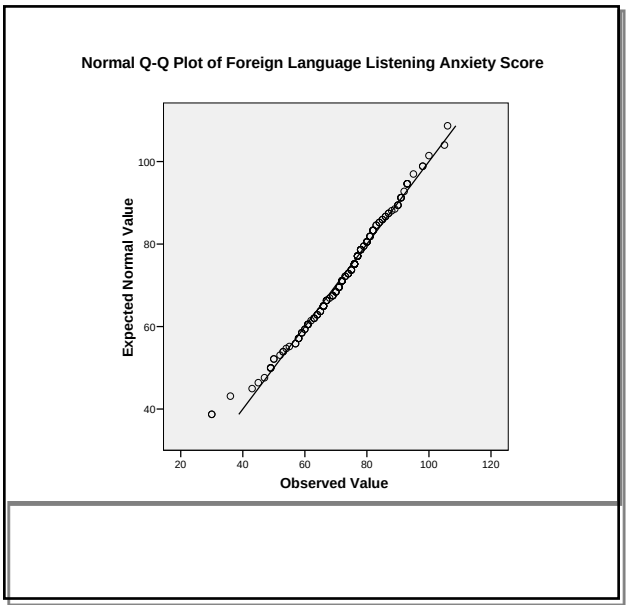

Figure 4.4. Normal Q-Q Plot of FLLA

The congruence between the fit line and the distribution can be observed from the Q-Q plot. The results of the t-test are presented in table 4.22:

Table 4.22. Summary of the Levene's Test for FLLA

		Levene's Test	
Foreign Language Listening Anxiety	Equal Variances Assumed	F	Sig.
	Equal Variances Not Assumed	2.236	.137

The significance value in the Levene's test (sig.: .137>.05) shows that our dataset meets the first assumption. In other words, the two groups have approximately the same variance on the dependent variable. Therefore, we can assume that the variances are virtually equal.

Table 4.23. Summary of the Independent Samples T-Test for FLLA and Gender

			t-test for Equality of Means			
					95 % Confidence Interval of the Difference	
T	**df**	**sig. (2 t.)**	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**
-.957	**155**	**.340**	**-2.300**	**2.404**	**-7.049**	**2.448**

The t-test indicates that the difference between the means of the two groups is not significant (t_o = -.957 < t_t = 1.97, p>.05). The indication is that the difference between males and females in terms of FLLA is not significant. Thus, gender is not a distinctive factor for FLLA.

Research Question # 6c **Is there a relationship between students' levels of listening anxiety and their exposure time to the target language?**

The researcher made use of another Pearson product moment correlation in order to answer the research question # 6c. The results are as follows:

Table 4.24. Correlation between FLLA and Time of Exposure to English

Correlations

		Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	Duration of English Education
Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score	Pearson Correlation	1	-.073
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.361
	N	157	157
Duration of English Education	Pearson Correlation	-.073	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.361	
	N	157	157

The Pearson product moment correlation did not reveal a significant correlation between subjects' FLLA scores and their exposure time to the FL. This means that the relationship between FLLA and duration of English education is not a

statistically significant one. Previously in the current study, we have found that FLCA is negatively correlated with the duration of English education. This finding may be interpreted as an indication of the more general nature of FLCA.

Research Question # 6d **Is there a relationship between students' levels of listening anxiety and their schooling background?**

As mentioned before, the one-way ANOVA enables us to compare the means of more than two groups on one variable. By using, ANOVA, we can examine the differences between the means and decide whether those differences are likely to happen by chance or by treatment effect. Since our dependent variable (FLLA) is a scale variable, the dataset meets the first assumption for a one-way ANOVA (Büyüköztürk, 2002). The second assumption is that the scores on the dependent variable are normally distributed. To test this, we can look at the skewness value. Since the skewness value is close to 0 (-.360), it can be said that the dependent variable is close to normal distribution. Thus, the second assumption is met. The Q-Q plot can be seen on figure 4.5:

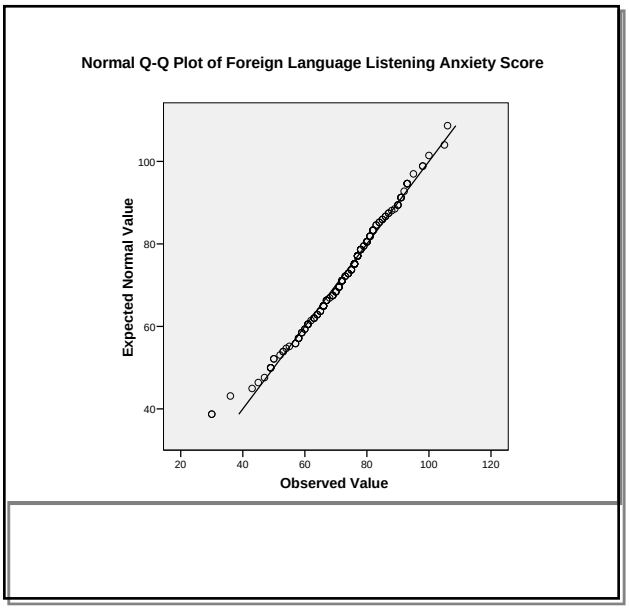

Figure 4.5. Normal Q-Q plot of FLLA

The Q-Q plot also shows the distribution is normal. The third assumption is that the groups whose means will be compared are independent of each other. The dataset meets the third assumption as well. The last assumption is that the variances

related to the dependent variable are equal for each group. A Levene's test will be used to test this assumption.

Table 4.25. Summary of the Levene's Test for FLLA

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Score

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.175	5	151	.324

Since the significance value is greater than .05, the last assumption is met (sig. = .324>.05). In other words, the variances are homogenous. Therefore, we are going to assume that the variances are equal.

Table 4.26. Summary of the One-way ANOVA for FLLA and Schooling Background

ANOVA (Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale**)**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	494.528	5	98.906	.519	.762
Within Groups	28801.574	151	190.739		
Total	29296.102	156			

The results of the ANOVA suggest that the differences are significant neither between nor within groups. Thus, schooling background is not a distinctive factor for FLLA.

Research Question # 7 **Do different listening text types have a differential effect on GUSFL students' reported levels of listening anxiety (as measured by the anxometer)?**

In order to answer this research question, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. The first concern was whether the dataset met the assumptions needed for the ANOVA. If the populations from which data to be analyzed by a one-way ANOVA were sampled violate one or more of the one-way ANOVA test assumptions, the results of the analysis may be incorrect or misleading. For example, if the assumption of independence is violated, then the one-way ANOVA is simply not appropriate, although another test (perhaps a blocked one-way ANOVA) may be appropriate. If the assumption of normality is violated, or outliers are present, then the one-way ANOVA may not be the most powerful test available. A nonparametric test or

employing a transformation may result in a more powerful test. A potentially more detrimental assumption violation occurs when the population variances are unequal, especially if the sample sizes are not approximately equal (unbalanced). Often, the effect of an assumption violation on the one-way ANOVA result depends on the extent of the violation. Some small violations may have little practical effect on the analysis, while other violations may render the one-way ANOVA result uselessly incorrect or uninterpretable. In particular, small or unbalanced sample sizes can increase vulnerability to assumption violations. However, as stated in the methodology chapter, the sample size is appropriate for the statistical procedures being applied.

The dataset of the current study meets the assumption of independence. That is, the groups are independent of each other. There are two ways we can check the assumption of normality. The first one is to take a look at the skewness value, as used in the previous one-way ANOVAs in the current study.

Table 4.27. Descriptive Statistics for Anxiety Level

Statistics

Anxiety Level (out of 10)		
N	Valid	364
	Missing	0
Skewness		-.073
Std. Error of Skewness		.128

The skewness value (-.073) is really close to zero, which indicates that the distribution of the dependent variable is close to normal distribution. The second way to check the assumption of normality is to observe the Q-Q plot in order to see whether or not the data skews on the outliers.

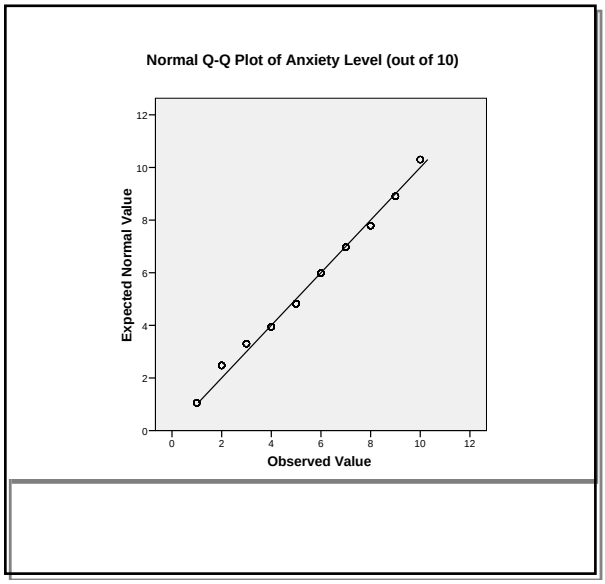

Figure 4.6. Normal Q-Q plot of Anxiety Level

As can be observed on the Q-Q plot, the distribution is truly close to normal distribution. Thus, the assumption of normality is met. The third assumption concerns the population variances. In order to be able to conduct a one-way ANOVA, the variances of the groups should be equal. This can be checked using a Levene's test.

Table 4.28. Summary of the Levene's Test for Anxiety Level

Test of Homogeneity of Variances
Anxiety Level (out of 10)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.505	2	361	.223

The significance value is greater than .05 (sig. =.223> .05). This enables us to assume that the population variances are equal. Therefore, the third assumption is met. The last assumption states that the dependent variable should be at least a scale variable. The current dataset meets this assumption as well. The results of the one-way ANOVA are presented in table 4.29:

Table 4.29. Summary of the One-way ANOVA for Anxiety Level and Text Type

ANOVA (Anxiety Level**)**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	533.692	2	266.846	67.304	.000
Within Groups	1431.283	361	3.965		
Total	1964.975	363			

The ANOVA table shows that the differences between the means of the groups are significant (sig. = .000). The means plot illustrates the differences.

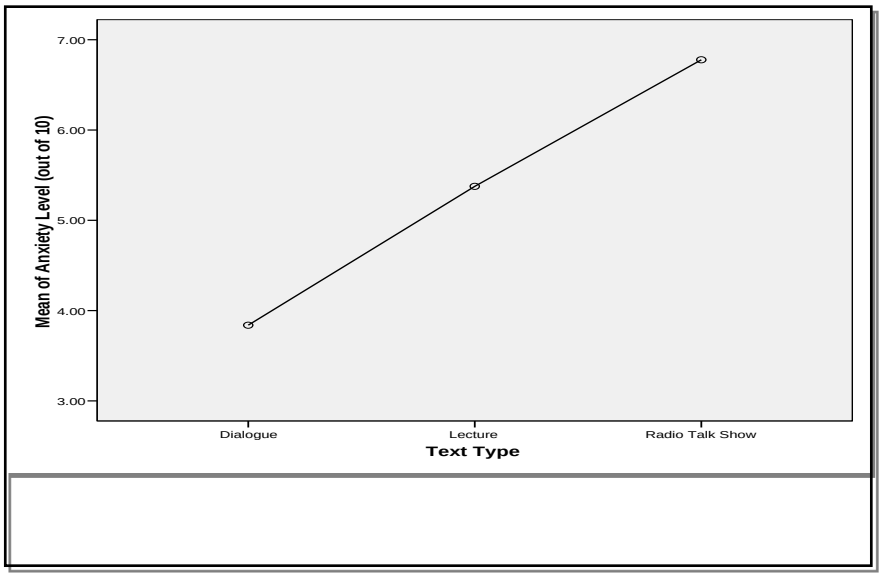

Figure 4.7. Means Plot of Anxiety Level for Text Type

The next step was to conduct a post hoc test in order to spot among which groups the difference was present. Table 4.30 illustrates the findings of the Scheffe post hoc test:

Table 4.30. Summary of the Scheffe Post-Hoc Test for Anxiety Level and Text Type

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Anxiety Level (out of 10)
Scheffe

(I)Text Type	(J) Text Type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Dialogue	Lecture	-1.538*	.254	.000	-2.161	-.914
	Radio Talk Show	-2.939*	.254	.000	-3.563	-2.316
Lecture	Dialogue	1.538*	.254	.000	.914	2.161
	Radio Talk Show	-1.402*	.260	.000	-2.042	-.762
Radio Talk Show	Dialogue	2.939*	.254	.000	2.316	3.563
	Lecture	1.402*	.260	.000	.762	2.042

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The multiple comparisons table shows that the mean differences are significant between dialogue and lecture (-1.538, sig. = .000), dialogue and radio talk show (-2.939, sig. = .000), and lecture and radio talk show (-1.402, sig. = .000). The indication is that listeners in a foreign language are sensitive to the differences of text

type. However, the first one-way ANOVA was conducted irrespective of the proficiency level. It should be plausible to conduct the one-way ANOVA for all three proficiency levels separately in order to eliminate the effect of proficiency.

For the upper-intermediate level, one-way ANOVA procedure yielded significant differences between the means of the groups (sig. = .000). Table 4.31 shows the mean differences:

Table 4.31. Summary of the Scheffe Post-Hoc Test for Anxiety Level and Text Type for the Upper-Intermediate Level

Multiple Comparisons[a]

Dependent Variable: Anxiety Level (out of 10)
Scheffe

(I)Text Type	(J) Text Type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Dialogue	Lecture	-1.298	.558	.072	-2.688	.092
	Radio Talk Show	-2.870*	.558	.000	-4.260	-1.480
Lecture	Dialogue	1.298	.558	.072	-.092	2.688
	Radio Talk Show	-1.571*	.585	.031	-3.027	-.116
Radio Talk Show	Dialogue	2.870*	.558	.000	1.480	4.260
	Lecture	1.571*	.585	.031	.116	3.027

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
a. Proficiency Level = Upper-Intermediate

The multiple comparisons table demonstrates that the mean differences are significant between dialogue and radio talk show (-2.870, sig. = .000) and between lecture and radio talk show (-1.571, sig. = .031). The mean difference between dialogue and lecture is not significant for the upper-intermediate group (sig. = .072).

As for the intermediate group, the one-way ANOVA was also significant between groups (sig. = .000).

Table 4.32. Summary of the Scheffe Post-Hoc Test for Anxiety Level and Text Type for the Intermediate Level

Multiple Comparisons[a]

Dependent Variable: Anxiety Level (out of 10)
Scheffe

(I)Text Type	(J) Text Type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Dialogue	Lecture	-1.433*	.406	.003	-2.438	-.457
	Radio Talk Show	-2.814*	.406	.000	-3.819	-1.808
Lecture	Dialogue	1.433*	.406	.003	.427	2.438
	Radio Talk Show	-1.381*	.415	.005	-2.409	-.353
Radio Talk Show	Dialogue	2.814*	.406	.000	1.808	3.819
	Lecture	1.381*	.415	.005	.353	2.409

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
a. Proficiency Level = Intermediate

The multiple comparisons table illustrates that the mean differences are significant between dialogue and lecture (-1.433, sig. = .003), dialogue and radio talk show (-2.814, sig. = .000), and lecture and radio talk show (-1.381, sig. = .005) for the intermediate group.

The one-way ANOVA for the pre-intermediate group also proved to be significant (sig. = .000).

Table 4.33. Summary of the Scheffe Post-Hoc Test for Anxiety Level and Text Type for the Pre-Intermediate Level

Multiple Comparisons[a]

Dependent Variable: Anxiety Level (out of 10)
Scheffe

(I)Text Type	(J) Text Type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Dialogue	Lecture	-1.798*	.399	.000	-2.785	-.811
	Radio Talk Show	-3.117*	.399	.000	-4.104	-2.130
Lecture	Dialogue	1.798*	.399	.000	.811	2.785
	Radio Talk Show	-1.319*	.405	.006	-2.321	-.317
Radio Talk Show	Dialogue	3.117*	.399	.000	2.130	4.104
	Lecture	1.319*	.405	.006	.317	2.321

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
a. Proficiency Level = Pre-Intermediate

The multiple comparisons table shows that the mean differences are significant between dialogue and lecture (-1.798, sig. = .000), dialogue and radio talk show (-3.117, sig. = .000), and lecture and radio talk show (-1.319, sig. = .006) for the intermediate group.

As a result of the one-way ANOVAs conducted on the dataset, it can be said that text type is a distinctive factor for FLLA. In other words, different listening text types have differential effects on GUSFL students' reported levels of listening anxiety.

In order to be able to comment on the reason why text type creates differential amounts of FLLA in EFL listeners, an analysis on the average speech rates of the three different text types was carried out. The analysis was done on the texts used in the current study. The results are presented in Table 5.1:

Table 4.34. Average Speech Rates for the Three Different Text Types

Text Type	**Words/ minute**	**Syllables/ minute**	**Syllables/ word**	**Words/ sentence**
Dialogues	200	250	1.25	7.2
Lectures	187	246	1.37	20.2
Radio Talk Shows	219	277	1.27	13.3

Based on the results of the analysis on listening texts, it can be said that the difference among the text types basically lie in the fact that radio talk shows include more words per minute (wpm). In a dialogue, speakers utter 200 wpm. In a lecture, the number decreases to 187. In a radio talk show, which is the fastest of all, speakers utter approximately 219 wpm. The indication is that the speed of delivery is the fastest in radio talk shows, which makes them difficult to comprehend; thereby leading to anxiety. In line with this finding, the syllable per minute (spm) ratio is the highest in radio talk shows (277 spm).

The most striking finding is that the number of words per sentence (wps) is the highest in lectures (20.2 wps). This shows that the sentences used in the lectures are longer than those used in dialogues. This might well be the reason why lectures are more anxiety-provoking than dialogues. In radio talk shows, the wps ratio is 13.3. For dialogues, the ratio is 7.2. To sum up, speech rate is clearly an important variable in listening comprehension and listening anxiety. Buck (2001) suggests that "comprehension declines as the speaker talks faster, and the weight of the evidence suggests that the decline in comprehension is rather slow until a threshold level is reached, at which time an increased speech rate leads to a much more rapid decline in comprehension" (p. 40). Since there is wide-ranging agreement on the fact that comprehension and anxiety are negatively related concepts, this may be the reason

why different text types create differing amounts of listening anxiety in EFL listeners.

Research Question # 8 **What are the sources of listening anxiety created by different types of listening passages?**

Table 4.35 provides the readers information about the frequencies of the FLLA sources. This will show whether different text types create different FLLA sources.

Table 4.35. Frequency Table of Sources of Listening Anxiety according to Text Type

Anxiety Source	***Dialogue N = 130***		***Lecture N = 117***		***Radio Talk Show N = 117***	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Number of the unknown words	66	**50.8**	83	**70.9**	56	47.9
Sound quality (disturbances, low volume etc.)	71	**54.6**	54	46.2	57	48.7
Number of the speakers	18	13.8	-	-	1	0.9
Pace of the listening	111	**85.4**	105	**89.7**	107	**91.5**
Background noise	15	11.5	19	16.2	12	10.3
Length of the listening text	23	17.7	59	**50.4**	44	37.6
Unfamiliarity of the topic	11	8.5	30	25.6	14	12
Intonation, stress, and pronunciation	85	**65.4**	68	**58.1**	68	**58.1**
Concentration problem	56	43.1	68	**58.1**	54	46.2
Lack of visual help (e.g. pictures, videos, maps)	40	30.8	50	42.7	48	41
Inconfidence in listening ability	46	35.4	42	35.9	36	30.8
Lack of skills in listening comprehension	33	25.4	31	26.5	31	26.5
Psychological state	32	24.6	48	41	25	21.4
Difficulty of the multiple-choice questions	8	6.2	19	16.2	12	10.3

The values in table 4.35 were gathered by asking the students whether they thought the listed sources of listening anxiety affected their levels of listening anxiety. The students ticked the sources that affected their anxiety levels. The answers were coded as “yes” or “no”. The values show the percentages of positive answers. The percentages which were over 50 % were bolded in the table, since it

means that there are more people who think those sources are influential on their listening anxiety. The values will both reveal the general sources of listening anxiety and will disclose the differences among the sources of anxiety specific to each text type.

Generally, number of unknown words, pace of listening, intonation, stress and pronunciation are the most influential sources of listening anxiety. Virtually all the participants (88.87 %) think that pace of listening is what affects their anxiety most. This may be an indication that authenticity genuinely affects listening anxiety. Since the texts were authentic texts extracted from the internet or students' textbooks, the flow of the speeches or conversations were real-life-like. Given the fact that the students are accustomed to a kind of "motherese" utilized by their language teachers in the EFL learning context, comprehension of the authentic speech fragments constitute a big burden, which directly contributes to their already existing anxiety. Thus, speed of delivery may be considered the most powerful anxiety-provoking factor for listening in EFL. The "slurring" (Kim, 2000: 129) of some words makes comprehension more difficult.

Intonation, stress and pronunciation are the second major cause of listening anxiety according to the percentages gathered from the study (60.5 %). In fact, even laymen would utter these sources of anxiety among the most influential ones when asked. The greatest burden before comprehension is that of "accent". Even advanced learners of English confront this problem. Even though they can identify the words, the phrases, and the structures of the statements, they are having difficulty understanding what the speaker means due to some discrepancies between their accent and that of the native speakers in the authentic texts. They may sometimes even miss the words they know owing to this accent problem.

The third concern was the number of unknown vocabulary in the listening texts (56.5 %). The more the number of unknown vocabulary items, the greater anxiety learners feel about listening in an FL. Actually, this source of anxiety may be directly related to the previously mentioned sources of listening anxiety, because the pace, intonation, stress, and pronunciation of the words may create the incomprehension of some words. The listeners may even miss the words they know. This may lead to the thought that there are actually more unknown words than they hear.

As can be seen in the table, the other sources of listening anxiety received relatively less pickings than the mentioned ones. This indicates that for our group, these sources of anxiety are less distinctive that the three mentioned above.

For the dialogue, the most influential anxiety sources were Pace of Listening (85.4 %), Intonation, Stress, and Pronunciation (65.4 %), Sound Quality (54.6 %), and Number of Unknown Vocabulary (50.8 %). For the lecture, the most anxiety-provoking sources were Pace of Listening (89.7 %), Number of Unknown Vocabulary (70.9 %) Intonation, Stress, and Pronunciation (58.1 %), Concentration Problem (58.1 %), and Length of the Text (50.4 %). For the radio talk show, the most anxiety-provoking sources were Pace of Listening (91.5 %) and Intonation, Stress, and Pronunciation (58.1 %).

It was also necessary to analyze the sources of listening anxiety in terms of proficiency level. The results would indicate whether different proficiency levels suffer from different sources of FLLA. Table 4.36 illustrates the frequencies by proficiency level:

Table 4.36. Frequency Table of Sources of Listening Anxiety according to Proficiency Level

Anxiety Source	***Upper-Intermediate N = 90***		***Intermediate N = 130***		***Pre-Intermediate N = 144***	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
Number of the unknown words	40	44.4	75	**57.7**	90	**62.5**
Sound quality (disturbances, low volume etc.)	66	**73.3**	57	43.8	59	41
Number of the speakers	0	0	9	6.9	10	6.9
Pace of the listening	76	**84.4**	121	**93.1**	126	**87.5**
Background noise	9	10	16	12.3	21	14.6
Length of the listening text	22	24.4	47	36.2	57	39.6
Unfamiliarity of the topic	13	14.4	22	16.9	20	13.9
Intonation, stress, and pronunciation	55	**61.1**	84	**64.6**	82	**56.9**
Concentration problem	42	46.7	70	**53.8**	66	45.8
Lack of visual help (e.g. pictures, videos, maps)	35	38.9	43	33.1	60	41.7
Inconfidence in listening ability	37	41.1	41	31.5	46	31.9

Lack of skills in listening comprehension	35	38.9	29	22.3	31	21.5
Psychological state	13	14.4	52	40	40	27.8
Difficulty of the multiple-choice questions	6	6.7	18	13.8	15	10.4

As can be seen in table 4.36, the most important sources are Pace of Listening (88.3 %); Intonation, Stress, and Pronunciation (60.87 %); and Number of Unknown Words (54.87 %). This confirms the previous findings. When the table was analyzed in terms of proficiency level, no obvious difference was observed. It can be stressed that upper-intermediate learners suffer less from Number of Unknown Words than the other two groups do. It is also worth mentioning that the intermediate group is affected by concentration problem which does not pose so much of a threat for the other two groups. Interestingly, the upper-intermediate group complains more about the sound quality of the texts they listened to. This may be because their listening texts were of less quality by chance. It may also be because of their high self-confidence in their listening ability. Their self-confidence may lead them to put the blame on something other then "themselves".

4.4. CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the results of quantitative analyses conducted in accordance with the research questions posed in the introductory chapter.

To sum up, it was found as a result of an in-depth factor analysis that there were eight subcomponents of FLLA. In terms of the effects of FLLA and FLCA on listening and general English proficiency, negative correlations were obtained. It was also determined that FLCA and FLLA are two concepts which are related but separate. It was also discovered that FLCA was significantly related to time of exposure to English but not significantly related to age, gender, or schooling background of EFL learners. In terms of FLLA, none of the four factors (i.e. age, gender, schooling background, and exposure time to English) were distinctive.

The current study also demonstrated that EFL learners are sensitive to the listening text type as regards to listening anxiety. Different text types provoke different amounts of listening anxiety in EFL learners.

Finally, three of Kim's (2000) sources of listening anxiety were found to influence the levels of listening anxiety experienced by EFL learners more than the

other 11 sources. These sources are Pace of Listening; Intonation, Stress, and Pronunciation; and Number of Unknown Vocabulary Items.

The next chapter will discuss the findings regarding the effect of FLLA on EFL learning process. The results will be discussed with reference to the previous studies in the related literature.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. TAPESCRIPTS OF THE LISTENING TEXTS

APPENDIX A.1. DIALOGUE - A LEVEL – TAPESCRIPT AND QUESTIONS (VIDEO RENTAL SHOP)

Store E mployee: Hi. May I help you?
Customer: Yeah. I'd like to rent these movies.
Store Employee: Okay. Do you have your membership card?
Customer: No I don't. Do I need one to rent movies here?
Store Employee: Yes, but it's free. It's just a card we issue to help us keep track of rentals and customer billing.
Customer: Okay and how much is movie rentals anyway?
Store Employee: Well, new releases are $3.50 (Okay), and all other movies are two dollars (Alright), and you can rent up to six movies at a time. (Hum) We also have a five buck deal where you can rent any five movies for $5.00 (Hum), but this doesn't include new releases.
Customer: Oh, well, I'll just take these tonight.
Store Employee: Okay, let's see . . . your total tonight comes to seven dollars and fifty cents.
Customer: And when do I need to return them?
Store Employee: They're due back the day after tomorrow by ten o'clock PM.
Customer: Thursday, okay.
Store Employee: And there is an overdue late fee equal to the rental fee of the movie, so be sure to return them on time.
Customer: Okay. Thanks.

Answer the questions below according to the listening text.
1. Where does this conversation most likely take place?
A. at a movie theatre
B. at a library
C. at a bookstore
D. at a video rental shop
2. How much do newly released movies cost to rent?
A. $2.00
B. $3.50

C. $5.00

D. $7.50

3. How many movies did the man rent based on the information given?

A. three

B. four

C. five

D. six

4. On what day does this conversation take place?

A. on Tuesday

B. on Wednesday

C. on Thursday

D. on Friday

5. What would be the late fee for an older movie three days overdue?

A. $3.00

B. $4.00

C. $5.00

D. $6.00

APPENDIX A.2. DIALOGUE - B LEVEL – TAPESCRIPT AND QUESTIONS (HANGING OUT TOGETHER)

Stuart: Amy. So, how are you doing?

Amy: Oh, hi Stuart. School is so crazy these days, and when I'm not at school, I'm at work.

Stuart: Hey, listen. I'm getting together with Sara and Paul tonight, and a few of our other friends are going to join us. [Oh.] And, we're . . . well, we're going out to eat and then catch a movie. Why don't you come with us?

Amy: Hey, I'd love to, but I have to cram a test tomorrow.

Stuart: Ah, come on. We're planning on having dinner around 6:30 and then seeing a movie at 7:30. We should be home by 10:30 . . . 11:30 at the latest. I mean you're always saying that you don't have any friends . . . and that your love life . . . well, that you don't have one. Come on!

Amy: I . . . I don't think I'd better. I haven't been feeling well lately.

Stuart: Yeah, because you study too much. Well, we'll have a blast. Come on! Relax. [Well . . .] And it's Sara's birthday, too. And we're throwing her a small birthday party after the movie. Come on. Best friends always stick together.

Amy: Oh. Okay.

Stuart: Great. I'll pick you up about 6:00.

Amy: Okay. See you then, but I have to be back by 10:30.

Stuart: Ah, 10:30 . . . Midnight. It's all the same. See you at 6:00.

Answer the questions below according to the listening text.

1. What is Stuart planning to do with his friends?

A. go for a drive and have a picnic

B. watch a football game

C. see a movie and have dinner

2. Why does Amy say she can't go with them?

A. She has to study for an exam.

B. She doesn't have any spending money.

C. She already has plans to attend a party.

3. What are they planning to do at the end of the evening?

A. watch a video

B. have a party

C. play some games

4. How is Amy getting to the activity?

A. She's driving her car.

B. Stuart is giving her a ride.

C. She's taking the bus.

5. What time does Amy want to be home?

A. at 10:30 p.m.

B. at 11:30 p.m.

C. at midnight

APPENDIX A.3. DIALOGUE - C LEVEL – TAPESCRIPT AND QUESTIONS (GETTING AROUND TOKYO)

Man: Let me see now. Which train do I need to get on?
Woman: Excuse me. Do you need any help?
Man: Yes, I want to go to Tokyo Tower, but I'm really lost. This is my first visit to Japan, so I have no idea on how to ride the trains.
Woman: First, you need to buy a ticket to your destination. [Um-HUH] From here, it's a hundred and thirty yen.
Man: A hundred thirty yen. Okay.
Woman: Then, get on the Hibiya Subway Line at platform number 4.
Man: Number 4, alright. Oh, and how often do the trains come around this time of day?
Woman: Usually, they come about every six minutes or so.
Man: Alright. And where do I get off the train.
Woman: Get off at Kamiyacho Station, three stops from here. The sign at the station is written in English, so you'll be able to read it.
Man: Three stops. Got it. Thanks for your help.
Woman: No problem. Good luck.

Answer the questions below according to the listening text.
1. Where does the man want to go?
A. Tokyo Subway Station
B. Tokyo Art Museum
C. Tokyo Tower
2. How much is the train fare?
A. 130 yen
B. 140 yen
C. 150 yen
3. Where should the man get on the train?
A. platform number 3
B. platform number 4
C. platform number 5

4. How often do the trains come?

A. about every five minutes

B. about every six minutes

C. about every seven minutes

5. Where should the man get off the train?

A. at Kamiyacho Station

B. at Kamigaya Station

C. at Kamiyama Station

APPENDIX A.4. LECTURE - A LEVEL – TAPESCRIPT AND QUESTIONS (OUR AGING SOCIETY)

Moderator:

Hello Ladies and Gentleman. It gives me great pleasure to introduce our keynote speaker for today's plenary address, Dr. Howard Miller. Dr. Miller, Professor of Sociology at Washington University, has written numerous articles and books on the issues facing older Americans in our graying society for the past 15 years. Dr. Miller:

Dr. Miller:

Thank you for that introduction. Today, I'd like to preface my remarks from a story from my own life which I feel highlights our common concerns that bring us here together. Several years ago when my grandparents were well into their eighties, they were faced with the reality of no longer being able to adequately care for themselves. My grandfather spoke of his greatest fear, that of leaving the only home they had known for the past 60 years. Fighting back the tears, he spoke proudly of the fact that he had built their home from the ground up, and that he had pounded every nail and laid every brick in the process. The prospect of having to sell their home and give up their independence, and move into a retirement home was an extremely traumatic experience for them. In was, in my grandfather's own words, like having a limb severed off. He was quite emphatic exclaiming that he felt he wasn't important anymore.

For them and some older Americans, their so-called "golden years" are at times not so pleasant, for this period can mean the decline of not only one's health but the loss of identity and self-worth. In many societies, this self-identity is closely related with our social status, occupation, material possessions, or independence. Furthermore, we often live in societies that value that which is "new" or in vogue, and our own usage of lexicon in the English language often does not bode well older for citizens. I mean how would your family react if you came home tonight elated exclaiming, "Hey, come to the living room and see the OLD black and white TV I brought!" Unfortunately, the word "old" conjures up images of the need to replace or discard.

Now, many of the lectures given at this conference have focused on the issues of pension reform, medical care, and the development of public facilities for senior citizens. And while these are vital issues that must be addressed, I'd like to focus my comments on an underlying issue that will affect the overall success of the other programs mentioned. This has to do with realigning our perspectives on what it means to be a part of this group, and finding meaning roles the elderly can and should play in our societies.

First of all , I'd to talk about . . .

Answer the questions below according to the listening text.

1. What is the main topic of this address?

A. the growing crisis of inadequate retirement pensions for the future

B. the problem of providing adequate medical care for the elderly

C. the need to reevaluate our attitudes towards senior citizens

2. What was the speaker's purpose in sharing the story about his grandfather?

A. to highlight the difficulties of finding affordable housing in the future

B. to illustrate the preoccupations of older citizens with growing older

C. to describe the lack of public facilities designed for the elderly

3. Which of the following statements did Dr. Miller NOT mention when speaking of senior citizens' "golden years"?

A. The loss of a person's self-identity is most prevalent in one's advancing years.

B. A person's declining health contributes to a feeling of inadequacy.

C. Self-worth is often tied to one's profession and social standing.

4. What do you think the speaker will talk about in the next part of his address?

A. the contributions the elderly can make in our societies

B. the swelling burden of supporting welfare programs in the future

C. our responsibility of building retirement homes for our graying society

5. Where does this plenary address most likely take place?

A. at a retirement home

B. at a conference center

C. at a hospital

APPENDIX A.5. LECTURE - B LEVEL – TAPESCRIPT AND QUESTIONS (A GREENER WORLD)

Commentator:

We hear it a lot in the news these days:

"Recycle newspapers and save a tree. Collect bottles and cans so they can be reused in the manufacturing of new products."

Protecting our delicate environment seems to be on the agenda of politicians, government leaders, and citizens in many parts of the world to show support for Mother Nature. The concept of green consumerism has gained momentum more and more over the last decade, and the public feels moved to pitch in and help. However, three essential keys needed to power this movement include a more informed public, the development of improved technology, and a greater demand for recycled materials.

Let's use paper as an example. The first step is to raise public awareness about the recycling process, to explain the kinds of materials that can be recycled, and provide ways on how to properly dispose of them. Local governments should educate the public on how to properly sort reusable materials from those, like waxed paper, carbon paper, plastic laminated material such as fast food wrappers, that can't be recycled very easily. Then, a system of collecting these sorted materials needs to be established. The Public interest might be there, but soon may wane if there isn't a system where they can take these materials to be recycled. Sometimes we become complacent when it comes to recycling, but when you speak in terms of actually facts and figures that everyone can understand, people become more cognizant of the problem. I remember reading one time that the energy saved from one recycled can provide enough power to operate a television for three hours. Give the public information they can grasp, and then you will increase your chances of gaining followers.

Second, technological progress has been made on many fronts, but governmental agencies need to step up their support for companies involved in recycling by providing tax incentives, low-cost loans, or even grants to upgrade equipment and to encourage further research. One breakthrough has been the development of a new manufacturing process that uses enzymes to help remove ink

from paper in more energy efficient and environmentally safe methods. Recycling paper materials can be expensive in both monetary and environmental terms. The difficulty in removing print from paper, the amount of energy expended during the process, and caustic waste that is sometimes produced are costs that companies incur that are then passed on to the consumer.

The final key is to increase demand for the growing surplus of resources waiting to be recycled. This problem has appeared in various regions of the world where the technology to process the used materials lags far behind the amount being collected for recycling. There may be a great outpouring of support; yet the great stumbling block to implementing the second stage of this plan could be impeded by the corporate sector's inability to find commercial enterprises interested in using recycled goods especially when the cost exceeds those of virgin materials.

Recycling is a crucial link protecting our planet. The three keys mentioned are important ways to achieve this end.

Answer the questions below according to the listening text.

1. What would be the best title for this lecture?

A. Important Keys to Recycling Paper

B. Technological Advances Improve Recycling

C. Steps to Improving Recycling

2. According to the article, paper materials that are difficult to recycle include:

A. copy paper

B. document shred

C. food wrappers

3. In some cases, recycling could be hazardous to the environment if special precautions are not taken because:

A. industrial emissions are sometimes created in the process.

B. chemical waste is sometimes produced as a result.

C. a great deal of energy is expended to create new products.

4. According to the lecture, the demand for recyclable materials in the manufacturing of new products is sometimes sluggish because

A. some governments are unwilling to support expensive recycling methods.

B. there is a lack of advanced technology to process the materials.

C. businesses do not invest enough money into research.

5. Which is NOT one of the main keys to recycling as mentioned in the lecture?

A. government regulation of waste

B. better technology

C. more demand for recycled materials

APPENDIX A.6. LECTURE - C LEVEL – TAPESCRIPT AND QUESTIONS (THE FOUR SEASONS)

Hello everyone. Have you ever wondered what the weather is like in other places around the world? Today, I'd like to talk to you about the changing seasons in my city which was the assigned topic for this class.

First of all, the winter season usually begins in December and ends in early March. The coldest month is January, and temperatures can drop below freezing for most of this month. The city usually averages about 30 inches of snow during this entire, 3-month period. Occasionally, we have snow storms that can drop a foot of snow in a very short period of time. Winter activities during this season include sledding, skiing, and snowshoeing.

Spring usually arrives in late March, and the temperatures hover around 50 degrees during the day. It is a beautiful season because the flowers start to bloom. It is sometimes windy, and this is great for flying kites. People in my city often like to go on picnics, stroll through parks, and play outdoor games.

Next, summer starts in June, as temperatures slowing rise to around 80 degrees. The summer in my city is very dry with little rain throughout the season, and temperatures can soar above 100 degrees in August. Fortunately, the weather is very dry with low humidity, so it is real pleasant even on hot days. Popular activities during this season hiking, fishing, camping, water skiing, and outdoor sports including football and soccer.

And finally, summer changes to fall in late September when the weather cools off, and the trees begin to change colors. A lot of people enjoy driving into the mountains and viewing the fall colors. It is also a time when people clean up their yards and gardens in preparation for the winter season.

So, as you can see, my city has a lot to offer no matter when you visit this area.

Answer the questions below according to the listening text.

1. This presentation was most likely part of which type of recording?

A. a TV weather program on seasonal changes

B. an informal discussion between friends

C. an academic speech at school

2. Based on what you heard, how would you characterize the winter season?

A. January receives about 30 inches in snow.

B. Winter temperatures hover below freezing for the 3-month period.

C. Outdoor activities tend to popular during this season.

3. Which statement is NOT true about the spring?

A. Spring usually begins at the end of March.

B. Plentiful wind currents make some outdoors activities possible.

C. Night-time temperatures dip below 50 degrees.

4. What is the summer season like in this area?

A. mild and breezy

B. hot and dry

C. warm and humid

5. What is one activity people like to do in the fall?

A. go and see the fall colours

B. clean their houses

C. have a fall picnic

APPENDIX A.7. RADIO TALK SHOW - A LEVEL – TAPESCRIPT AND QUESTIONS (TALKBACK)

Presenter: Hi, everybody. It's 'Talkback' on your very own university radio. Today on 'Talkback', we are talking about exams. My university exams are coming up soon. So, anyway, I'd like tips from listeners – how can we keep our brains in perfect condition so we're on top form for exams? And how can we avoid pre-exam nerves and panic? … Right, here's our first caller. Hello?

Caller 1: Hi. My name's Dan. I'm … I'm in my last year of school.

Presenter: So, Dan, what tips have you got for me and our listeners?

Caller 1: Well, I think it's important to plan your revision. I find it really useful. I think you should make a list of all the things you've got to study. And then, you need to work out what the priorities are – you know, what are the most important things to do first. I always work out a timetable and then I try to stick to it.

Presenter: Too right, Dan! So, that's our first advice. Get organised! OK, now our second caller.

Caller 2: Hi, I'm Charlotte, but call me Charlie. I'm in my first year of university, doing French and German.

Presenter: OK, what do you think I should do, Charlie?

Caller 2: Right. Well, if I were you, I'd make sure that I got some exercise. You know, you ought to get out of the house and get some fresh air. Your brain needs oxygen – take a walk or go for a jog. It really helps you. I mean, your brain only works well if you're feeling OK and unstressed, doesn't it? I think spending hours and hours in the library without a break can be counter-productive, you know. And one more thing, you shouldn't drink lots and lots of coffee because it can make you more nervous and stop you sleeping.

Presenter: Thanks, Charlie. A healthy body and a healthy brain, right? I'll get down to the gym after the programme! And one more caller!

Caller 3: Hello! My name's Mohammed. I'm in my last year of university, studying medicine.

Presenter: Great! You've got lots of experience of exams and you are studying medicine too! What do you think people preparing for an exam should do? Could you give me some advice?

Caller 3: Uh, first you've got to motivate yourself. You must give yourself rewards, you know what I mean? Like, say to yourself, 'If I do five hours' revision today, I'll allow myself to go out to the cinema tonight.' And you've got to give yourself a break, so your brain can absorb all the things you've been learning. You mustn't just think about the exam all the time. There's no point in doing that. You've got to have time to relax, haven't you? I'd advise people to watch a good film, or listen to some music or something like that to get their minds of exams.

Presenter: Thanks, Mohammed. Get motivated by giving yourself rewards. I like that. And now …

APPENDIX A.8. RADIO TALK SHOW - B LEVEL – TAPESCRIPT AND QUESTIONS (THE BOOK CLUB)

Presenter: Good evening, and welcome to this week's edition of 'The Book Club'. Joining me in the studio is Sandra Welch. First, non-fiction, and a new book by Naomi Klein called *No Logo*. Tell us about that, Sandra.

Sandra: Yes, thank you, Michael. Well, *No Logo* is a kind of protest against the big corporations that dominate markets all over the world. The author starts with what we all recognise – logos; those advertising signs and labels we see everywhere. Logos, she says, are the closest thing we have to an international language – most people on the planet could identify the McDonald's sign or the Coca Cola label.

Presenter: I'm sure they could! It's just impossible to get away from them, isn't it? They're everywhere!

Sandra: Absolutely, there's no escape from advertising – apparently NASA has asked for adverts on its space stations, and in some Scandinavian countries you can get cheaper phone calls if you allow adverts to interrupt your phone conversations!

Presenter: Really? Imagine that – ads when you are on the phone. Sounds awful to me.

Sandra: Yes and there is a darker side behind all the brand names. Very often the products are produced under terrible conditions in countries like Indonesia, China, the Philippines and so on. Klein mentions some interesting facts. She compares the pay of the boss of Disney Corporation, $9,783 an hour, with a worker from Haiti who makes Disney merchandise, at 28 cents an hour.

Presenter: My goodness! Nearly $10,000 compared to 28 cents. It's hard to believe that.

Sandra: And the sportswear company, Nike, paid the basketball star, Michael Jordan, twenty million dollars to put his name on their product – and this was more that the company paid all of its thirty thousand workers in Indonesia.

Presenter: That's incredible. Twenty million dollars just to endorse a product.

Sandra: Yes, and Klein says that these differences help to explain the rise in demonstrations against global companies. Klein believes the movement will grow

because people want to see and end to the widening gap between rich and poor countries.

Presenter: Is this a political movement, then?

Sandra: Well, not exactly. It attracts people with all sorts of political views. Her suggestion is that we need to rediscover our identities as people and not just customers.

Presenter: Sounds interesting. I'm looking forward to reading it myself. And now, this week's fiction…

APPENDIX A.9. RADIO TALK SHOW - C LEVEL – TAPESCRIPT AND QUESTIONS (CULTURE MATTERS)

Presenter: Good morning and welcome to 'Culture Matters'. Today we're looking at different styles of communication in different cultures. We have Dr Jan Groot, from Utrecht University in Holland in the studio.

Expert: Good Morning.

Presenter: Can you tell us what the main differences is between cultures that express their emotions, which are called 'affective' cultures, and others which generally try not to show their feelings, or 'neutral' cultures. People from 'affective' cultures generally show how they feel quite openly – when they are happy, or when they are angry. 'Neutral' cultures avoid showing emotion, especially in more formal situations, such as at school or university or at work. People from neutral cultures are more reserved.

Presenter: Which cultures, then, are 'affective' or open, and which are 'neutral' or more reserved?

Expert: Mm, people from Latin cultures tend to show feelings more – for example, the Italians. When asked if they would show that they were angry in more formal situations, 71% of Italians said they would show this openly.

Presenter: And what about 'neutral' cultures?

Expert: Other cultures, oriental and northern European cultures, do not show emotions as much; they are more reserved. For example, only 17% of the Japanese would show anger openly in more formal situations. And only 29% of the British would show they were angry.

Presenter: I see.

Expert: Curiously enough, the Americans are more like the Italians – over 60% would express anger openly in a work or formal situation. Culturally, Americans are in between 'neutral' and 'affective' cultures – in some ways they are more open and in other ways they are more reserved.

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRES

APPENDIX B.1. FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE (FLCAS) ENGLISH VERSION

Statements (1) through (33) describe how you feel about learning English. Please indicate whether you (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Neither Agree nor Disagree, (4) Agree, or (5) Strongly Agree. Please read each statement carefully, give your first reaction to each statement, and mark an answer for every statement.

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English. 1 2 3 4 5
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in English classes. 1 2 3 4 5
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class. 1 2 3 4 5
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English. 1 2 3 4 5
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes. 1 2 3 4 5
6. During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course. 1 2 3 4 5
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am. 1 2 3 4 5
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my English class. 1 2 3 4 5
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class. 1 2 3 4 5
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class. 1 2 3 4 5
11. I don't understand why people get so upset over English class. 1 2 3 4 5
12. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know. 1 2 3 4 5
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class. 1 2 3 4 5
14. I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers. 1 2 3 4 5
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting. 1 2 3 4 5
16. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it. 1 2 3 4 5
17. I often feel like not going to my English class. 1 2 3 4 5
18. I feel confident when I speak in my English class. 1 2 3 4 5
19. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make. 1 2 3 4 5
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in my English class. 1 2 3 4 5
21. The more I study for an English test the more confused I get. 1 2 3 4 5

22. I don’t feel pressure to prepare very well for English class. 1 2 3 4 5

23. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do. 1 2 3 4 5

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students. 1 2 3 4 5

25. English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind. 1 2 3 4 5

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes. 1 2 3 4 5

(This item was omitted from the questionnaire because the participants in the sample have no other classes.)

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class. 1 2 3 4 5

28. When I’m on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed. 1 2 3 4 5

29. I get nervous when I don’t understand every word the English teacher says. 1 2 3 4 5

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English. 1 2 3 4 5

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English. 1 2 3 4 5

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English. 1 2 3 4 5

33. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven’t prepared in advance. 1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX B.2. FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE (FLCAS) TURKISH VERSION

Değerli Öğrenci,

Bu anket, sizlerin yabancı dilde endişe ile ilgili sorunlarınızın ve yabancı dilde dinlemeye karşı genel tutumunuzun tespitine yönelik olarak hazırlanmıştır. Bu anketten elde edilen sonuçlar yukarıda sözü edilen amaçlar dışında başka bir amaçla kullanılmayacaktır. Sorulara vereceğiniz yanıtlar yabancı dil öğrencilerinin dinlemeye karşı tutumlarının öğrenilmesi açısından önem taşımaktadır.

Sizlerin değerli katkısı olmaksızın yukarıda sözü edilen amaca ulaşmak mümkün olmayacaktır. Bu nedenle, lütfen bu anketteki sorulara doğru ve her türlü endişeden uzak olarak yanıt veriniz.

Katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkürlerimi sunarım.

Okt. Mehmet Kılıç
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

ANKETE KATILAN ÖĞRENCİNİN

Grubu:
Cinsiyeti:
Yaşı:
Mezun Olduğu Okul:
Bölüm:
Kaç yıldır İngilizce eğitimi almaktasınız?:

Yabancı Dil Endişesi ile İlgili Anket

Aşağıdaki anketteki soruları, size uygun gelen kutuyu işaretleyerek (X) cevaplayınız

1: Kesinlikle katılmıyorum.
2: Katılmıyorum.
3: Fikrim yok.
4: Katılıyorum.
5: Kesinlikle katılıyorum.

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. İngilizce derslerinde konuşurken kendimden emin olamıyorum.					
2. İngilizce derslerinde hata yapmaktan korkuyorum.					
3. İngilizce derslerinde sıranın bana geldiğini bildiğim zaman heyecandan ölüyorum.					
4. İngilizce derslerinde öğretmenin ne söylediğini anlamamak beni korkutuyor.					
5. Haftada daha fazla İngilizce ders saatimin olmasını isterdim.					
6. İngilizce dersi sırasında kendimi dersle hiç de ilgisi olmayan					

başka şeyleri düşünürken buluyorum.					
7. Diğer öğrencilerin İngilizce derslerinde benden daha iyi olduklarını düşünüyorum.					
8. İngilizce derslerinin sınavlarında kendimi endişeli hissediyorum.					
9. İngilizce derslerinde hazırlıksız konuşmak zorunda kaldığımda paniğe kapılıyorum.					
10. İngilizce derslerinde başarısız olmak beni endişelendiriyor.					
11. Yabancı dil dersleri konusunda bazılarının niye endişe duyduklarını anlayabiliyorum.					
12. İngilizce derslerinde bazen öyle heyecanlanıyorum ki, bildiğim şeyleri bile unutuyorum.					
13. İngilizce derslerinde sorulan sorulara gönüllü olarak cevap vermekten utanıyorum.					
14. İngilizce'yi, anadili İngilizce olan insanlarla konuşmak beni heyecanlandırıyor.					
15. Öğretmenin hangi hataları düzelttiğini anlamamak beni endişelendiriyor.					
16. İngilizce derslerinde, önceden çok iyi hazırlanmış olsam bile heyecanlanıyorum.					
17. İngilizce derslerine girmek istemiyorum.					
18. İngilizce derslerinde konuştuğum zaman kendime güvenmiyorum.					
19. İngilizce öğretmenim yaptığım her hatayı düzeltmeye çalışıyor.					
20. İngilizce dersinde sıra bana geldiği zaman kalbimin hızlı hızlı attığını hissediyorum.					
21. İngilizce sınavlarına ne kadar çok çalışırsam, kafam o kadar çok karışıyor.					
22. Kendimi İngilizce derslerine çok iyi hazırlanıp gitmek zorunda hissediyorum.					
23. Her zaman diğer öğrencilerin benden daha iyi İngilizce konuştuklarını düşünüyorum.					
24. Diğer öğrencilerin önünde İngilizce konuşurken kendimi çok tedirgin hissediyorum.					
25. İngilizce dersleri o kadar hızlı akıp gidiyor ki sınıfa ayak uyduramamaktan korkuyorum.					
26. İngilizce derslerinde konuştuğum zaman hem sıkılıyorum hem de kafam karışıyor..					
27. İngilizce derslerine girerken kendimi çok rahatsız ve güvensiz hissediyorum.					
28. İngilizce öğretmenimin söylediği her kelimeyi anlayamadığım zaman paniğe kapılıyorum.					
29. İngilizce konuşabilmek için öğrenmek zorunda olduğum kuralların sayısının çok fazla olması beni kaygılandırıyor.					
30. İngilizce konuştuğum zaman diğer öğrencilerin bana güleceğinden endişe duyuyorum.					
31. İngilizce'yi, ana dili İngilizce olan insanların yanında kullanırken rahatsız oluyorum.					
32. İngilizce öğretmenim cevabını önceden hazırlamadığım sorular sorduğunda heyecanlanıyorum.					

APPENDIX B.3. FOREIGN LANGUAGE LISTENING ANXIETY SCALE (FLLAS) ENGLISH VERSION

Statements (1) through (33) describe how you feel about listening in English. Please indicate whether you (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Neither Agree nor Disagree, (4) Agree, or (5) Strongly Agree. Please read each statement carefully, give your first reaction to each statement, and mark an answer for every statement.

1- When listening to English, I tend to get stuck on one or two unknown words. 1 2 3 4 5
2- I get nervous if a listening text is read only once during English listening texts. 1 2 3 4 5
3- When someone pronounces the words differently from the way I pronounce them, I find it difficult to understand. 1 2 3 4 5
4- When a person speaks English very fast, I worry that I worry that I might not understand all of it. 1 2 3 4 5
5- I am nervous when I am listening to English if I am not familiar with the topic. 1 2 3 4 5
6- It is easy to guess about the parts that I miss while listening to English. 1 2 3 4 5
7- If I let my mind drift even a little bit while listening to English, I worry that I will miss important ideas. 1 2 3 4 5
8- When I am listening to English, I am worried when I can't watch the lips or facial expression of a person who is speaking. 1 2 3 4 5
9- During English listening tests, I get nervous and confused when I don't understand every word. 1 2 3 4 5
10- When listening to English, it is difficult to differentiate the words from one another. 1 2 3 4 5
11- I feel uncomfortable in class when listening to English without the written text. 1 2 3 4 5
12- I have difficulty understanding oral instructions given to me in English. 1 2 3 4 5
13- It is hard to concentrate on what English speakers are saying unless I know them well. 1 2 3 4 5

14- I feel confident when I am listening in English. 1 2 3 4 5
15- When I am listening to English, I often get so confused I can't remember what I have heard. 1 2 3 4 5
16- I fear I have inadequate background knowledge of some topics when listening in English. 1 2 3 4 5
17- My thoughts become jumbled and confused when listening to important information in English. 1 2 3 4 5
18- I get worried when I have little time to think about what I hear in English. 1 2 3 4 5
19- When I am listening to English, I usually end up translating word by word without understanding the contents. 1 2 3 4 5
20- I would rather not have to listen to people speak English at all. 1 2 3 4 5
21- I get worried when I can't listen to English at my own pace. 1 2 3 4 5
22- I keep thinking that everyone else except me understands very well what an English speaker is saying. 1 2 3 4 5
23- I get upset when I'm not sure whether I understand what I am listening to in English. 1 2 3 4 5
24- When a person speaks English very quietly, I am worried about understanding. 1 2 3 4 5
25- I have no fear of listening in English as a member of an audience. 1 2 3 4 5
26- I am nervous when listening to an English speaker on the phone or when imagining a situation where I listen to an English speaker on the phone. 1 2 3 4 5
27- I feel tense when listening to English as a member of a social gathering or when imagining a situation where I listen to English as a member of a social gathering. 1 2 3 4 5
28- It is difficult for me to listen to English when there is a little bit of background noise. 1 2 3 4 5
29- Listening to new information in English makes me uneasy. 1 2 3 4 5
30- I get annoyed when I come across words that I don't understand while listening to English. 1 2 3 4 5
31- English stress and intonation seem familiar to me. 1 2 3 4 5
32- When listening to English, I often understand the words but still can't quite understand what the speaker means. 1 2 3 4 5

33- It frightens me when I cannot catch a key word of an English listening passage. 1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX B.4. FOREIGN LANGUAGE LISTENING ANXIETY SCALE (FLLAS) TURKISH VERSION

Değerli Öğrenci,

Bu anket, sizlerin yabancı dilde dinleme ile ilgili sorunlarınızın ve yabancı dilde dinlemeye karşı genel tutumunuzun tespitine yönelik olarak hazırlanmıştır. Bu anketten elde edilen sonuçlar yukarıda sözü edilen amaçlar dışında başka bir amaçla kullanılmayacaktır. Sorulara vereceğiniz yanıtlar yabancı dil öğrencilerinin dinlemeye karşı tutumlarının öğrenilmesi açısından önem taşımaktadır.

Sizlerin değerli katkısı olmaksızın yukarıda sözü edilen amaca ulaşmak mümkün olmayacaktır. Bu nedenle, lütfen bu anketteki sorulara doğru ve her türlü endişeden uzak olarak yanıt veriniz.

Katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkürlerimi sunarım.

Mehmet Kılıç
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

1: Kesinlikle katılmıyorum.
2: Katılmıyorum.
3: Fikrim yok.
4: Katılıyorum.
5: Kesinlikle katılıyorum.

	1	2	3	4	5
1- İngilizce dinlerken bir iki kelimeye takılıp kalırım.					
2- İngilizce dinleme sınavlarında dinleme parçası sadece bir kere dinletilirse kaygılanırım.					
3- Kelimeler benim telafuz ettiğimden farklı şekilde telafuz edilirse, anlamakta zorlanırım.					
4- Birisi İngilizce'yi çok hızlı konuştuğunda, tüm konuşulanları anlamayacağımdan endişelenirim.					
5- İngilizce dinlerken, konuya aşina değilsem kaygılanırım.					
6- İngilizce dinlerken kaçırdığım kısımları tahmin etmekte zorlanmam.					
7- İngilizce dinlerken az da olsa dikkatim dağılırsa, önemli fikirleri kaçıracağımdan endişelenirim.					
8- İngilizce dinlerken konuşan kişinin dudaklarını ya da yüz ifadesini göremezsem endişelenirim.					
9- İngilizce dinleme sınavları esnasında, her kelimeyi anlamazsam kaygılanırım ve kafam karışır.					
10- İngilizce dinlerken, kelimeleri birbirinden ayırt etmekte zorlanırım.					
11- Sınıfta yazılı metin olmadan İngilizce dinlediğimizde endişelenirim.					
12- Bana verilen İngilizce sözlü talimatları anlamakta zorlanırım.					
13- Kendilerini iyi tanımıyorsam, İngilizce konuşanların					

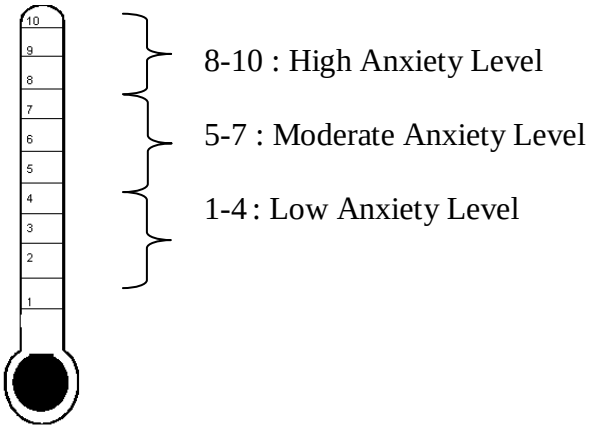
söylediklerine konsantre olmakta zorlanırım.					
14- İngilizce dinlerken kendime güvenirim.					
15- İngilizce dinlerken genellikle o kadar kafam karışır ki ne duyduğumu hatırlayamam.					
16- İngilizce dinlerken bazı konularda yetersiz temel bilgiye sahip olduğumdan korkarım.					
17- İngilizce'de önemli bilgiler dinlerken, düşüncelerim iç içe geçer ve birbirine karışır.					
18- İngilizce'de duyduklarımı düşünecek zamanım az olduğunda endişelenirim.					
19- İngilizce dinlerken, kendimi içeriği anlamadan kelimeleri tek tek çevirmeye çalışırken bulurum.					
20- Keşke İngilizce konuşan insanları hiç dinlemek zorunda kalmasam.					
21- Duyduğum İngilizce konuşmaların hızını kendim belirleyemediğimde endişelenirim.					
22- Benim dışımda herkesin İngilizce konuşan kişinin ne dediğini anladığını düşünürüm.					
23- İngilizce'de dinlediğim şeyi anlayıp anlamadığımdan emin olamadığımda huzursuz olurum.					
24- Eğer birisi İngilizce'yi çok kısık sesle konuşursa, anlayamamaktan endişelenirim.					
25- Bir dinleyici topluluğunun üyesi olarak İngilizce dinlemekten korkmam.					
26- Telefonda İngilizce konuşan birisini dinlediğimde veya böyle bir durumu hayal ettiğimde endişelenirim.					
27- Sosyal bir toplantıda bir üye olarak İngilizce dinlediğimde veya böyle bir durumu hayal ettiğimde endişelenirim.					
28- Arka planda az da olsa gürültü olduğunda, İngilizce dinlemekte zorlanırım.					
29- Yeni bilgileri İngilizce dinlemek beni rahatsız eder.					
30- İngilizce dinlerken anlamadığım kelimelerle karşılaştığımda kaygılanırım.					
31- İngilizce vurgu ve tonlamaya alışığım.					
32- İngilizce dinlerken kelimeleri genelde anlarım ancak tam olarak konuşmacının ne demek istediğini anlayamam.					
33- İngilizce bir dinleme parçasındaki anahtar bir kelimeyi yakalayamadığımda, konuyu anlayamayacağımdan korkarım.					

APPENDIX B.5. QUESTIONNAIRE USED TO GATHER DATA ABOUT THE EFFECT OF TEXT TYPE WITH ANXOMETER (ENGLISH VERSION)

THE ANXIETY SCALE RELATED TO THE LISTENING TEXT

Name-Surname:
Group:

1. Please indicate the level of anxiety you felt while listening to the listening text from the tape.



2. Please indicate the source(s) of anxiety you felt during listening by checking one or more of the choices below. If you have any additions, use the blank below.

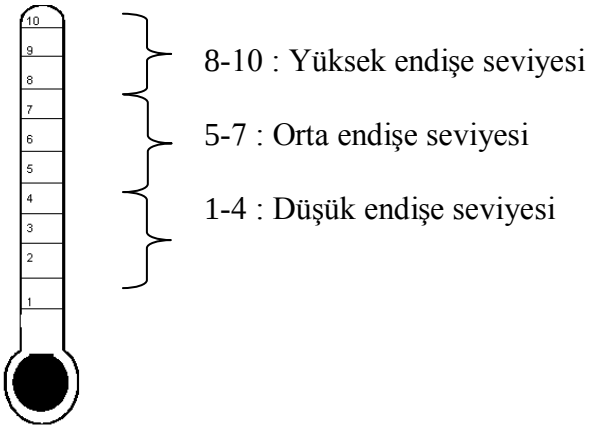
□ number of the unknown words
□ sound quality (disturbances, low volume etc.)
□ number of the speakers
□ pace of the listening
□ background noise
□ length of the listening text
□ unfamiliarity of the topic
□ intonation, stress, and pronunciation
□ concentration problem
□ lack of visual help (e.g. pictures, videos, maps)
□ inconfidence in your listening ability
□ lack of skills in listening comprehension
□ your psychological state
□ difficulty of the multiple-choice questions
□ other .....

APPENDIX B.6. QUESTIONNAIRE USED TO GATHER DATA ABOUT THE EFFECT OF TEXT TYPE WITH ANXOMETER (TURKISH VERSION)

DİNLEME PARÇASIYLA İLGİLİ ENDİŞE ÖLÇEĞİ

İsim-Soy isim:
Sınıf:

1. Dinleme esnasında teypten dinleme parçasını dinlerken hissettiğiniz endişe (kaygı) seviyesini aşağıdaki ölçekteki bir seviyeyi işaretleyerek belirtiniz.



2. Dinleme esnasında hissettiğiniz endişenizin (kaygınızın) kaynağını aşağıdaki seçeneklerden bir yada birden fazlasını işaretleyerek belirtiniz. Eklemek istediğiniz bir şey varsa en alttaki boşluğu kullanınız.

□ Bilmediğiniz kelimelerin çokluğu
□ Ses kalitesi (örnek: ses bozukluğu, kısık ses vs.)
□ Konuşan kişi sayısının çokluğu
□ Konuşmaların hızlı olması
□ Dışarıdaki gürültü
□ Dinleme parçasının uzun olması
□ Bilmediğiniz bir konu olması
□ Konuşmaların tonu, vurgusu ve telaffuzu
□ Konsantre olamamanız
□ Görsel yardım olmaması (resim, video, harita gibi)
□ Dinleme yeteneğinize olan güvensizlik
□ Dinleme-anlamada gerekli becerilere sahip olmamanız
□ Dinlerken psikolojik durumunuz
□ Çoktan seçmeli soruların zorluğu
□ Diğer .....

APPENDIX C. ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS FOR THE FLLAS

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Question 1	96.9873	306.487	.310	.845
Question 2	95.9045	303.715	.360	.843
Question 3	96.3567	300.782	.450	.841
Question 4	96.2484	299.496	.445	.841
Question 5	96.5924	303.448	.393	.843
Question 6	96.7771	304.841	.380	.843
Question 7	96.3631	304.220	.407	.842
Question 8	97.4841	305.777	.355	.844
Question 9	97.1847	305.190	.342	.844
Question 10	96.7643	304.194	.396	.843
Question 11	97.0955	297.177	.527	.839
Question 12	97.4522	298.788	.482	.840
Question 13	97.5860	307.821	.286	.845
Question 14	97.0318	302.711	.436	.842
Question 15	97.4904	305.713	.355	.844
Question 16	96.8535	305.293	.342	.844
Question 17	97.3057	298.008	.578	.838
Question 18	96.6752	296.003	.526	.839
Question 19	97.2357	302.117	.377	.843
Question 20	97.3694	310.773	.139	.850
Question 21	96.8535	300.446	.493	.840
Question 22	97.4968	300.636	.446	.841
Question 23	96.4331	304.786	.391	.843
Question 24	96.5287	302.007	.422	.842
Question 25	97.2675	311.120	.206	.847
Question 26	97.2548	304.294	.367	.843
Question 27	97.2611	304.271	.391	.843
Question 28	96.2866	295.603	.111	.875
Question 29	96.7643	304.040	.358	.843
Question 30	96.6369	296.374	.549	.838
Question 31	96.4841	306.251	.309	.845
Question 32	97.0892	308.082	.283	.845
Question 33	96.8471	299.976	.439	.841

CURRICULUM VITAE

Mehmet KILIÇ was born in Gaziantep in 1983. He is a graduate of Boğaziçi University – Foreign Languages Education Department – English Language Teaching Program (2005). He also has a Linguistics Certificate obtained from Boğaziçi University – Linguistics Department. He has been working as an English instructor at Gaziantep University – School of Foreign Languages since 2005. He speaks English fluently. He also has basic Russian and German skills.

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

Mehmet KILIÇ 1983'te Gaziantep'te doğmuştur. Boğaziçi Üniversitesi – Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü – İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Programı'ndan mezundur (2005). Aynı zamanda Boğaziçi Üniversitesi – Dilbilimi Bölümü'nden alınmış bir Dilbilimi Sertifikası'na da sahiptir. 2005 yılından beri Gaziantep Üniversitesi – Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'nda okutman olarak çalışmaktadır. İyi derecede İngilizce konuşmaktadır. Aynı zamanda temel Rusça ve Almanca bilgisine sahiptir.