

**BAŐKENT ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĐİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**

**FOREIGN LANGUAGE WRITING ANXIETY OF
PROSPECTIVE EFL TEACHERS: HOW TO REDUCE
THEIR ANXIETY LEVELS**

SEDA ATEŐ

Thesis Advisor: Associate Prof. Dr. Nuray ALAGÖZLÜ

**M.A. Thesis
Ankara, 2013**

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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Bu tez, 14/01/2013 tarihinde aşağıda üye adları yazılı jüri tarafından kabul edilmiştir.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank my advisor, Associate Prof. Dr. Nuray Alagözlü, for her invaluable support and encouragement and the constant feedback she provided throughout this study.

I have eternal gratitude towards Associate Prof. Dr. İ. Hakkı MİRİCİ, Assistant Prof. Dr. Binnur GENÇ İLTER, Assistant Prof. Dr. Özlem SAKA, Assistant Prof. Dr. Murat HİŞMANOĞLU, and Assistant Prof. Dr. Mustafa CANER, all of whom helped me with the application of the study.

I am deeply indebted to Assistant Prof. Dr. Cem Oktay GÜZELLER for his help and guidance in the statistical processes of this study.

I owe special thanks to the students studying at the English Language Teaching (ELT) department of AKDENİZ UNIVERSITY, who participated in my study with a great deal of patience.

Finally, I wish to thank all the English Language Teaching (ELT) instructors who willingly participated in this study online (some did without even knowing me!), including Abdülvahit ÇAKIR, Ali MERCÇ, Barış DİNÇER, Belgin AYDIN, Cem ALPTEKİN, Cem BALÇIKANLI, Cemal ÇAKIR, Demet YAYLI, Ela AKGÜN ÖZBEK, Esra HARMANDAOĞLU, Gonca SUBAŞI, Gökçe KURT, Gültekin BORAN, Hacer Hande UYSAL, Hande KÜR, Hande SERDAR, Hülya ÖZCAN, Işıl YALÇIN, İpek KURU GÖNEN, Kemal Sinan ÖZMEN, Mine DİKDERE, Murat GÖLGELİ, Nilgün YORGANCI, Nuray ALAGÖZLÜ, Nurgun AKAR, Sevdeğer ÇEÇEN, Sevgi ŞAHİN, Sezgi SARAÇ, Turan PAKER, Yücel ÖZ, Zekiye Müge TAVIL, and Zerrin EREN.

TO MY FAMILY

ABSTRACT

**FOREIGN LANGUAGE WRITING ANXIETY OF PROSPECTIVE EFL
TEACHERS:**

HOW TO REDUCE THEIR ANXIETY LEVELS

SEDA ATEŞ

JANUARY, 2013

Anxiety has an important role in language learning, and there is a growing body of research into how it affects the acquisition of a second or foreign language. Most of this research has been dedicated to the oral aspects of language, however, in recent years, anxiety associated with the language skills of listening, reading and writing, namely “the language skill-specific anxiety” has attracted the attention of linguists and language pedagogues. As a productive skill, writing along with the anxiety it creates in the learner has begun to be examined by a number of studies in different educational contexts including prospective teachers of English.

This study investigated the foreign language (L2) writing anxiety of prospective EFL teachers in a two-dimensional way. Since teachers constitute an important part of the classroom dynamics and they have the potential to be a source of anxiety for the learner, in this study, to research the issue of foreign language writing anxiety thoroughly, writing anxiety was explored not only from the perspectives of prospective teachers but also from the viewpoints of the English Language Teaching (ELT) instructors as well. Therefore, there were two subject groups in this study, one was prospective English teachers themselves, and the other was ELT instructors.

Regarding the subject group of prospective teachers, this study was conducted among the students of the English Language Teaching department of a state university in Turkey.

This group of participants consisted of 170 ELT students including freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors. To analyze the nature and the influence of writing anxiety on this study group, first their levels of both general foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety were measured using the instruments of the Foreign language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) by Cheng (2004), then the factors which caused writing anxiety for them were elicited through the Questionnaire of the ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA) designed by Zhang (2011) and an open-ended question which asked them to elaborate on their sources anxiety that the QCEWA did not predict. The results showed that the prospective teachers generally experienced moderate levels of foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety. It was also found that the freshmen and the sophomores manifested higher levels of both foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety than the juniors and the seniors did, which indicated that language instruction can play a role in diminishing anxiety over time.

This study also aimed to investigate the relationship between the general foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety and to find out whether writing anxiety was distinct from foreign language anxiety or not, because before looking into the causes of writing anxiety it was necessary to establish the nature of this type of anxiety in the first place. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient Analysis between the scores of the FLCAS and the SLWAI among this group of participants revealed that there was a positive linear correlation between the foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety, and L2 writing anxiety was a type of anxiety which was distinct but related to the foreign language anxiety. Besides, since the SLWAI is an instrument integrating the subscales of cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and avoidance behaviour, the distributions of these subcategories were examined, and as a result, it was found that cognitive anxiety was the commonest type of writing anxiety experienced by prospective EFL teachers.

The data elicited by the QCEWA administered to the prospective teachers revealed that there were eight main sources of writing anxiety among the subjects: lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties, fear of negative evaluation, low self-confidence, insufficient writing practice, insufficient writing techniques, lack of effective feedback and

fear of tests. Apart from the factors in the QCEWA, the subjects also mentioned limited time, dislike of writing classes, having to obey the rules of writing compositions, thinking in L1, physical atmosphere of the classroom, advanced linguistic structures, different types of compositions and lack of topical terminology as the causes of their writing anxiety.

As for the other group of participants, ELT instructors, an open-ended questionnaire was given to them asking them to reflect upon the causes of L2 writing anxiety among pre-service English teachers and to give suggestions as to how to deal with this problem. The ELT instructors thought that prospective EFL teachers' writing anxiety originated from linguistic factors, cognitive factors, affective factors, teaching procedures and student behaviour. Finally, they provided a number of coping strategies on both students' and teachers' parts.

Key Words:

Affective Factors in Language Learning, General Foreign Language Anxiety, Language Skill-specific Anxiety, Foreign Language Writing Anxiety.

ÖZ

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ YABANCI DİLDE YAZMA KAYGISI VE BU KAYGIYI AZALTMA YOLLARI

SEDA ATEŞ

OCAK, 2013

Kaygı, dil öğreniminde önemli bir role sahiptir ve kaygının ikinci dil veya yabancı dil edinimini nasıl etkilediğine dair araştırmalar giderek artmaktadır. Bu araştırmaların çoğu dilin sözel işlevine yönelik olmuştur, fakat son yıllarda dinleme, okuma ve yazma becerilerine ilişkin kaygı, diğer bir deyişle “dil becerisine özgü kaygı” dilbilimcilerin ve dil öğretmenlerinin dikkatini çekmiştir. Dil üretimine dayanan yazma becerisi ve beraberinde getirdiği kaygı, İngilizce öğretmen adaylarını da kapsayan farklı eğitim bağlamlarında birçok çalışma tarafından incelenmeye başlanmıştır.

Bu çalışmada, İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının yabancı dilde yazma kaygısı iki boyutlu bir şekilde araştırılmıştır. Öğretmenler sınıf dinamiğinin önemli bir parçasını oluşturduğundan ve öğrenci için kaygı kaynağı olma potansiyeli taşıdıklarından bu çalışmada yazma kaygısı, yabancı dilde yazma konusunu kapsamlı bir şekilde araştırmak amacıyla sadece öğretmen adaylarının açısından değil, aynı zamanda üniversitelerin İngiliz Dili Öğretimi (ELT) programlarındaki öğretim üyelerinin perspektifinden de incelenmiştir. Buna bağlı olarak, bu çalışmada iki grup katılımcı olmuştur, biri İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının kendileri, diğeri de İngiliz Dili Öğretimi programlarında çalışan öğretim üyeleridir.

Katılımcı grup öğretmen adayları ile ilişkili olarak bu çalışma Türkiye’de bir devlet üniversitesinin İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümü öğrencileri arasında yapılmıştır. Bu katılımcı grup birinci, ikinci, üçüncü ve son sene öğrencileri dahil olmak üzere 170 ELT öğrencisinden oluşmuştur. Bu çalışma grubu üzerindeki yazma kaygısının özelliğini ve etkisini analiz etmek

üzere öncelikle Horwitz ve diğerleri (1986) tarafından geliştirilen “Sınıf İçi Yabancı Dil Kaygısı Anketi (FLCAS)” ve Cheng (2004) tarafından hazırlanan “ İkinci Dilde Yazma Kaygısı Envanteri (SLWAI)” ölçekleri kullanılarak katılımcıların hem genel yabancı dil hem de yabancı dilde yazma kaygı seviyeleri ölçülmüş, daha sonra yabancı dilde yazma kaygısına neden olan faktörler Zhang (2011) tarafından dizayn edilen “İkinci Dil Olarak İngilizce Yazma Kaygısı Anketi (QCEWA)” ölçeği ve katılımcıların QCEWA’nın tahmin edemediği kaygı nedenlerini belirtmelerini gerektiren açık uçlu bir soru yoluyla ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Sonuçlar öğretmen adaylarının genelde ortalama düzeyde yabancı dil kaygısı ve yabancı dilde yazma kaygısına sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, birinci ve ikinci yıl öğrencilerinin, üçüncü ve son sene öğrencilerine göre daha yüksek düzeyde hem yabancı dil kaygısı hem de yabancı dilde yazma kaygısı gösterdikleri tespit edilmiştir, bu da dil eğitiminin zamanla kaygının azalmasında etkisi olduğuna dair bir göstergedir.

Bu çalışmada ayrıca genel yabancı dil kaygısı ve yabancı dilde yazma kaygısı arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek ve yazma kaygısının yabancı dil kaygısından farklı olup olmadığını bulmak hedeflenmiştir, çünkü yazma kaygısının nedenlerini araştırmadan önce bu kaygı türünün özelliğini belirlemek gereklidir. Katılımcıların FLCAS ve SLWAI puanları arasında yapılan Pearson product-moment corelasyon analizi yabancı dil kaygısı ile yabancı dilde yazma kaygısı arasında pozitif lineer bir corelasyon bulunduğunu ve yabancı dilde yazma kaygısının farklı bir kaygı türü olduğunu fakat yabancı dil kaygısıyla ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Buna ilaveten, SLWAI; bilişsel kaygı, somatik kaygı ve kaçınma davranışı alt ölçeklerini entegre eden bir araç olduğundan bu alt kategorilerin dağılımı incelenmiş ve sonuç olarak bilişsel kaygının İngilizce öğretmen adayları arasında en yaygın yazma kaygısı türü olduğu bulunmuştur.

Öğretmen adaylarına uygulanan QCEWA ile elde edilen veriler katılımcılar arasındaki yazma kaygısının sekiz temel kaynağı olduğunu göstermiştir, bunlar konu ile ilgili bilgi eksikliği, dilsel zorluklar, olumsuz değerlendirilme korkusu, düşük özgüven, yetersiz yazma çalışmaları, yetersiz yazma teknikleri, etkin geribildirim eksikliği ve sınav korkusudur. QCEWA’ da yer alan kaygı kaynaklarının dışında katılımcılar ayrıca kısıtlı zaman, yazma derslerini sevmemeleri, kompozisyon yazma kurallarına uyma zorunluluğu, ana dilde düşünme, sınıfın fiziksel atmosferi, ileri düzeydeki dilbilgisi

yapıları, farklı kompozisyon türleri ve konu ile ilgili terminoloji eksikliğini yazma kaygılarının birer nedeni olarak belirtmişlerdir.

Diğer katılımcı grup olan İngiliz Dili Öğretimi anabilim dalı öğretim üyelerine hizmet öncesi İngilizce öğretmenleri arasındaki yabancı dilde yazma kaygısının nedenleri ve bu problemin çözümüne yönelik önerilerini sorgulayan açık uçlu anketler verilmiştir. Öğretim üyeleri İngilizce öğretmen adaylarının yazma kaygılarının dilsel, bilişsel ve duyuşsal faktörler ile öğretim prosedürleri ve öğrenci davranışından kaynaklandığını öngörmüştür. Son olarak, hem öğretmenler hem de öğrenciler için yazma kaygısını azaltmaya yönelik bir takım stratejiler sunmuşlardır.

Anahtar Kelimeler:

Dil Öğreniminde Duyuşsal Faktörler, Genel Yabancı Dil Kaygısı, Dil Becerisine Özgü Kaygı, Yabancı Dilde yazama Kaygısı.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
ABSTRACT	iii
ÖZ	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background to the Study	1
1.1.1. The Place of Affect in Current Language Teaching	1
1.1.2. Affective Factors in Language Learning	7
1.2. Statement of the Problem	16
1.3. Purpose of the Study	23
1.4. Significance of the Study	24
1.5. Research Questions	25
1.6. Limitations of the Study	26
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	28
2.1. Introduction	28
2.2. The Emergence of “Affect” in Language Teaching	28
2.3. What is Anxiety?	37
2.3.1. Types of Anxiety	40
2.3.1.1. Trait versus State Anxiety	40
2.3.1.2. Situation-specific Anxiety	42
2.3.1.3. Facilitating versus Debilitating Anxiety	42
2.4. Foreign Language Anxiety	43
2.4.1. Development of Foreign Language Anxiety	44
2.4.2. Approaches to the Study of Anxiety in Foreign Language Learning	45
2.4.3. Theoretical Background	46
2.4.3.1. Krashen’s “Affective Filter” Hypothesis	46
2.4.3.2. Tobias’ Theory	47

2.4.3.3. MacIntyre and Gardner’s Theory.....	48
2.4.3.4. Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope’s Theory	49
2.4.3.5. The Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (LCDH).....	49
2.4.3.6. The Cognitive Capacity Formulation Hypothesis.....	52
2.4.4. Components of Foreign Language Anxiety.....	53
2.4.5. Manifestations of Foreign Language Anxiety	55
2.4.6. Foreign Language Anxiety and Other Affective Factors	57
2.4.7. Sources of Foreign Language Anxiety	58
2.4.8. Effects of Foreign Language Anxiety.....	61
2.4.9. Ways to Identify Language Anxiety.....	62
2.4.10. Reducing Foreign Language Anxiety	64
2.5. Foreign Language Anxiety and Four Skills	65
2.5.1. Writing Anxiety	66
2.5.2. Related Studies on Foreign Language Writing Anxiety in General	73
2.5.3. Related Studies on the Foreign Language Writing Anxiety of Prospective Teachers of English	82
3. METHODOLOGY.....	88
3.1. Introduction	88
3.2. Research Design	88
3.3. Context and Participants.....	89
3.4. Instruments	91
3.4.1. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)	92
3.4.2. The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI)	94
3.4.3. The Questionnaire of the Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA)	95
3.4.4. Validity and Reliability of the Turkish Versions of the SLWAI and the QCEWA	96
3.4.5. Qualitative Instruments.....	103
3.5. Data Collection Procedures	104
3.6. Data Analysis Procedures.....	104
3.6.1. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)	105
3.6.2. The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI)	105
3.6.3. The Questionnaire of the Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA)	106

3.6.4. Qualitative Instruments (The open-ended question at the end of the QCEWA and the three-item open-ended questionnaire for ELT instructors).....	106
3.6.5. The Reliability of the Qualitative Data Analysis.....	107
3.6.6. The Relationship between the FLCAS and the SLWAI.....	108
4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	109
4.1. General Overview.....	109
4.2. General Foreign Language Anxiety	110
4.3. L2 Writing Anxiety	113
4.4. Differences in the Levels of Anxiety	117
4.5. The Relationship between the FLCAS and the SLWAI.....	119
4.6. Types of L2 Writing Anxiety	120
4.7. The Sources of L2 Writing Anxiety	121
4.7.1. The Sources of L2 Writing Anxiety of Prospective Teachers from Their Own Perspectives	122
4.7.2. The Sources of L2 Writing Anxiety of Prospective Teachers from the Perspectives of ELT Instructors	126
4.8. Ways to Reduce L2 Writing Anxiety	129
4.9. Summary of the Results	132
5. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS	139
5.1. Introduction	139
5.2. Summary of the Study	139
5.3. Conclusion.....	141
5.4. Recommendations of the Study.....	144
5.5. Suggestions for Further Research.....	154
REFERENCES.....	156
APPENDICES	170
Appendix-A1: The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al. (1986) – Original Version.....	171
Appendix-A2: Back-translation of the FLCAS by Aydın (1999)	174
Appendix-A3: Turkish Version of the FLCAS by Aydın (1999)	176

Appendix- B1: The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) by Cheng (2004) – Original Version	179
Appendix-B2: Back-translation of the SLWAI.....	181
Appendix-B3: Turkish Version of the SLWAI	183
Appendix-C1: The Questionnaire of the Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA) by Zhang (2011) - Original Version.....	186
Appendix-C2: Back-translation of the QCEWA.....	187
Appendix-C3: Turkish Version of the QCEWA and the Open-ended Question	188
Appendix-D1: Questinnaire for the English Language Teaching (ELT) Instructors	190
Appendix-D2: Sample Entries of Instructors’ Responses	191

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
Table- 1: Demographic information about the participants	91
Table- 2: Descriptive statistics of the original and the translated versions of the SLWAI.....	99
Table- 3: LEVENE’s Test for Equality of Variances the original and the translated versions of the SLWAI	100
Table- 4: t-test for Equality of Means of the original and translated versions of the SLWAI.....	101
Table- 5: The descriptive statistics of the original and the translated versions of the QCEWA	102
Table- 6: LEVENE’s Test for Equality of Variances of the original and the translated versions of the QCEWA.....	102
Table- 7: t-test for Equality of Means of the original and the translated versions of the QCEWA	103
Table- 8: General descriptive statistics of the FLCAS.....	111
Table- 9: Descriptive statistics of the FLCAS among the freshmen.....	111
Table- 10: Descriptive statistics of the FLCAS among the sophomores	112
Table- 11: Descriptive statistics of the FLCAS among the juniors	112
Table- 12: Descriptive statistics of the FLCAS among the seniors	113
Table- 13: General descriptive statistics of the SLWAI	114
Table- 14: Descriptive statistics of the SLWAI among the freshmen	115
Table- 15: Descriptive statistics of the SLWAI among the sophomores	115
Table- 16: Descriptive statistics of the SLWAI among the juniors	116
Table- 17: Descriptive Statistics of the SLWAI among the seniors	116
Table- 18: The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient analysis between the FLCAS and the SLWAI.....	119

LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
Figure- 1: Operation of the Affective Filter.....	3
Figure- 2: Mean scores of the subjects.....	117
Figure- 3: Distribution of the numbers of subjects with high anxiety	118
Figure- 4: General mean scores of the types of L2 writing anxiety among the subjects.....	120
Figure- 5: Mean scores of the types of L2 writing anxiety among freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors (a comparison).....	121
Figure- 6: Sources of L2 writing anxiety with the numbers of the subjects in general.....	122
Figure- 7: Distribution of the sources of L2 writing anxiety among freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors	123

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter involves four sections the first of which discusses the background to the study. The second section introduces the research problem and the third section presents the purpose of the study. In the fourth section, the research questions and the significance of the study are explained. Finally, the limitations of the study are briefly noted.

1.1. Background to the Study

1.1.1. The Place of Affect in Current Language Teaching

“Affect” as a psychological term is defined as “emotion or desire, especially as influencing behaviour or action” (Oxford Dictionary). That is to say, it refers to feelings or emotions that a person has about a situation. In language learning, “affect” relates to learners’ feelings or emotional reactions about the target language, about the native speakers of that language or about the culture in which that language is spoken (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Pike (in Brown, 2000) states that the affective domain is related to the essence of language since language is a phenomenon that cannot be separated from the whole person, who both thinks and feels:

Language is behavior, that is, a phase of human activity which must not be treated in essence as structurally divorced from the structure of nonverbal human activity. The activity of man constitutes a structural whole in such a way that it cannot be subdivided into “neat” parts or “levels” or “compartments” with language in a behavioral compartment insulated in character, content, and organization from other behavior (p.144).

Arnold (1999) notes that the affective side of learning is not in opposition to the cognitive side. When these two aspects of learning are integrated, the process of language learning will be founded on firmer ground. They complement each other and

cannot be separated. Schumann (1999) supports this view by asserting that affect and cognition are interconnected during the learning process. According to Schumann, humans are born with two basic regulatory systems, which are “homeostatic and sociostatic regulations”. The homeostatic regulation provides the value system which guides the organism to seek out conditions for his biological well being, in other words, with this regulatory system humans are always in search of survival-enhancing situations which enable them to breathe, feed, stay warm or cool and keep an appropriate heart rate. Sociostatic regulations refer to the innate tendencies of the human organism to form affiliation with conspecifics. They are the internal drives for attachment and social interaction, which are first directed towards parents then extended to other people in an individual’s social milieu. These two innate regulatory systems encourage the human motor activity in the environment and through experience with the world, the individual develops another value system of preferences and aversions, which makes them like certain things and dislike others. This value system is called “somatic value”. These three value systems create an emotional memory, which functions a filter which appraises current stimuli in terms of novelty, pleasantness, goal/need significance, coping mechanisms and self and social image. These appraisals impact learning by directing the cognitive effort required to achieve mastery or expertise. In a similar vein, Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia (1964) accentuate the whole-person approach in education by bringing to the fore the link between cognitive and affective domains:

We recognize that human behavior can rarely be neatly compartmentalized in terms of cognition and affect. It is easier to divide educational objectives and intended behaviors into these two domains. However, even the separation of objectives into these two groups is somewhat artificial in that no teacher or curriculum worker really intends one entirely without the other (p.85).

An important concept about affect that appeared in second language literature is Krashen’s “Affective Filter Hypothesis”. This hypothesis explained how affective factors were associated with the process of second language acquisition. According to

this theory, when learners are demotivated, anxious or had low self- confidence, their affective filter will be up and the input will be prevented from passing through the cognitive system, thus no acquisition will take place. However, if the filter is down, the input would reach the Language Acquisition Device, and acquisition will happen as illustrated in the figure below:

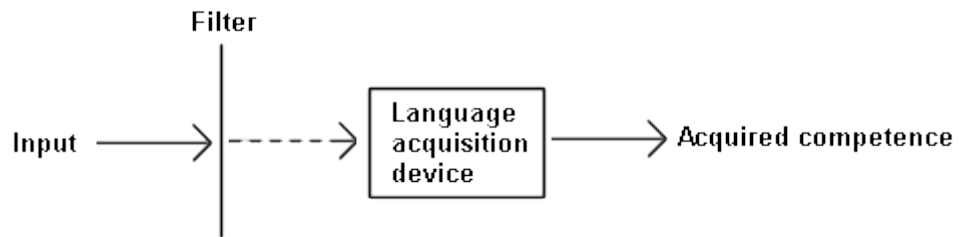


Figure- 1: Operation of the Affective Filter.

Source: From Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition by S. Krashen, 1982, Pergamon

The Affective Filter hypothesis captures the relationship between affective variables and the process of second language acquisition by positing that acquirers vary with respect to the strength or level of their Affective Filters. Those whose attitudes are not optimal for second language acquisition will not only tend to seek less input, but they will also have a high or strong Affective Filter--even if they understand the message, the input will not reach the part of the brain responsible for language acquisition, or the language acquisition device. Those with attitudes more conducive to second language acquisition will not only seek and obtain more input, they will also have a lower or weaker filter. They will be more open to the input, and it will strike "deeper".

(Krashen, 1982, p. 31)

Krashen points out that the affective filter is responsible for individual variations in second language acquisition and differentiates child language acquisition from adult second language acquisition because, according to Krashen, affective filter is not operative in children (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

The concept of “affect” is acknowledged by the current language teaching approaches and methodologies. The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) marked a new era in language teaching in the 20th century, whose influences are still strongly felt in foreign language education. Today, its principles are widely accepted in the world of language pedagogy. In the 1970s, the dissatisfaction with traditional approaches to language teaching grew and spread around the world after the structural methods of Audiolingualism and the Situational Language Teaching fell into decline. The overemphasis on grammar in language teaching was called into question since it was realized that language learning involved much more than mere grammatical competence. While grammatical competence was necessary to produce correct linguistic structures, more and more attention was begun to be paid to the knowledge and skills required for using the aspects of language for meaningful communicative functions such as making requests, showing concern, expressing wishes and needs, giving advice, etc. What was needed for using the language communicatively was “communicative competence”, which was a broader concept than grammatical competence as it involved the knowledge of using language for a variety of purposes and functions, the variation of the use of language according to the setting and the participants, knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts such as narratives, reports, interviews and conversations, and the ability to use different kinds of communication strategies to maintain communication despite having limitations in language knowledge. Traditional textbooks and teaching methods did not teach this aspects of the language on the assumption that this knowledge would be picked up informally. The notion of communicative competence in applied linguistics attracted much interest and led to the birth of the CLT as the new language teaching approach, which shifted the attention from grammatical competence to developing communicative competence as the goal of language teaching. This approach created a great deal of enthusiasm among language teaching professionals in the 1970s and 1980s and has shaped syllabuses and classroom materials till today. The CLT emphasizes the affective side of learning by creating meaningful and purposeful interaction through language. Learner-centered instruction, focus on the learning process rather than the product, attention on the social nature of learning instead of students as separate decontextualized individuals, recognizing individual differences, the consideration of the views of learners in the teaching process,

the association of the learned knowledge with real-life, learner autonomy, learning as a life-long process and the teacher as a facilitator and monitor rather than authority or model for correct speech and writing are at the heart of the CLT (Richards, 2006).

The current proposals to language teaching which are the direct descendants of the CLT recognize the importance of affect in learning. The Content-Based Instruction (CBI) focuses on the meaningful authentic use of language by teaching the subject matter through the target language, thus it addresses the needs of learners by preparing them for academic studies. The Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) fosters language learning through communication in pairs or small groups. The Task- Based Language Teaching (TBLT) emphasizes the learning process by engaging learners in specially designed instructional tasks which enable them to learn the language by interacting communicatively and purposefully. The Competency-Based Language Teaching (CBLT) takes outcomes as its starting point for teaching language. It views language as the medium of interaction between people to achieve specific goals and purposes. For this reason, it is often regarded as a framework for language teaching in situations where learners have specific needs and are in certain roles, and where the language skills they need can be accurately predicted. Other more recent trends in language education also integrate the element of affect into the teaching process. The Whole Language (WL) emphasizes learning to read and write naturally with a real communicative purpose and reading and writing for pleasure. The Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP) focuses on individual growth and personal change, and Multiple Intelligences (MI) highlights learner differences in teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The concept of affect is also associated with another current movement in foreign language education – “Constructivism”. Constructivism in education originates from the ideas of cognitive and social constructivism. Cognitive constructivism is rooted in the work of Piaget and underlines cognitive development and individual construction of knowledge while social constructivism is related to the work of Vygotsky and lays stress on the social construction of knowledge. Piaget’s developmental theory sees learning as a holistic approach. Learning is a developmental process which involves, change, self-generation and construction building on prior

learning experiences. A child learns by constructing new understanding through reading, listening, exploration and experience. Vygotsky's social constructivism underscores the influence of social and cultural contexts on learning. Vygotsky claims that children's thinking and meaning-making is constructed socially and arises out of their social interactions with their environment. Children's learning is facilitated by parents, friends, teachers and others in their social network. Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) refers to children's readiness to learn. By ZPD, Vygotsky argues that in a supportive interactive environment children are capable of advancing to higher levels of knowledge and performance. Hence, ZPD is the distance between an individual's current developmental level and the level of their potential development. Combining the principles of the theories of Piaget and Vygotsky, constructivism directs attention to the affective characteristics of learning. It attaches great importance to learner-centeredness and individual variations and fosters active engagement in authentic and meaningful tasks as both individualistic and collaborative learning. The constructivist view from both Piagetian and Vygotskian perspectives creates opportunities for learners to manipulate the input in order to identify new complex patterns, acquire new concepts and construct new understandings. Teachers assist learners by attending to their interpretations and by providing them with necessary guidance and scaffolding to facilitate meaningful learning (Kaufman, 2004).

Arnold (1999) states that the incorporation of affect into language teaching is important for two reasons. First, the consideration of affective factors can lead to more effective language teaching. Negative emotions such as fear, stress or depression may compromise learners' optimal potential for learning. When attending to the affective side of learners, teachers must pay attention to ways of overcoming such negative emotional reactions and they must also be concerned with creating more positive, facilitative emotions in learners. The second reason Arnold gives for the importance of affect in language instruction actually goes beyond the academic domain. Too much concentration on the rational/cognitive functions of the mind has resulted in "emotional illiteracy", which has weakened the ethical stances in life, increasing selfishness, violence and meanness of spirit in the community. A solution can be to educate the whole person, bringing together mind and heart in the classroom. As teachers teach the

language they can also help students have more satisfying lives and be responsible members of the society. For this, they must address both cognitive and affective needs of learners.

1.1.2. Affective Factors in Language Learning

Arnold (1999) examines the phenomenon of affectivity in language learning from two perspectives. One focuses on the language learner as an individual and the other is concerned with the side of the learner in interaction with others. Hence, affect in language learning encompasses both “individual” and “relational” factors.

Relational factors are about the learner’s social identity in language learning. Language learning is a transactional process, which is the act of reaching out beyond to others, thus it is associated with one’s emotionality. Learners do not act individually but rather they are affected by the social context in which they learn a new language. People that learners relate to during the language learning process may be their peers in the classroom or members of the target culture. One relational aspect of language learning is “empathy”. Empathy is the act of putting yourself into someone else’s shoes. It does not mean that one must abandon his/her opinions or beliefs and adopt those of another person. It is just an appreciation of the identity of an individual or culture. Empathy is one of the important factors holding people together in a society. It is also linked with cultural relativity, making individuals understand that their viewpoint or way of life is not the only best way. In order for empathy to arise, a person must understand his/her feelings in the first place. Language teachers should instill cross-cultural empathy in their learners (Arnold, 1999).

Another relational factor affecting language learning is “classroom transactions”. Classroom is a social structure created out of the interpersonal relationships among learners. In this social structure, affective side of the relationships between the learners and the teacher can greatly influence the process of language learning. The role of facilitation in classroom transactions has gained widespread popularity since the 1970s. Facilitation refers to assisting learners in reaching their goals rather than pouring the material into their mind. One important advantage of this approach is that it enables the

learner to continue learning in a self-directed manner after they leave the classroom. Facilitation is closely related to group dynamics. Group dynamics are the blend of mental, emotional and physical energy in a specific group of learners. Most of the time, facilitators deal with the emotional state of the group dynamics, encouraging positive feelings and endeavoring to do away with negative ones (Arnold, 1999).

The last factor belonging to the relational side of language learning is “cross-cultural processes”. Culture is the unity of beliefs, customs, skills and arts that are established in a community. It provides a context for cognitive and affective behaviour in the society for individuals to act on, therefore it is intimately associated with language. For this reason, language learners are not only faced with the difficulty of acquiring a new language but also acknowledging a new culture. The process of integration of the learner with the target culture is named “acculturation”. Acculturation is an important element in second language acquisition because learners will learn the target language to the degree they can acculturate. This acculturation process consists of four stages. The first is the introduction into the target culture, which creates a feeling of excitement about the new culture, the second is “culture shock”, a negative effect that differences between the native and the target culture creates on self-image and security. The third stage is “cultural stress”, which is a gradual move towards the acceptance of more aspects of the new culture. The last stage is the assimilation of the new culture and becoming a whole with it. Language teachers must be sensitive to the difficulties caused by the cross-cultural differences in learners. First of all, it is helpful to discuss cultural differences with learners and explain the aspects of the target culture which may be problematic for learners. The stress arising from cultural factors can also be eliminated through certain learning activities such as role-play and journal writing. With these means, teachers can help learners acquire the target language at the same time as they become proficient in the new culture (Arnold, 1999).

Individual factors in language learning are the internal aspects that are part of the learner’s personality. Although learning a foreign language is an interactive process that necessitates being in touch with other people and the new culture, language acquisition is also influenced by the individual characteristics of the learner. The way a person feels about himself and his abilities can impact his learning process, therefore personal traits

will have a facilitating or impeding influence on language learning. It is worth noting that the various emotions affecting language learning do not act in isolation from each other, rather they are intertwined and influence the learning process in an interrelated way (Arnold, 1999).

One important individual factor affecting language learning is “self-esteem”. Self-esteem is a psychological and social phenomenon in which a person evaluates himself as being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and as deserving happiness. Self-esteem is one of the central drives in human life. Low self-esteem can bring about psychological unbalance causing insecurity, fear, social distance and other negative influences. Low self-esteem can also have serious consequences in the context of language learning. Students may feel quite insecure, and as a result, they may avoid taking the risks necessary to acquire communicative competence in the foreign language and may even skip classes. Taking these effects into account, foreign language education should be concerned with learners’ self-esteem. For this, teachers should be aware of both their own and the learners’ self-esteem and include activities which make learners reflect upon their worthiness and competence in the teaching curriculum (Rubio, 2007).

Another important personal factor which is closely related to and sometimes studied under the notion of self-esteem is “inhibition”. Inhibition is defined as a set of defences an individual builds within himself to protect his ego. People with high self-esteem and ego strength are more able to tolerate ideas, experiences and feelings which act as a threat to their systems of beliefs and values, so their defenses are lower. However, those with weaker self-esteem or self-confidence keeps walls of inhibition within themselves to protect their fragile ego. The personal, egoistic nature of second language acquisition is referred to as “language ego”. Foreign language learning involves a degree of conflict as learners adopt a new identity with their newly acquired competence. Thus, an adaptive language ego lowers inhibitions that may prevent success. Learning a new language inevitably involves making mistakes. Mistakes are the indicators of progress in language learning, individuals test out hypotheses about language by trial and errors, children acquiring their mother tongue and adults learning a second language can reach higher levels of skills by learning from their mistakes. If

people did not use the language until being absolutely certain of the correctness of the structures, there would be no communication at all. However, making mistakes can be seen as a threat by some to their identity. Making mistakes can cause both internal and external threats. Internally, the learners may become critical of themselves when they perform something wrong, externally they may perceive others to be critical of them. Hence, language teachers should make use of procedures and techniques that reduce inhibition in the classroom. They should create contexts in which learners feel free to take risks, to test out hypotheses and in this way to destroy the walls of inhibition which make them reluctant to use the language (Brown, 2000).

The personality traits of “introversion and extraversion” play a significant role in second language acquisition. Introversion refers to the tendency to stay away from social interaction and to be preoccupied with inner thoughts and feelings whereas extraversion relates to being outgoing and being interested in people and the things in the environment. Extraversion is invaluable for the interpersonal side of language learning, being outgoing and sociable is very beneficial in the development of communicative skills. However, introversion is as advantageous to the systematic analysis of the language (Stern, 1983).

“Motivation” as an affective factor has received considerable attention since the 1950s (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003). Gardner (1985) defines L2 motivation as “the combination of the effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language. That is, motivation to learn a second language is seen as referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (p.10). In his “Socio-Educational Model of Language Learning” Gardner (1985) distinguishes between “integrative” and “instrumental” motivation. Integrative motivation refers to the positive attitude towards the target culture, integratively motivated learners learn a language in order to interact with people belonging to the foreign culture and to become a member of that community. Instrumental motivation is associated with learning a foreign language for a specific purpose such as getting a job or the advancement of education. However, Gardner emphasizes the integrativeness as the determining component of motivation:

This motivation, however, always has an integrativeness component. Even when we speak of an instrumental motivation, this has associated with it some level of willingness to interact with other communities or the specific community in question. Learning another language in order to “get a job” or “improve one’s education”, etc., belies an interest in interacting at some level at least with the other ethnic community. To the extent that it is a powerful motivator, it will influence achievement but the major aspect in it is not the instrumentality *per se* but the motivation (p. 168).

Deci & Ryan’s (1985) model of motivation proposes two types of motivation: “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” motivation. Intrinsic motivation comes from within the individual and is related to their personality. Intrinsically motivated students find instructional tasks interesting and engaging and they learn for the sake of enjoyment and individual development. Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, comes from outside the learner. Extrinsically motivated students learn for the sake of rewards that are not inherently associated with the nature of learning such as getting good grades or being praised by teachers and parents. Pintrich & Schunk (as cited in Ehrman et al., 2003) state that teachers can enhance their students’ intrinsic motivation by providing them with learning experiences that meet their needs for competence, self-esteem and enjoyment, and by giving students choices teachers can also foster their perseverance and autonomy along with motivation.

Another important affective dimension in language teaching that is worth mentioning is “learner styles”. Learner styles are the general approaches that students use in learning a foreign language or any other subject. These styles reflect the general patterns of learning behaviour. L2 learners differ widely with regard to their learning styles. In order to achieve effective language teaching, teachers should address these different learner styles by offering a great variety of activities within a learner-centered, communicative classroom (Oxford, 2003). If teachers ignore learner styles or address only one particular learning style in the classroom, anxiety may arise among students who use different channels to learn.

Learner styles which are closely associated with language learning are studied under four categories, which are “sensory preferences, personality types, desired degree of generality and biological differences”. Sensory preferences refer to the physical, perceptual channels through which students learn most easily. This group of learning styles includes visual, auditory, kinesthetic (movement-oriented) and tactile (touch-oriented) learning styles. For instance, visual learners like reading, auditory learners learn best through lectures, conversations and oral directions, and kinesthetic and tactile students like lots of movement and enjoy working with tangible objects. Personality types encompass the styles of intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential, thinking vs. feeling, and closure-oriented/judging vs. open/perceiving learning. Intuitive-random students tend to think in abstract, futuristic and non-sequential ways. They like to create theories, look for new possibilities and guide their own learning. Sensing-sequential students, in contrast, prefer facts rather than theories, want specific guidance and instruction from the teacher and seek consistency. Thinking learners are inclined towards the stark truth even if it may hurt other people’s feelings. They desire to be viewed as competent and do not offer praise easily, and sometimes seem to be detached. Feeling learners, on the other hand, value other people in personal ways. They show sympathy through both behaviour and words and try to smooth over difficult situations between people most of the time. They want to be respected for personal contributions and hard work. Closure-oriented / judging learners want to reach judgment or to complete a task as soon as possible. They are serious hardworking students who like to be given precise instruction and enjoy doing specific tasks with clear deadlines. Their desire for precision and closure may impede their development of fluency. Open/perceiving learners are available for continuously new perceptions and they take L2 learning less seriously treating it like a game rather than a set of instructional tasks that they are supposed to complete. Open learners dislike deadlines and tend to learn language by heart rather than hard work. For this reason, they may develop fluency better than closure-oriented learners (Oxford, 2003).

Another group of learner styles, “desired degree of generality” contrasts the learner who is oriented towards the main idea or big picture with the one who focuses on details. “Global/Holistic” learners prefer interactive communicative events in which

they can emphasize the main idea and avoid analyzing grammatical structures. They tend to guess meaning from the context and feel secure even if they do not have all the information. “Analytic” students, by contrast, concentrate on grammatical details and tend to avoid communicative activities. With their concern for precision, they do not take risks to guess meaning from the contexts unless they are sure of the correctness of their guesses. Biological differences in learning include the factors of “biorhythms, sustenance, and location”. Biorhythms refer to the times of the day when students feel they can perform best. Some learn best in the morning while others prefer to study in the evening. Sustenance relates to the need for food or drink while learning. Whereas some learners like eating or drinking something while studying others may feel distracted from study by food and drink. The factor of location refers to the nature of the environment affecting learning such as temperature, lighting, sound, etc. (Oxford, 2003).

The last affective factor in language learning to be mentioned here, which is also the focus of this study, is “anxiety”. Anxiety is the affective dimension which probably obstructs learning most. It is connected with the feelings of fear, worry, self-doubt, frustration and tension (Arnold, 1999). Gardner (1985) proposes that not all forms of anxiety influence foreign language learning and there is a negative correlation between anxiety and language achievement, “ ... the conclusion seems warranted that a construct of anxiety which is not general but instead is specific to the language acquisition context is related to the second language achievement. There does not appear to be much justification to conclude that in general anxious individuals are less successful than non-anxious ones in acquiring a second language, but rather that individuals who become anxious in the second language learning context will be less successful than those who do not (p. 34).

MacIntyre & Gardner (1994b) note that language anxiety is a specific type of anxiety unique to the foreign language learning context by defining it as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning” (p. 284). Tsui (1996) proclaims that language learning is a stressful process and tends to generate much anxiety in the learner because it operates not only “as a process of acquiring linguistic rules or

participating in communication activities, but as a process in which individual learners are constantly putting themselves in a vulnerable position of having their own self-concept undermined and subjecting themselves to negative evaluations” (p. 155). As cited in Gass & Selinker (2008), Hoffman indicates the negative effect of language anxiety by stating that anxiety can direct attention away from meaning towards pure form:

In a [previous] review . . . it was found that intense anxiety directs one’s attention to physical features of words (acoustic properties, order of presentation, phonetic similarities) and that occurs to the relative neglect of semantic content. This suggests that affect can determine the extent to which semantic and non-semantic modes of processing are brought into play (p. 401).

In order to deal with ambiguities in foreign language anxiety research, language anxiety is identified in terms of three components, which are “communication apprehension, fear of negative social evaluation and test anxiety”. Communication apprehension theorizes that the language learner has mature thoughts and ideas but immature vocabulary and grammatical competence to express those ideas. This inability to express oneself and to comprehend others leads to frustration and apprehension. The second component, fear of negative social evaluation, relates to learners’ feeling of not being able to make the proper social impression due to being unsure of themselves and what they are saying. The last component, test anxiety, refers to the apprehension over academic evaluation (Horwitz et al., 1986 & MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989). As cited in Plastina (2005), Heron refers to what he terms “existential anxiety”, which has three aspects related to the classroom dynamics, namely “acceptance anxiety, orientation anxiety and performance anxiety”. Acceptance anxiety relates to Heron’s question “Will I be accepted and liked? ”. Teachers are often judgmental towards their students and fellow students are also judgmental when they express their disapproval, display impatience and make fun of each other, as a result this situation creates fear in the learner. Orientation anxiety, which is about the question “Will I understand what is going on?”, refers to the fear that the absence of clearly stated objectives creates among learners, which in turn hinders their understanding of how the instructional tasks being

used support their learning needs. Finally, performance anxiety (Will I be able to learn what I have come to learn?) arises from the negative feelings of uneasiness, self-doubt and frustration in not being able to cope adequately with learning tasks or the production of language.

The research into language anxiety concludes that foreign language anxiety is a specific type of anxiety that is distinguished from other types of anxiety and it can affect the language learning process in a negative way (Brown, 2000). Most anxiety research, however, has placed too much emphasis on the oral aspects of language, which consequently led to the development of scales of foreign language anxiety dominated by speaking-related items. This speaking-centered approach to the exploration of foreign language anxiety has raised both theoretical and empirical questions regarding the appropriateness of these instruments to identify and measure the anxiety students experience while performing the tasks related to the reading, listening and writing skills. Hence, researchers have suggested differentiating skill-specific anxiety from general foreign language anxiety which seems to be more concerned with the speaking component of language (Gkonou, 2011).

. . . . some language learners may feel particularly anxious about speaking in the second language, and some about writing. . . . the discrepancy between a learner's first and second language competence in different skill areas, a language learners varied experiences in acquiring each of the four language skills, and his or her history of success and failure in performing each skill might lead to differentiated attitudes, emotions, and expectations about each of the language skills. Language-skill specific anxiety might well be one of the negative emotions and attitudes formed during the process of second language learning.

(Cheng, 1999, p. 438)

Receiving significant attention in current foreign language education, “affect” in language teaching has been the source of inspiration for the present study. As an element of affect, anxiety has been investigated in relation to the writing skill, in other

words, being a skill-specific anxiety, foreign language (L2) writing anxiety has been the subject of this study.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Anxiety is a major obstacle to language learning. When anxiety exists in a language classroom there is usually a negative effect. Anxiety makes learners nervous and afraid, which results in poor performance, and this in turn creates more anxiety and lower achievement. The feelings of nervousness and fear are closely associated with the cognitive aspect of anxiety, namely “worry”. Worry wastes the energy that should be used for memory and information processing, which consequently has a debilitating impact on the learning process (Arnold, 1999). MacIntyre (1995) explains the negative effect of anxiety on the cognitive processes of foreign language learning as below:

...language learning is a cognitive activity that relies on encoding, storage, and retrieval processes, and anxiety can interfere with each of these by creating a divided attention scenario for anxious students. Anxious students are focused on both the task at hand and their reactions to it. For example, when responding to a question in class, the anxious student is focused on answering the teacher's question and evaluating the social implications of the answer while giving it. To the extent that self-related cognition increases, task-related cognition is restricted, and performance suffers. Anxious students therefore will not learn as quickly as relaxed students (p. 96).

Since anxiety can have profound effects on language learning, it is important to identify foreign language anxiety and interpret it within the context of theoretical and empirical research. For this, Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986) posited that foreign language anxiety is not merely the transfer of fears into the context of foreign language learning, but rather it is “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128). In order to identify the anxious students in foreign language class and to analyze language anxiety in quantitative measures, Horwitz et al. (1986) developed the instrument of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

(FLCAS), which was constructed on the conceptual foundations of three performance-related anxieties, namely “communication apprehension”, which refers to the fear or anxiety arising in interpersonal interactions, “fear of negative evaluation”, which is about the anticipation that others (the teacher and peers in the foreign language classroom context) would evaluate oneself in a negative way, and lastly “test anxiety”, which stems from the fear of failure. The FLCAS showed strong internal reliability and since then it has been used in many studies on language anxiety.

The FLCAS has contributed a clear understanding to the relationship between anxiety and L2 learning. Research adopting this measure generally indicated a negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and learners’ L2 learning attitudes, proficiency levels, language processing and L2 academic achievement. However, FLCAS was criticized for putting too much emphasis on the oral aspects of language with the dominance of its speaking-related items, thus its adequacy to measure anxiety arising in performing language skills other than speaking was questioned. Some language anxiety researchers even proposed differentiating language skill-specific anxiety from general foreign language anxiety, which seemed to be more associated with the speaking skill of language. Hence, increasing attention has been paid to identifying and examining anxiety aroused with the performance of tasks related to the specific language skills of listening, reading and writing (Cheng, 2004 & Gkonou, 2011).

In the literature of language anxiety, the speaking skill is described as the most anxiety-generating component of language, but anxiety can also occur when learners are required to write in the target language (Zhang & Zhong, 2012). As cited in Gkonou (2011), Leki claims that even though writing is the most private and self-controlling language skill, it may cause learners to experience “writer’s block”, which renders them unable to generate ideas to write. Cheng (2002) states that writing is an activity which involves both cognitive and emotional processes since individuals think and feel at the same time while they are writing, that’s why, writers’ affective responses deserve much attention from writing researchers.

Being a productive skill, writing generates much anxiety, because as Harmer (2001) points out, writing is a complex process in which the various stages of drafting, reviewing, redrafting, editing and writing are carried out in a recursive manner, thus, “at the editing stage we may feel the need to go back to a pre-writing phase and think again; we may edit bits of our writing as we draft it” (p. 258). Idris (2009) state that writing involves individual thinking process where teachers may not always be available to help learners develop their written skills and what makes writing even more difficult is that higher standards are established for writing. Richards & Renandya (2002) also assert that writing is the most difficult component of language for L2 learners to acquire:

There is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for L2 learners to master. The difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing ideas but also in translating these ideas into readable text. The skills involved in writing are highly complex. L2 learners have to pay attention to higher level skills of planning and organizing as well as lower level skills of spelling, punctuation, word choice, and so on. The difficulty becomes even more pronounced if their language proficiency is weak (p. 303).

Moreover, Murcia & Olshtain (2001) state that in general nobody feels comfortable with writing since it as a solitary creative task. According to them, the fact that L2 learners who, in general, have not developed into independent learners even in their mother tongue are expected to write in a foreign language adds to the difficulty of writing. Considering these issues, it seems inevitable for language learners to experience anxiety when it comes to performing written tasks.

In literature, anxiety associated with the writing skill of language is referred to as “writing apprehension” or “writing anxiety”. Daly & Miller (1975) coined the term “writing apprehension”, but later Krashen & Lee (2002) literally defined writing apprehension as “anxiety about writing”. Daly & Wilson (1983) defines writing anxiety as “ a situation and subject specific individual difference associated with a person’s tendencies to approach or avoid situations perceived to potentially require writing

accompanied by some amount of perceived evaluation” (p. 327). Cheng (1999) attributes a skill-specific characteristic to foreign language writing anxiety because it shows a higher correlation with writing achievement than general foreign language anxiety does and has a significant predictive ability in this area. Though limited in numbers, studies generally indicate a negative relationship between writing anxiety and writing achievement (Masny & Foxall, 1992; Cheng, 1999; Daud, Daud, & Kassim, 2005; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Zhang, 2011).

The Turkish culture of learning is based on rote learning and memorization. Central examinations play a crucial role in determining individuals’ future careers. For this reason, creativity and meaningful use of the learned knowledge is most often disregarded since students tend to learn only for the purpose of passing these examinations, which are constructed on the basis of multiple-choice question type. Crowded classrooms and insufficient equipment and physical structures in most state schools add to the problem of ineffective education in Turkey (Yılmaz & Altinkurt, 2011; Yolcu & Kartal, 2010; Eğitim Sen, 2012; Yaman, 2010; ERG, 2011). Language teaching is also affected by this situation. Rote learning and central examinations shape the course of foreign language education, which consequently prevents students from using the language in a meaningful communicative way. For instance, in a study with 227 Turkish EFL learners from secondary education, high school and university level, Kaçar & Zengin (2009) found that students tended to regard the listening and the writing skills as of secondary importance as a result of the foreign language education system in Turkey, which put teaching grammar and reading above developing listening and writing skills. Similarly, in his study investigating the difficulties in implementing the communicative language teaching (CLT) in Turkey, Ozsevik (2010) discovered six major problems inherent in language teaching in Turkey which hinder the application of teaching principles and techniques that foster the development of productive language skills of speaking and writing: large classes, teachers’ heavy workload, heavily-loaded program, curriculum/assessment mismatch, students’ poor communicative abilities and student’s low motivation. Below are the quotations of three language teachers who participated in that study:

Another problem is related with the loaded program. We, as teachers, have such a loaded program and so many points to cover that we cannot help but do the exercises as fast as possible. And once trapped in this dead-end, the first two things to fly out the window is productive activities, namely speaking and writing. I mean it is so frustrating, I cannot really remember the last time I did a meaningful writing activity. Of course, I am asking the students to write sample sentences using the target structure, but is this really writing? Well, I do not think so (p.72).

...the biggest problem is related with the mismatch between the aims of the books, the aims put forward in the teaching materials we are provided by the MONE, and the aims of the national exam the students are given upon the completion of their studies. There is a very strong mismatch between these three equally important elements and this creates very big problems. You simply cannot teach students speaking because it is not assessed in these exams. The course book mostly has listening and speaking as its focus. However, the tests focus on grammar, vocabulary, and reading skills only, all tested through multiple-choice questions (p. 73).

Since education is solely exam-oriented in Turkey, students are always in a fierce competition with each other. Our education, unfortunately promotes an individual learning style. Therefore, students are always left by themselves because they will be on their own when they are taking these entrance examinations. I mean there is no group work. Besides, there are no other criteria to admit students into high schools or universities besides these exams. So, especially with the senior classes like 11 and 12th grades, we have no choice but to forget using collaborative group work in our English classes (p. 75).

Having received language education in an exam-oriented manner at primary and secondary levels of education, which encourages individual rote learning and memorization (Yılmaz & Altinkurt, 2011; ERG, 2011; Yolcu & Kartal, 2010; Ozsevik, 2010) Turkish learners who enroll in English Language Teaching (ELT) departments at universities face the biggest challenge of dealing with the use of language in a productive manner. In Turkey, in order to be able to study at ELT or other language

departments of universities, learners have to take a standardized language test named YDS or LYS-5, which is constructed on the multiple-choice test type and which measures test takers' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, their ability to translate sentences into and from the target language, and reading comprehension. As a result, students preparing for this examination and language teachers educating their students in such an exam-oriented way generally ignore developing listening, speaking and writing skills, which will not be assessed in the university entrance exam.

In the four-year English Language Teaching (ELT) program, courses are given in a content-based manner where English is the medium of communication in classes. In the first year of their study, learners take the basic skills courses of reading, writing, speaking and grammar. Writing courses in the first year of the program aim to develop learner's ability to write well-developed paragraphs and different types of essays. In later years of their study students are introduced to method and linguistic courses such as Approaches to English Language Teaching, Teaching English to Young Learners, Language Acquisition and Language Testing, which are also delivered in English. Since English is the language of instruction, The ELT program requires learners to take examinations and carry out written assignments in English.

For these reasons, learners coming to study at ELT departments experience difficulty with the productive skills of language, especially the writing skill because of their previous language learning habits. For instance, in her study with 76 sophomore undergraduate students in an ELT department in Turkey, Alagozlu (2007) found that learners lacked critical thinking and individual voice in their literature essays. The claims in their written works were not supported with adequate evidence from sources in the form of facts, citations, comparison, analogy or inferences and logical explanations. Their essays included many fallacies produced by the small number of causal relations and the frequency of irrelevant conclusions. The perfect grammaticality of the essays indicated that students tended to memorize and write what they read rather than evaluate it by their judgment and reasoning. Students tended to handle the source texts for their informativeness instead of evidence or support for their own arguments by copying parts of the texts which did not contain arguments and only reporting claims in the form of suggestions, definitions and evaluations. Overall, this study found out

that rather than integrating the source texts with their existing schemata, the ELT learners displayed too much dependence on them. Alagozlu (2007) ascribes this situation to the Turkish education system, where critical thinking is not emphasized, “Since language learning is regarded as part of a memorization-based system of education in Turkey and learners are not independent enough (Palfreyman, 2003; Tekişik, 2005, pp. 12-13; Sert, 2006), EFL students fail in expressing their own ideas with their own words and thinking critically in content-based courses. Their failure might be interpreted respective of how the students have been educated till they attend university, since their previous education most probably shapes the observed code of behavior along with other personal and social factors” (p. 131). The situation being so, writing becomes an anxiety-provoking task for prospective teachers of English, who are used to memorization and spoon-feeding of information with no use of the productive skills of language. Because of their past learning experiences, prospective teachers tend to have negative attitudes towards writing, thus this creates anxiety in them, affecting their future teaching practices as well. Atay & Kurt’s (2006) study with 86 Turkish prospective teachers of English revealed that the subjects’ previous L2 writing experiences were one of the major sources of their writing anxiety and this anxiety might shape their future teaching practices of foreign language writing.

Writing is a complex process. Writing in a foreign language seems even more daunting as learners are expected to master the rules and the rhetoric of a language other than their own to generate ideas and express themselves in a coherent way. With the disregard of the productive skills in the foreign language education system in Turkey, learners generally do not develop the ability and the proficiency necessary for becoming effective L2 writers. Thus, when they attend university, prospective teachers are faced with the challenging tasks of writing essays, carrying out written assignments and taking written examinations in the target language, which are all anxiety-generating. This anxiety causes them to develop negative attitudes towards writing and will probably affect their future careers of teaching. Hence, the present study aims to investigate the writing anxiety levels of prospective English teachers and the factors causing them this anxiety, and also to offer remedial procedures to reduce their anxiety so that they will have more positive attitudes towards writing, which will most possibly

have them pay more attention to writing in their future teaching careers and create less stressful learning environments for their own students as well when they start teaching professionally.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

As language anxiety is reported to be a specific type of anxiety that is distinguished from other types of anxiety and one of the affective reasons for failure in language teaching (Brown, 2000), it is highly probable that success in L2 writing is also affected by the anxiety felt by language learners at all levels. Unless language anxiety and ways to reduce it are identified, it can affect the language learning process in a negative way. Language teachers have great responsibility in coping with the foreign language writing anxiety of learners. In order for teachers to make their learners comfortable with writing, their own negative attitudes to L2 writing must be done away with in the first place since it is most likely that these attitudes will affect their teaching practices in writing in an unfavourable way, creating more anxiety in their students.

In Turkish educational context, where the language teaching is usually based on teaching grammar, memorizing words and reading with little attention paid to the productive skills of speaking and writing, writing usually becomes a challenging task for prospective EFL teachers who enroll in university with a poor background of L2 writing experience, which inevitably causes anxiety for them and makes them develop negative attitudes towards writing in English. If this problem is not dealt with, pre-service teachers will most probably continue to have anxiety and hold negative attitudes in relation to writing, which will affect their future teaching practices by causing them to create stressful environments for their future learners to write in, or to neglect teaching writing altogether. For these reasons, in order to understand and solve the problem of L2 writing anxiety, first of all, prospective EFL teachers' own anxiety and their needs should be addressed and analyzed. As Young (1991) points out, teachers can be a potential source of anxiety for learners, so it is important that teacher-based considerations should be dealt with at tertiary level to prevent unwanted habits and attitudes concerning writing from entering the professional lives of prospective teachers in the future.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the foreign language writing anxiety of pre-service EFL teachers. More specifically, this study aims to investigate the L2 writing anxiety of prospective English teachers from the perspectives of both prospective teachers and instructors teaching at the EFL teacher education departments of universities. First, by making use of the instruments of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) designed by Cheng (2004), the present study attempts to find out the levels of the general foreign language anxiety and the foreign language writing anxiety among 170 English Language Teaching (ELT) students including freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors studying at a state university in Turkey, and also to find out whether the anxiety levels of the students change according to their years of study. Second, the study aims to look into the relationship between the foreign language writing anxiety and the general foreign language learning anxiety to see whether the students' L2 writing anxiety is correlated with their general foreign language anxiety and to understand if foreign language writing anxiety is distinct from general foreign language anxiety or not. Since the SLWAI is a three-dimensional measure incorporating the subscales of cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and avoidance behaviour, which component of writing anxiety is prevalent among the prospective EFL teachers is also to be identified.

Moreover and more importantly, utilizing both quantitative and qualitative instruments, this study aims to discover the factors causing L2 writing anxiety for pre-service English teachers from the viewpoints of the English Language Teaching (ELT) instructors as well as pre-service teachers themselves. Finally, eliciting coping strategies from ELT instructors to reduce the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective EFL teachers is among the purposes of this study.

1.4. Significance of the Study

In the literature there are very few studies on the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English (Atay & Kurt, 2006; Latif, 2007; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007; Kurt & Atay, 2007; Rodriguez et al., 2009; Idris, 2009; Zhang, 2011). This study aims to help to fill this gap and also to inform the English Language

Teaching (ELT) programs of the sources of L2 writing anxiety of ELT students. At the same time, this study offers possible remedies that can be applied by prospective teachers, university instructors and ELT departments to overcome the writing anxiety problem of prospective English teachers. The results and the implications of this study will also be beneficial for the language education at primary and secondary levels as student EFL teachers with less writing anxiety will most probably try to create more stress-free environments for their own students to write in when they are in profession.

This study is also significant in that it examines the phenomenon of foreign language writing anxiety in a two-dimensional way. The literature proves the existence of foreign language writing anxiety among both language learners and prospective EFL teachers (Masny & Foxall, 1992; Aydin, 1999; Cheng, 1999; Cheng, 2002; Daud, Daud, & Kassim, 2005; Lin, 2009; Armendaris, 2009; Shawish & Atea, 2010; Takahashi, 2010; Huwari & Aziz, 2011; Dedeyn 2011; Gkonou, 2011; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Sawalla, Chow, & Foo, 2012; Atay & Kurt, 2006; Latif, 2007; Öztürk& Çeçen, 2007; Kurt & Atay, 2007; Rodriguez et al., 2009; Idris, 2009; Zhang, 2011). The nature of L2 writing anxiety, factors which cause this anxiety and its relation to other variables such as proficiency, self-efficacy and learner differences, etc. have been the focus of studies on writing anxiety and have all been investigated from learners' perspectives. However, no work has explored this issue from the viewpoint of teachers. The current study has been designed to address the issue of L2 writing anxiety from the perspectives of both learners and teachers.

1.5. Research Questions

In this study, the following research questions have been addressed:

- What are the levels of the foreign language anxiety of prospective teachers of English?
- What are the levels of the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English?

- Are there any differences among prospective EFL teachers' levels of both general foreign language anxiety and foreign language writing anxiety with regard to their years of study (freshmen, sophomores, juniors, seniors)?
- Is the foreign language writing anxiety a phenomenon distinct from the general foreign language anxiety?
- What type of foreign language writing anxiety is dominant among prospective teachers of English (cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, or avoidance behaviour)?
- What are the sources of the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English?
- What strategies can be used to reduce the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English?

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The present study handles the issue of foreign language writing anxiety from the viewpoints of both learners and teachers, so there are two groups of participants in this study. One group is prospective English teachers, whose L2 writing anxiety has been explored, and the other group of participants are language instructors teaching at the English Language Teaching (ELT) departments of universities. Prospective teachers were administered instruments eliciting their anxiety levels and the causes of their foreign language writing anxiety. ELT instructors were given qualitative measures asking them to express their opinions as to the causes of L2 writing anxiety among pre-service EFL teachers and to give suggestions about how to deal with this anxiety. As the main subject group is prospective teachers, this study was conducted at the ELT department of a Turkish state university. A total of 170 ELT students participated in this study, including freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors. However, since the study was conducted among the ELT students of only one specific university, it is limited in terms of generality, meaning that the findings may be particular only to that subject group, and the results as regards the levels and causes of writing anxiety may not apply to the writing problems of prospective teachers studying at other universities in Turkey.

Another shortcoming is related to the number of the ELT instructors who participated in this study. An open-ended questionnaire was prepared and sent to as many ELT instructors as possible via e-mail. However, only thirty-two of the instructors responded to the mail and participated. This situation may constitute a restriction in the variety of the suggestions elicited from the instructors about coping with L2 writing anxiety.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

As an affective factor, anxiety is a widely studied issue in foreign language teaching. So far, a great deal of research has been carried out to explore the general foreign language anxiety experienced by learners. In recent times, however, anxiety associated with listening, reading and writing components of language has come under examination as well. As a productive skill, L2 writing demands creativity and making use of cognitive abilities, thus some research has been devoted to the understanding of the anxiety it creates in the learner. This chapter first presents a brief history of “affect” in language teaching, then it defines anxiety and explains its effect on language learning. The association of anxiety with language skills and the writing skill in particular is elaborated, finally a review of the literature relating to L2 writing anxiety is provided, and how the reviewed literature helped the design of the present study take shape is explained.

2.2. The Emergence of “Affect” in Language Teaching

Foreign language education has always been an important issue throughout history (Richards & Rodgeers, 2001). Foreign language teaching methodology has a long history from being based on the notions of creating the best way of teaching languages to being concerned with investigations into second language acquisition and explorations of classroom dynamics (Djignovic & Krajnovic, 2005).

Early conceptualizations of foreign language education were based on the analyses of classical works written in Latin. Latin was thought to enhance the intellectual capacity of students and the study of its rules and rhetoric was an important component of the school curriculum from the 17th to the 19th centuries. As the modern languages such as French, Italian and English began to enter the school curriculum in the 18th century, they were taught using the same procedures which were used for teaching Latin, namely the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM). The goal of the GTM was to learn a foreign language in order to read its literature and acquire intellectual

development. It teaches the language by a detailed analysis of grammar rules and by application of this knowledge of rules to translate sentences and texts from and into the foreign language. Reading and writing were emphasized, little or no attention was paid to listening and speaking. Students' native language was the medium of instruction (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

By the end of the 19th century, reaction to the grammar-translation method got very strong and became evident with the emergence of some new methods which were collectively referred as the Direct Method (DM). The main assumption of the direct method was that a foreign language could be learnt not through the native language but by the direct association of foreign words and phrases with the objects and actions they denote. Target language was the medium of instruction and phonetics was developed as a discipline, which gave rise to the significance of pronunciation. Grammar was taught inductively and functionally, which enabled the learner to actively participate in the learning process by using the grammatical structures that were commonly used in speech. Speaking was emphasized over reading and the main function of reading was to guess meaning from context (Djignovic & Krajnovic, 2005).

Created in the 1920s, the Reading Method (RM) limited the goal of language teaching to training in reading comprehension. This method put emphasis on reading since it regarded this skill as having the greatest practical value for the student in the early stages of language learning. The speaking skill was not totally neglected but it was reading that received the main attention. The techniques were not significantly different from those of the grammar-translation method or the direct method. The use of mother tongue was not forbidden in the classroom and as in the direct method, the presentation of second language was oral because ease in pronunciation and inner speech were considered to facilitate reading comprehension. Some of its techniques were developed from first language reading instruction. The vocabulary control, and intensive and extensive reading were of utmost importance. This method was criticized during World War II, when speaking languages was a national priority in the USA (Stern, 1983).

Structuralist methods were popular from the 1930s to the 1960s. They were developed from the principles of structural linguistics and behaviorist learning theory.

Structural linguistics saw language as a system of structurally interrelated elements, that is, every language consisted of phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence types. Grammar was not a list of rules but related structures. Learning a foreign language meant mastering all these units of language to encode meaning. One of the important characteristics of structural linguistics was that oral language was emphasized breaking with the tradition of focusing on written language as in the case of grammar-translation and reading method. As a learning theory, behaviorism regarded human learning as behaviour which could be conditioned by the three elements of stimulus, response and reinforcement. Therefore, the structuralist methods saw foreign language learning as the acquisition of its structures through habit formation (Sierra, 1995).

One of the structuralist methods was Situational Language Teaching (SLT). This method had an impact on language courses from the 1930s to the 1960s. In this method, speech was the central part of language, and structure was very important for developing oral skills. The situational approach suggested teaching linguistic structures in meaningful contexts, in other words, learners were taught language structures together with the situations they were used in to convey messages or express ideas. Since this method was based on the behaviorist theory of learning it saw language learning as habit formation, where mistakes were not tolerated because they were thought to create bad habits among learners. Oral skills preceded written skills, and the meanings of words were given in linguistic and cultural contexts. This method was very useful because the presentation of linguistic structures through meaningful situations helped students to understand and master the input effectively having a lasting impression in their minds, however, the shortcoming of this method was that only certain linguistic items could be taught by this method, language input such as prose, poetry, composition items etc could not be presented through situational language teaching (Patel & Jain, 2008).

Another popular structuralist method was Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), which used the stimulus-response-reinforcement model to create good language habits in learners. This method relied heavily on patterned drills to prevent learners from making mistakes. Language was decontextualized and bore very little or no communicative purpose. By intensive drilling students were only able to use the correct language and

almost no internalization took place in their minds. By strictly prohibiting making errors the audio-lingual method seemed to deter all forms of language acquisition processes (Harmer, 2001). Another method based on structuralism was the Global Structural Audio-Visual Method (GSAVM), which aimed to ensure language learning through the synthesis of auditory and visual perceptions. This method represented an extension of the audio-lingual method, but what made it distinct from the audio-lingual method was that linguistic input was presented through situations. The situation was reflected on a screen with the accompaniment of sound. Students dealt with texts globally without analyzing them in constitutive units. Listening and speaking preceded reading and writing. The main focus was on the spoken language, and linguistic structures were repeated in various forms until students could use them spontaneously (Moanga et al., 2009).

Behaviorism had a powerful influence on foreign language teaching between the 1940s and the 1970s. Language instruction adopted mimicry and memorization, and learners acquired the input by constant repetition. Since language acquisition was regarded as habit formation, learners were supposed to get rid of their habits in their mother tongue in order to develop new ones in the foreign language. If not dealt with, first language habits were thought to interfere with second language habits. This way, behaviorism was associated with Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), which was a theory in structural linguistics. CAH propounded that if L1 and L2 structures were similar learners could acquire the target structures easily, but if there were differences learners might have difficulty. Learners' errors were attributed only to the transfer of habits from the mother tongue. By the 1970s, both behaviorism and CAH were found to be inadequate explanations for second language acquisition since it was discovered that many of the learners' mistakes did not stem from their native languages. In fact, learners from different linguistic backgrounds made similar errors, and the structures they used were ungrammatical when translated into their first languages. All this suggested that language learning was not a matter of transfer of habits but a complex process of identification, sorting out and reflection (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). As a result, structural methods came under criticism since their exclusion of the treatment of meaning and the emphasis they placed on the habit-formation teaching left teachers and

learners without a creative approach towards language study and real-life application of the target language (Sierra, 1995).

In the early 1950s, a movement named “cognitive revolution” had taken place as a reaction to behaviorism. Cognitive psychology was based on the belief that much of human behaviour could be understood by analyzing how people thought. It objected to the view that psychologists should avoid studying mental processes because they were not observable. However, it did not totally reject the principles of behaviorism, while emphasizing internal mental processes it relied on the precise quantitative analysis of behaviorism to look into how people learnt and thought (Sternberg & Sternberg, 2011). Thus, cognitive psychology dealt with topics such as perception, memory, attention, language and decision-making. Basically, it was founded on the notion that the human brain was like a computer while processing information, and that it had a reception, storage and retrieval function (Brown, 2007). The linguist Noam Chomsky made one major contribution to the development of cognitive psychology. Contrary to behaviorism, his theory of language claimed that language could not be thought of as learnt behaviour in response to some external stimuli. Chomsky argued that if behaviorists were right, then exposing children to inadequate language or ungrammatical structures in their first language should hinder their acquisition of the correct forms of language in stimulus-response relationships. However, studies showed that although much of the speech that children were exposed to was indeed poor and ungrammatical, this situation did not prevent them from acquiring the correct grammar of their mother tongue. Moreover, he asserted that language was a rule-governed system. According to Chomsky, children’s acquisition of their first language involved their acquisition of its rules, not being exposed to some outer stimuli. One’s production of language required his/her reference to his/her implicit/unconscious knowledge of the rules of language. By creating the concept of implicit knowledge, Chomsky contended that understanding how humans comprehended, acquired and produced language necessitated an analysis of their knowledge of underlying rules and organization of language, which could not directly observed. With these arguments Chomsky was very influential in creating a cognitive conception of language (Braisby & Gellatly, 2005).

With the influence of Chomsky's language theory and the increasing significance of the cognitive psychology, there emerged a new theory of language teaching- the Cognitive Code Learning. This theory rejected the stimulus-response-reinforcement relationship as the basis of foreign language learning. Instead, it appreciated explicit instruction in language teaching. According to the cognitive coding theory, competence was associated with explicit knowledge of grammatical rules and performance or proficiency was related to the practice of the use of those rules. Perception and awareness of linguistic structures took precedence over their use, therefore, the linguistic input was practised after it was presented deductively as learners needed to use their cognitive abilities to understand what they were learning and to master the language. This characteristic distinguished the cognitive code learning from the audio-lingual method, which discounted the contribution of metalinguistic awareness by placing inductive learning and constant practice at the heart of teaching practice (Trosborg, 1994). For some time in the early 1970s, there was a big interest in cognitive code learning for language teaching. However, no method or methodological principles arose to solidify this theory of learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The lack of an alternative method to audiolingualism led to the emergence of several alternative methods in the 1970s which were informed by the tenets of Humanistic Psychology (Richard & Rodgers, 2001; Djigunovic & Krajnovic, 2005).

Carl Rogers was the founder of Humanistic Psychology. He spent most of his professional life giving psychological help to individuals. He carefully analyzed general human behavior including the learning process from a "phenomenological perspective", which was in stark contrast to the principles of behaviorism. He studied the "whole person" as a physical, and cognitive, but above all, an emotional being. Rogers emphasized the individual self-concept and personal sense of reality, namely the internal forces which spurs a person to act. According to Rogers, humans were inclined to live in a way that enhanced their existence. In appropriate, non-threatening conditions individuals would form a picture of reality in harmony with the outer reality and would grow and learn in a secure way. Rogers claimed that "fully functioning persons" were those who attained their full potential by living at peace with their feelings and reactions. Humanistic psychology had significant implications for education in general.

The focus shifted from teaching to learning. Learning how to learn became more important than being taught by a single authority who decided what should be taught. In Rogers' opinion, teachers should be facilitators throughout the learning process. In order to be facilitators, teachers should first give up the roles of authority and superiority, and they should acknowledge the student as a worthy, valuable person. Second, they should establish rapport with their students by talking to them openly and empathetically. Teachers with these characteristics would attain the goals of education creating the favourable context for learning. Rogers' theory was far away from behaviorism, but it was not so much concerned with the cognitive processes of learning either, because he propounded that learning could not take place if the context for learning was not properly created. The adaptation of humanistic psychology to language education required teachers to facilitate the learning context in which learners must understand themselves and communicate their selves to others freely and non-threateningly in meaningful interaction. Classroom activities and materials should contribute to the personal development of students by utilizing meaningful contexts of genuine communication (Brown, 2000).

One method informed by this humanistic trend was the Community Language Learning (CLL). Curran, the founder of this method, suggested that learners should be regarded as clients, and teachers should act like counselors, who addressed the needs of students. In this way, this method aimed to encourage teachers to treat their learners as whole persons where their emotions, intellect, intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships were handled with empathy. At the first stage learners were allowed to communicate with each other in their mother tongue, the teacher translated their utterances into English and encouraged them to do same. Learners gradually learnt to use the foreign language independently. Here the humanistic approach of teacher-counselor relationship enabled students to evaluate themselves, to recognize their self-worth and to take on responsibility in their learning process, which made them learn out of interest rather than coercion (Vasuhi, 2011). Another humanistic method, the Silent Way (SW), which was developed by Gattegno, was based on the belief that students should learn independently of the teacher on the assumption that they would learn better if they took charge of their own learning. Adopting humanistic principles this method

considered teaching as subordinate to learning. Hence, for most of the course the teacher was supposed to remain silent, and group-work was encouraged to figure out meaning. Linguistic input was presented through the use of Cuisenaire rods and wall charts, then students determined what they needed to learn next and worked independently to achieve their academic goals (Norland & Said, 2006).

Suggestopedia, developed by Lozanov, attached vital importance to the physical surroundings and the classroom atmosphere. It aimed to promote learning by ensuring that students felt comfortable, confident and relaxed. One salient feature of this method was “infantilization” by which learners and the teacher existed in a parent-child relationship. To remove barriers to learning, students were given new identities in the target culture. Traumatic topics were avoided, and the teacher’s sympathy was very important. Another conspicuous characteristic of this method was the use of music in the presentation of material, which was thought to reduce tension and increase the power of concentration for the lesson. (Harmer, 2001). Developed by Asher, the Total Physical Response (TPR) was a language teaching method which required learners to respond physically to imperatives given by the teacher. The use of imperatives was at the core of this method because it was thought that like first language acquisition, second language acquisition should be developed through movements of the student’s body, and the imperative was a powerful tool to manipulate learners’ behaviour. This method suggested that a large number of grammatical structures and vocabulary items could be taught with the skillful use of imperatives by the teacher. Another outstanding feature of this method was that listening preceded speaking. The teacher should not force students to speak because oral skills were thought to develop spontaneously once learners internalized a cognitive map of the foreign language by understanding what they heard. They could not speak until they were ready to speak. According to Asher, the TPR was an effective way of language teaching not only because it was congruent with the natural sequence with first language acquisition but also because it created a stress-free, non-threatening environment for learners since they were not forced to produce the unfamiliar target language until they felt ready (Sano, 1986).

The Natural Approach (NP), which was proposed by Terrell and Krashen, was believed to keep to the naturalistic principles investigated in second language

acquisition. It underlined the exposure to language more than teacher monologues, direct repetition and formal question and answers. Communication was seen as the main function of language, so this approach was concerned with teaching communicative skills. Lexis was very important. Language was considered to be comprised of words, structures and messages, and it was a vehicle to convey those messages. The NP assigned three chief roles to the teacher. First, the teacher was the primary source of linguistic input and was responsible for providing comprehensible input for acquisition. Second, the teacher was supposed to create an interesting and friendly atmosphere in the classroom. And third, the teacher was to make use of a rich variety of materials and classroom activities. Learners had an active role in ensuring comprehensible input by deciding when to start producing the language and when to upgrade it and where language activities should be incorporated in the teaching program. They were expected to take part in communicative activities with other learners. Meaningful activities and authentic materials which fostered comprehension and communication and which facilitated the acquisition of vocabulary was essential to the teaching process. In all activities the teacher was supposed to ensure a constant flow of comprehensible input by using appropriate gestures, context and repetition (Salim, 2001).

The humanistically-oriented alternative methods of 1970s were short-lived. While the Audio-Lingual Method and the Situational Language Teaching were mainstream language teaching methods developed by linguists on the tenets of applied linguistics, these humanistic methods were created outside of mainstream language education or as an application of some other educational theory in language teaching. Rather than being based on a theory of language or following research in applied linguistics, these methods were founded on some specific theories of learners and learning, sometimes even the theories of a single scholar. These methods were poorly developed in the domain of language theory, and the learning principles they presented were usually different from the ones in second language acquisition sources. For instance, Krashen and Terrell gave no particular language theory for the Natural Approach, and the theory of learning was grounded on Krashen's own view of language acquisition. For these reasons, the alternative humanistic methods, which attracted some interest at first, did not continue to gain significant acceptance (Richards & Rodgers,

2001). Arnold (1999) states that humanistic language teaching did not suggest teaching the second language by some other activities, but rather it aimed to create an effective language teaching by incorporating the affective dimension of the learners into the teaching methodology. However, as Brown (2000) puts it, these humanistic approaches have had a significant impact on the current context of foreign language education by introducing the concept of “affect” in language learning.

Besides cognitive abilities, affective factors also play a significant role in second language learning. Anxiety, along with motivation and self-confidence, is commonly listed among the affective elements which have the potential to influence language learning outcomes (Kormos & Smith, 2012).

2.3. What is Anxiety?

Blau (1995) defines anxiety as an emotional situation in which a person experiences threat, weakness and tension as a result of an expected danger. According to Morris et al. (as cited in Wilson, 2006), anxiety consists of worry and emotionality in which worry refers to “negative expectations and cognitive concerns about oneself, the situation at hand, and possible consequences” and emotionality indicates “one’s perception of the psychological affective elements of anxiety experience, that is, indications of autonomic arousal and unpleasant feeling states such as nervousness and tension” (p. 41). In a similar fashion, other scholars give definitions of anxiety:

A general feeling of apprehension including hyper-vigilance, increased sympathetic nervous system activity, and difficulty concentrating.

(Davu and Palladino, as cited in Subaşı, 2010, p. 3)

Apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object.

(Scovel, 1978, p.34)

“Something felt”, an emotional state that included feelings of apprehension, tension, nervousness, and worry accompanied by physical arousal.

(Freud, as cited in Weiner & Craighead, 2010, p.1698)

Unpleasant, consciously-perceived feelings of tension and apprehension, with associated activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system.

(Spielberger & Barratt, 1972, p. 29)

Sarason & Sarason (1990) list some characteristics that arise with 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 (p. 476).

Daly (as cited in Aydın, 1999) puts forward that there are five causes of the development of anxiety. The first cause he gives refers to “genetic disposition”. Based on the research on such characteristics of fraternal and identical twins, twins raised separately and adopted children as being sociable and active he points out that a person’s genetic inheritance might be a substantial source of his/her anxiety. The second cause he provides indicates the reinforcements and punishments a person receives all his/her life in the act of communication. For instance, a child who is watching a foreign language program will repeat some of the words and sounds. Daly argues that if the child’s parents respond to this situation encouragingly with praises the child will most probably continue practising the language, but if the parents react negatively, the child will probably give up learning the language. The third cause of the development of

anxiety Daly claims refers to the inconsistent rewarding and punishment. If a person receives inconsistent rewards and punishments for the same communicative act, this might make him/her anxious. "...the unpredictability of others' responses to a person's attempts to communicate leads him or her to become anxious about communicating" (p. 13). Another cause is associated with the inadequate acquisition of early communication skills. This explanation posits that children who do not acquire good communication skills early tend to be more anxious than those who are provided with this opportunity to develop these skills earlier in life. Daly provides "the role of appropriate models of communicating" as the final reason for the development of anxiety. Children acquire some of their communication skills by observing adults in interaction. Research shows that children who have not had proper models of communications are inclined to be more apprehensive than those who have had adequate communication models. Daly states that all these five causes interact with each other in a cyclical way and lead to the avoidance of settings where communicative competence may be improved, for example in situations where communication is required people who are anxious about communication find themselves not doing as well as those who are verbally skilled and, as a result, they avoid opportunities to enhance their communicative skills.

McCroskey (1984) presents nine situations which are thought to increase anxiety: "novelty, formality, subordinate status, conspicuousness, unfamiliarity, dissimilarity, degree of attention from others, degree of evaluation, and poor history" (p. 25-26). McCrosky claims that the opposites of these situations lead to decreased anxiety:

Novelty: Uncertainty about how to behave in a new situation

Formality: Rigid behaviour rules, with little tolerance for deviation

Subordinate status: Appropriate behaviour defined by the person holding higher status

Conspicuousness: The degree a person stands out or is visible in a social setting

Unfamiliarity: When the speaker does not already know his/her interlocutor in communication

Dissimilarity: Talking to people who have different opinions and values from ours.

Degree of attention from others: Anxiety rises when people stare at us or totally ignore us when we are communicating

Degree of evaluation: Being evaluated in terms of performance

Poor history: Previous failure breeds the fear of failure again, and hence causes more anxiety

It can be concluded from the definitions and explanations so far that anxiety is associated with feelings of worry, lack of confidence, frustration, fear and tension.

2.3.1. Types of Anxiety

The concept of anxiety has been investigated from different perspectives by some researchers. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, 1991a, 1994a) examined anxiety under three categories to study it in a number of areas including foreign language learning, which are referred to as trait, state and situation-specific anxiety. Alpert & Haber (1960), Kleinmann (1977) and Scovel (1978) also distinguished between facilitating and debilitating anxiety.

2.3.1.1. Trait versus State Anxiety

Trait anxiety is defined as an individual's tendency to become anxious in any situation and is regarded as a stable emotional state that a person experiences more often or more intensely than other people do most of the time. In this respect, trait anxiety is considered as a part of one's personality trait. Therefore, an individual with high trait anxiety is likely to get anxious across many types of situations (Wang, 2005). However,

trait anxiety has been criticized in foreign language education since “traits are meaningless unless they are considered in interaction with situations” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, p. 88).

Riasati (2011) defines state anxiety as “nervousness or tension at a particular moment in response to some outside stimulus” (p. 908). Unlike trait anxiety, state anxiety is not a personality trait and emerges in a particular situation, hence it is transitory.

Individuals who are more anxious and more likely to become anxious regardless of situation are referred to as having *trait anxiety*; that is, anxiety is a part of their character or an aspect of a more serious disorder. However, those who are able to appraise situations accurately as being threatening or not within reasonable limits are said to have *state anxiety*, a social type of anxiety that occurs under certain conditions. For example, a person may not ordinarily be anxious but becomes so when asked to make a public address. This differentiation is critical in the study of anxiety because it allows the separation of individuals who are likely to be anxious in any variety of situations from those who would not normally be anxious.

(Pappamihiel, 2002, p. 330)

Riasati (2011) states that the good thing about this anxiety type in language learning context is that it diminishes over time as learners get used to the language learning environment. That’s why, he thinks that state anxiety is not as harmful as trait anxiety in that it is not permanent.

However, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) criticize state anxiety in language learning for “skirting the issue of the source of the reported anxiety” (p. 90), in other words, it has the shortcoming of not tracing the source of the anxiety experienced in a specific situation.

2.3.1.2. Situation-specific Anxiety

As Toth (2010) points out, a third perspective from which anxiety is studied in addition to the trait and state anxiety is the situation-specific approach. This type of anxiety is defined as “ a personal predisposition or tendency to become anxious in one type of situation, that is, a trait of anxiety applied to a particular context” (p. 8). The concept of situation-specific anxiety has arose as a reaction to the assumption that trait anxiety ignores the situational elements of anxiety since it is based on the belief that anxiety is a stable characteristic of one’s personality which is valid in different kinds of situations. Critics have asserted that since anxiety is experienced by a person in a context, traits should be regarded in interaction with situations that bring about anxiety. The situation-specific approach assumes that some situations are more likely to produce anxiety than others, and this shows individual variation among people. For instance, while a person may experience anxiety in one type of situation and not in others, a second individual may not feel anxious in the situation that causes anxiety for that person. In brief, situation-specific anxiety is “experienced in well-defined situations, such as taking a test or speaking in public, for instance” (p. 8).

2.3.1.3. Facilitating versus Debilitating Anxiety

Different from the trait, state and situation-specific anxieties, which are constructed upon the factors of personality and situations, facilitating and debilitating anxieties, are based on the effects of anxiety on individuals’ performance in language learning (Wang, 2005). As Scovel (1978) comments, facilitating anxiety helps learners to achieve success whereas debilitating anxiety hinders learners’ progress:

Facilitating anxiety motivates the learner to ‘fight’ the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approval behavior. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast, motivates the learner to ‘flee’ the new learning task; it stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behavior (p. 139).

MacIntyre (1995) pinpoints that task difficulty in learning is the determinant of facilitating or debilitating anxiety. When the task is easy for the cognitive capacity of an individual to handle, anxiety has little adverse effect and actually it enhances performance, but when the task demands too much on the cognitive system, in other words, when it is too difficult for the learner to deal with, anxiety begins to have a negative effect on the learning process:

To the extent that a given task is relatively simple, anxiety seems to have little negative effect and may actually improve performance through increased effort. However, as the demands on the system increase, the extra effort may not fully compensate for the cognitive interference, and anxiety will begin to have a negative effect. As demand further exceeds ability, the impairment caused by anxiety arousal worsens. Thus, those who do not experience anxiety will be able to process the information more quickly, more effectively, or both compared to those who are distracted by task-irrelevant cognition (p. 92).

In short, it can be said that while facilitating anxiety keeps learners on track and leads to achievement, debilitating anxiety is negatively correlated with individuals' performance and may cause poor linguistic success.

2.4. Foreign Language Anxiety

Researchers use the term “foreign language anxiety”, or “language anxiety” in short, to refer to the debilitating anxiety that learners experience during the language learning process (Feigenbaum, 2007). MacIntyre (1998) states that foreign language anxiety is a type of situation-specific anxiety and claims that measures of language anxiety should be associated with specific foreign language learning contexts. He defines language anxiety as “the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language” (p. 27). Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986) further explain 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” (p. 128). According to Horwitz et al., foreign language anxiety arise as a result of insufficient communication abilities:

Adults typically perceive themselves as reasonably intelligent, socially-adept individuals, sensitive to different socio-cultural mores. These assumptions are rarely challenged when communicating in a native language as it is not usually difficult to understand others or to make oneself understood. However, the situation when learning a foreign language stands in marked contrast. Because individual communication attempts will be evaluated according to uncertain or even unknown linguistic and socio-cultural standards, second language communication entails risk-taking and is necessarily problematic. Because complex and non-spontaneous mental operations are required in order to communicate at all, any performance in the L2 is likely to challenge an individual’s self-concept as a competent communicator and lead to reticence, self-consciousness, fear, or even panic (p. 128).

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) emphasize the debilitating effect of language anxiety by arguing that anxiety interferes with the “acquisition, retention and production of the new language” (p.86), and thus it causes many problems for language learners. Huang (2009) states that language anxiety is not restricted to foreign language learning situations but it also has social and cultural dimensions:

...language anxiety basically consists of the nervous, worried, or unpleasant emotions related not only to second/ foreign language learning situations but also to the social or cultural-specific factors which make language learners anxious. Second language students often experience psychological difficulties when learning the target language and adjusting to the new culture, and these psychological difficulties are associated with language anxiety (p. 12-13).

2.4.1. Development of Foreign Language Anxiety

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) propose a model of causality which explains the development of language anxiety. According to this model, language anxiety emerges in

the early stages of foreign language learning, in which the learner might have difficulties in grammar, speaking and pronunciation, etc. If the learner is anxious about the learning experience and afraid of making mistakes in this early phase, state anxiety arises. If this state anxiety repeats itself on a number of occasions during language learning, foreign language anxiety regarding performance develops. Foreign language anxiety will at the highest level in the early process of learning the target language and it will decrease as the learner becomes more proficient in the foreign language:

The model to be suggested is that foreign language anxiety causes poor performance in the foreign language which produces elevations in State anxiety....This interpretation might indicate that when a student experiences repeated episodes of State anxiety within language contexts, it solidifies into a situation-specific anxiety, French Class Anxiety for example. This anxiety is maintained and strengthened by the same sequence of poor performance leading to anxiety that created the French Class anxiety in the first place. Presumably, a differentiation between State anxiety and French anxiety develops because State anxiety and foreign language anxiety are associated with two different factors. This would happen as the student comes to associate anxiety with French Class, as opposed to Mathematics class for example. Discrimination between the different types of anxiety develops and determines the source to which the anxiety is attributed... a clear relationship exists between foreign language anxiety and foreign language proficiency (p. 272-273).

2.4.2. Approaches to the Study of Anxiety in Foreign Language Learning

As Toth (2010) mentions in her work called “Foreign Language Anxiety and the Advanced Language Learner”, the study of anxiety in foreign language learning began in the 1970s, and from then on there have been two different approaches adopted in the study of language anxiety, which are called “anxiety transfer” and “unique anxiety” approaches. The “anxiety transfer” approach assumes that foreign language anxiety is merely the transfer of other forms of anxiety into language learning contexts, for instance individuals who are trait- anxious or have a tendency to experience anxiety in certain types of situations are likely to experience anxiety in language learning. In short,

language anxiety has been examined either as “the manifestation of a general trait of anxiety” (p.15), or as “the transfer of some situation-specific anxiety” (p.15). As a result, studies adopting this approach used measures of trait/state anxiety or situation-specific anxieties such as test anxiety and communication apprehension to look into the anxiety in the domain of foreign language learning. Conversely, the “unique anxiety” approach hypothesizes that language learning anxiety is a unique type of anxiety, it is not related to the individuals’ general anxiety or any form of situational anxiety. Toth (2010) bases this theoretical perspective on Gardner’s (1985) hypothesis that “a construct of anxiety which is not general but instead is specific to the language acquisition context is related to second language achievement” (p. 34). In line with this approach, language anxiety is regarded as a situation-specific anxiety which arises during the experience of foreign language learning. While studies taking on the anxiety transfer approach produced inconsistent and contradictory results both within and across studies, studies adopting the unique-anxiety approach were consistent in showing that there is a negative correlation between language anxiety and performance in foreign language learning.

2.4.3. Theoretical Background

Foreign language anxiety is related to the affective factors that exist during second language acquisition. Affective factors are learners’ individual preferences for the types of input to acquire in regard to their motivation and needs. It has been reported that affective factors can hinder progress. Such issues as learners’ cessation to learn before reaching native-like proficiency and having difficulty improving their language skills can be attributed to the affective factors (Ito, 2008).

2.4.3.1. Krashen’s “Affective Filter” Hypothesis

Stephen D. Krashen refers to the affective factors in language acquisition as “the affective filter”. He theorizes that affective factors such as motivation and anxiety can block some aspects of input during the language learning process. When the affective filter functions, little or no information can enter the learner’s cognitive system so he/she will not reach the desired competence, in other words, language learning is

blocked due to the input's being filtered out. For instance, a very anxious learner might learn little in spite of his/her true capability because the information will be blocked at the input level:

... Input may be understood by the acquirer, but this does not mean that this input will reach the Language Acquisition Device. Dulay and Burt (1977) have posited the existence of an Affective Filter, a barrier that can prevent input from reaching the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). I have hypothesized, on the basis of research on affective variables, that a high filter, one that prevents input from reaching the LAD, is caused by low motivation, high student anxiety, and low student self-esteem... we acquire when we obtain comprehensible input in a low-anxiety situation, when we are presented with interesting messages and when we understand these messages.

(Krashen, 1989, p.10)

2.4.3.2. Tobias' Theory

In his article "Anxiety Research In Educational Psychology (1979)", Tobias proposed a model of the cognitive effects of anxiety on learning from instruction. In this model, Tobias divided learning into three stages: "input, processing and output". The input stage referred to the learner's first exposure to the outside stimulus, namely the reception of information. If anxiety arose at this stage, internal reactions might distract the learner from encoding the stimulus and internalizing the information. Thus, at the input stage repeated instruction might be necessary to do away with the effects of anxiety. The processing stage consisted of understanding incoming messages and the realization of learning by giving meaning to new words. If anxiety occurred at this stage, the meaning of the new items were not recognized, as a result, both learning and comprehension would suffer. Lastly, at the output stage, second language was produced in the form of either written or spoken messages. Anxiety aroused at the output stage might cause insufficient retrieval of vocabulary, ineffective use of grammar or incapability of responding to outside messages (Liu, 2009).

While Krashen's affective filter theory mentions the interruption of acquisition at the input level, Tobias' theory placed a second affective filter just before the output stage in language learning, pointing out that anxiety does not only affect the input stage but also the output stage of learning. For his theory Tobias gives as an example the situations in which students claim to have studied hard but freeze up in examinations. This second affective filter placed toward the output stage can hinder students' ability to express themselves, thus the product may not represent their true knowledge (Ito, 2008).

2.4.3.3. MacIntyre and Gardner's Theory

Based on the model proposed by Tobias (1979), MacIntyre & Gardner (1994) developed the theory of "stage-specific anxiety" to understand the effects of foreign language anxiety at a deeper level. They argued that most research focused on the influence of language anxiety on overt performance disregarding the subtle effects anxiety had on cognitive processing in foreign language learning. Therefore, they proposed that anxiety should be investigated through three scales: Input anxiety scale, processing anxiety scale, and output anxiety scale:

Tobias' model describes the effects of anxiety on learning as seen in three stages: Input, Processing, and Output. Although learning is a continuous process, Tobias' model draws the distinctions among the stages in order to isolate and explain the effects of anxiety....

Tobias (1986) notes that the stages are, however, interdependent. Each stage depends on the successful completion of the previous one. For example, difficulty in performance at the Output stage may be caused by deficits created at the Input or Processing stages. Therefore, the negative correlation between language anxiety and second language production observed in previous studies might be indicative of problems at any of the three stages.... To address this issue, we developed a new anxiety measure structured around Tobias' three-part model. The new measure attempts to take into account the role played by anxiety at each of the three stages, with items referring to input, processing, and output (p. 286-288).

2.4.3.4. Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope's Theory

Horwitz et al. (1986) assert that anxiety hinders the learner's ability to perform successfully in foreign language classes. According to Horwitz et al., the problem of anxiety has serious implications for both foreign language fluency and language performance. Anxiety can make the individual unable to receive the linguistic input or cause inhibition for the learner while utilizing the fluency he/she has acquired. This situation results in poor performance, which leads the teacher to make inaccurate assessments that the learner lacks the necessary aptitude for language learning or sufficient motivation to perform successfully in language classes. Hence, teachers must acknowledge the existence of foreign language anxiety and they should always take into account the possibility that anxiety is responsible for learner behaviour before attributing poor performance to lack of knowledge and skills, insufficient linguistic background or low motivation. In order to create an effective language learning environment teachers should help students "to cope with the existing anxiety-provoking situation and make the learning context less stressful" (p. 131).

2.4.3.5. The Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (LCDH)

The linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (LCDH) was developed by Sparks & Ganschow (1991, 1993, 1998) to suggest that students who perform poorly in foreign language courses may have problems in their mother tongue that interfere with their ability to learn a second language. In the LCDH, Sparks & Ganschow propose that skills in the phonological, syntactic and semantic components of the native language provide the basis for foreign language learning. They speculate that both native and foreign language learning depend on certain linguistic mechanisms, and problems with one language skill are likely to have a negative impact on both the native language and the foreign language system. The term "linguistic coding" is selected by the scholars of the LCDH to refer to the deficiencies of students in one or more of the linguistic codes of their native language system. The exponents of the LCDH theorize that inability in the phonological, syntactic and semantic codes of language, rather than affective factors, brings about individual differences in foreign language learning. Affective differences are thought to stem from the problems in native language learning. In contrast to the

theory of Horwitz et al. (1986), who claim that anxiety interferes with language learning and thus causes poor performance, the LCDH asserts that students with foreign language problems may have underlying linguistic coding deficits in their mother tongue which interfere with their ability to learn a foreign language, and this, in consequence, causes anxiety:

In our view, the speculation of Horwitz (1986) and her colleagues that anxiety is the likely cause of FL failure must be approached with caution. First, they fail to use a comparison group and therefore provide only anecdotal information about the possible contribution of anxiety to poor FL performance. Second, neither the students' native nor FL aptitude was assessed to ascertain if highly anxious students have learning problems in their native language or poor aptitude for L2 learning. It is, therefore, conceivable that other factors, such as difficulties with one or more aspects of one's native language, may contribute to poor performance in FL classes and that undue anxiety may *result from* native language learning problems. The affective qualities then, may only be symptoms – behavioral manifestations – of a deeper problem... students with FL learning difficulties may have underlying native language problems that impact on their learning of another.

(Sparks & Ganschow, 1991, p. 6)

Ganschow, Sparks & Javorsky (1998), who propound that foreign language learning performance is associated with native language learning and that affective differences are the result of effective or ineffective second language learning, suggest the direct teaching of the phonological and grammatical rule systems of the target language for poor foreign language learners, because, according to them, students with foreign language difficulties may appear to have learned their mother tongue adequately, but in fact, they mask their linguistic coding deficits in their native language by using compensatory strategies, which also enable them to succeed well in academic settings. What happens to these students in foreign language learning is that “their compensatory strategies become unworkable when they are placed in situations where

they must learn a totally unfamiliar and new linguistic coding system. The student is virtually thrown back into the situations she/he experienced in learning to talk and/or learning to read and write” (Sparks & Gaschow, 1991, p.10).

MacIntyre (1995) reacts to Sparks & Gaschow’s view that native language aptitude is the primary source of individual variations in foreign language proficiency and that the affective dimension is simply a behavioral manifestation of aptitude. MacIntyre criticizes Sparks & Gaschow’s theory of the LCDH for focusing exclusively on the factors of cognitive ability in regard to the coding of linguistic stimuli, thus disregarding the social factors involved in learning a foreign language:

Their theory focused exclusively on cognitive ability factors in terms of the coding of linguistic stimuli. They omitted consideration of social factors involved in language learning, such as classroom interaction with teachers and other students, the degree of exposure to the language in the community, ethnolinguistic vitality, motivation, attitudes, intergroup relations, and contact with the target language community. Additional cognitive factors are neglected as well, such as the amount of effort invested in language study, the student's expectations for success, and perhaps most importantly, language learning strategies that might lessen the impact of native language deficits. In short, the linguistic coding deficit hypothesis neglects the context in which language learning occurs (Clement, 1980; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992, 1993) and ignores the potential for social context to influence cognitive processes (p. 96)

MacIntyre (1995) regards the LCDH as incomplete because it does not recognize the language learning context, considering the influence of the social context on cognitive processes in general and language learning in particular. However, MacIntyre notes that one subject upon which the cognitive interference model of anxiety and the LCDH agree is in the remedial action suggested to deal with language learning deficits. Both cases suggest that “attempts to reduce language anxiety may require some skills training as a supplement to anxiety reduction strategies in order to compensate for deficiencies created by anxiety arousal, native language problems, or both” (p. 97).

2.4.3.6. The Cognitive Capacity Formulation Hypothesis

The Cognitive Capacity Formulation was proposed by Tobias (1990) as a model to explain the anxiety associated with testing contexts. Since foreign language learning involves test-taking situations and performance evaluation, this formulation also relates to foreign language learning anxiety, which includes test anxiety in its construct.

As in the case of foreign language anxiety, Tobias (1990) mentions that there have been two theories advanced to explain test anxiety: “Interference Model” and “Deficit Model”. The Interference Model hypothesizes that learning has occurred but the evaluative threat posed by the testing situation creates anxiety in the student, which in turn interferes with the student’s ability to recall what was learned. The Deficit Model, on the other hand, assumes that low test scores obtained by anxious students are caused by inadequate study habits and poor test-taking skills rather than interference by anxiety. Tobias (1990) states that the deficit and the interference models have been developed as being “mutually exclusive” (p.7). For instance some research suggested advancing the Deficit Model as an alternative to the Interference Model. Tobias (1990) thinks that it is premature to regard the Deficit and Interference models as alternative explanations, and instead claims that both test anxiety and insufficient study skills contribute to low performance. Therefore, he proposes the Cognitive Capacity Formulation Hypothesis to account for the effects of both interference and deficit phenomena in testing situations.

The Cognitive Capacity Formulation postulates that test anxiety exhausts some of the student’s information-processing capacity, leaving a reduced amount for task solution. This lower capacity lead to less efficient processing of input, resulting in limited output or test performance. This hypothesis also suggests that effective study skills and test-taking strategies reduce the cognitive demands of tests, hence increasing performance. For this reason, Tobias (1990) states that the interference and the deficit models act in a complementary relationship rather than being alternative explanations for test achievement:

The cognitive capacity formulation, then, suggests that test anxiety and both study and test taking skills have inverse, though complementary effects. That is, high test anxiety is expected to increase the demands made on cognitive capacity, whereas effective study or test taking skills are predicted to reduce the capacity demanded by tasks. Therefore, optimal performance can be expected of students with good study or test taking skills and low test anxiety since such students have the greatest proportion of their cognitive capacity available to cope with task demands. Students with high test anxiety and low skills, on the other hand, are in a situation where both the task and test anxiety make maximum demands on available cognitive capacity, leaving less capacity for dealing with the task. Students who are high on one of these variables and low on the other, of course, would be expected to be in an intermediate position (p. 8).

Tobias (1990) points out two advantages of interpreting the deficit and the interference models of test anxiety in terms of cognitive capacity. First, the effects of both models are considered to be complementary rather than “mutually exclusive”. Second, it offers a wide area of investigation for study and test-taking skills and test anxiety phenomena through the aptitude treatment interaction paradigm. For instance, students high in text anxiety but with good study and test-taking skills could only benefit from the treatment of test anxiety reduction. On the other hand, students with inadequate study and test-taking skills and high test anxiety may need a treatment program which will improve their skills and reduce their anxiety at the same time. Tobias thinks that such an approach will be “much more effective than the buckshot approach of assigning students to global test anxiety reduction programs, or attempts to improve their study or test-taking skills” (p.10).

2.4.4. Components of Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest that foreign language anxiety is parallel to performance anxieties because of two reasons: First, language learners are expected to perform in the foreign language, second, their performance is evaluated in the learning context. The three performance anxieties that Horwitz et al. propound that the language

anxiety is comprised of are “communication apprehension”, “fear of negative evaluation”, and “test anxiety”.

“Communication apprehension” arises when learners feel incapable of expressing themselves to other students. This type of anxiety also refers to shyness originating from the fear of interaction with people. In language classes, communication apprehension occurs in speaking activities where students have difficulty in both understanding others and being understood. Learners generally feel anxious while speaking in front of their peers and they fear that they will miss the message when listening to the others (Horwitz et al., 1986).

“Fear of negative evaluation” is defined as “apprehension about others’ evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128). Language learning is not only a process of acquiring grammatical rules and taking part in communicative tasks, but it also is a process where learners constantly find themselves in a vulnerable position in which they are exposed to the evaluations of their teachers and peers (Tsui, 1996). When learners stumble over what they are going to say, they fear that they are not creating a good social impression, thus will be evaluated negatively by others. Therefore, language learning puts a lot of strain on the learner as it involves the sensitive relationship between self-concept and self-expression, which makes it distinct from other types of anxieties (Horwitz et al., 1986).

“Test anxiety” usually occurs when students have poor performance in previous tests. They develop negative and irrational attitudes towards testing situations as a result of their previous testing experiences. These students unconsciously transfer this unpleasant image of their past testing experiences to their present language learning context. Learners who are test-anxious may place unrealistic demands on themselves thinking that it is a failure if they do not achieve a perfect test performance. It is claimed that test anxiety affects learners with low oral proficiency more than those with high oral proficiency. Moreover, it has been found that learners experience more anxiety under official and unfamiliar conditions. The components of foreign language anxiety overlap and are difficult to differentiate in the case of oral tests, which are complicated

since they cause both test anxiety and communication apprehension. Given the fact that even the most intelligent and hard-working students make mistakes, it is inevitable for test-anxious learners to experience stress and anxiety frequently (Chan & Wu, 2004).

It should be noted that by introducing these components of language anxiety Horwitz et al. (1986) do not advocate the anxiety-transfer approach but rather they emphasize the uniqueness perspective, which views language anxiety as distinct from other forms of anxiety:

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 (p.128).

2.4.5. Manifestations of Foreign Language Anxiety

Young (1991) states that recognizing learner manifestations of anxieties associated with speaking, negative evaluation and other anxieties that arise with language learning is the first significant step in dealing with language anxiety. As cited in Young (1991), Rardin states that obvious manifestations of anxiety show themselves in the form of “distortion of sounds, inability to reproduce the intonation and rhythm of the language, ‘freezing up’ when called on to perform, and forgetting words or phrases just learned or simply refusing to speak and remaining silent” (p. 430). Rardin also propounds that resisting learning the language is a sign of anxiety at the subconscious level and further claims that talking and hypothesizing about the language and analyzing it can be manifestations of anxiety. As Young puts it, some other manifestations of language anxiety may include “nervous laughter, avoiding eye contact, joking, short answer responses, avoiding activities in class, coming unprepared to class, acting indifferent, cutting class, putting off taking the foreign language until the last year,

crouching in the last row, and avoiding having to speak in the foreign language in class” (p. 430).

As cited in Nishimata (2008), Leary claims that three categories of behaviour arise from social anxiety, which is also related to language anxiety: “arousal-mediated responses”, “disaffiliative behaviour” and “image-protection behaviour”. Arousal-mediated responses serve no real social function and are manifested by such acts as "squirming in seats, fidgeting, playing with hair, clothes, or other manipulable objects, stuttering and stammering while talking, and appearing jittery and nervous" (p. 12). Disaffiliative behaviour is actions that limit social interaction such as less participation in conversations, fewer initiations of communication, more silent periods in conversations, shorter speaking periods before an audience and unwillingness to break the silence, etc. Image-protection behaviour is responses which may serve to protect the image of a person as friendly, agreeable, polite, interested, and even sociable, without taking any social risks with much use of language. This type of behaviour is characterized by smiling and nodding frequently, rarely interrupting others and giving verbal feedback like “uh-huh”.

According to MacIntyre (1995), anxiety, cognition and behaviour influence each other in a cyclical course:

The relations among anxiety, cognition, and behaviour are best seen as recursive or cyclical, where each influences the other. For example, a demand to answer a question in a second language class may cause a student to become anxious; anxiety leads to worry and rumination. Cognitive performance is diminished because of the divided attention and therefore performance suffers, leading to negative self-evaluations and more self-deprecating cognition which further impairs performance, and so on. For some students, this is a frequent course of events, and anxiety becomes reliably associated with any situation involving the second language. Once established, this association leads students to become anxious at the prospect of second language learning or communication (p. 92).

Horwitz et al. (1986) also suggest some other descriptions of anxiety-related behaviours specific to language learning. They posit that students suffer anxiety when they attempt to use different types of grammatical constructions, avoid trying to convey difficult or personal messages in the second language, skip classes and postpone homework, have difficulty in speaking and freeze up in role-play activities, encounter problems in discriminating the phonemes and the structures of a foreign language message, experience difficulty in understanding the content of the target language messages, forget what they have studied and make careless mistakes in spelling and syntax in testing situations, and overstudy without any improvement in achievement. Horwitz et al. also put forward that giving concrete answers instead of interpretive ones to questions is another manifestation of foreign language anxiety.

To sum up, as suggested by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a), an anxious learner can be described as an individual who sees language learning as an insecure experience, who is unwilling to participate in activities, who feels under pressure not to make errors and who withdraws from trying new linguistic forms.

2.4.6. Foreign Language Anxiety and Other Affective Factors

Affective variables do not function separately from one another and the relationships among them are complicated and difficult to determine. For instance, personality traits introversion and extraversion are associated with anxiety. The notion is that introverts tend to be more anxious than extraverts. Introverts generally prefer individual work, thus they become anxious when put in more communicative settings. Contrary to introverts, extraverts might feel anxious when working individually all the time. Besides, students seeking perfection tend to experience anxiety more than other students. Perfectionist students are not easily satisfied with their achievements and are too concerned about their mistakes, and therefore they feel more anxious than non-perfectionist ones who are happy about their small accomplishments. Students also suffer anxiety when their learning styles conflict with their teachers' teaching styles. For example, the conflict arises when the teachers apply analytic teaching style to global learners or concrete-sequential teaching style to learners with intuitive-random learning style and this conflict causes anxiety in the language classroom. Moreover, language

anxiety is also connected with motivation and emotion. A person protects his/her emotional balance in various ways, one of which is “the defense mechanism”. Anxious learners employ defence mechanisms such as reluctance to participate, avoidance of work, and negative attitude to keep their emotional balance. Learners with high proficiency are found to be emotionally balanced, intrinsically motivated and less anxious (Zheng, 2008).

2.4.7. Sources of Foreign Language Anxiety

Young (1991) categorized six potential sources of language anxiety after a close review of the literature on anxiety in foreign language learning. These are,

- 1) personal and interpersonal anxieties
- 2) learner beliefs about language learning
- 3) instructor beliefs about language teaching
- 4) classroom procedures, and
- 5) language testing (p.427).

Young (1991) states that “low self-esteem” and “competitiveness” are the two important sources of language learning anxiety under the category of personal and interpersonal anxieties. Competitiveness can cause anxiety when learners compare themselves to one another or to an ideal image. Learners’ degree of self-esteem is negatively correlated with their anxiety level. Students with low-self esteem worry about what others think of them and this situation may bring about high levels of anxiety. Young also indicates that learner beliefs about language learning contribute to language anxiety. If students have unrealistic beliefs about language learning, they may experience anxiety during their learning process. For instance, language learners may be overly concerned about the correctness of their utterances, place great emphasis on speaking with an excellent accent, think that language learning is mainly translating from the target language, believe that they must be fluent speakers in two years’ time, and suppose that some others have greater aptitude for language learning than themselves. Young states that as several of these beliefs are unrealistic, they could lead to anxiety. For example, beginner students will end up suffering anxiety if they believe

that pronunciation is the most important aspect of language or the same anxiety arises if they believe they must be fluent in two year's time. According to Young, anxiety materialize when the learner beliefs and the reality of language learning conflict. According to Young, instructors' beliefs about language teaching are another cause of language anxiety:

Instructors who believe their role is to correct students constantly when they make any error, who feel that they cannot have students working in pairs because the class may get out of control, who believe that the teacher should be doing most of the talking and teaching, and who think their role is more like a drill sergeant's than a facilitator's may be contributing to learner language anxiety. The social context that the instructor sets up in the classroom can have tremendous ramifications for the learners (p. 428).

Young (1991) indicates that anxieties related to classroom procedures refer to having to speak in front of other students as research shows that learners report high anxiety during oral presentations and oral examinations. Finally, Young gives "language testing" as the last source of language anxiety. Students experience anxiety when they spend long hours studying the subjects covered in the lesson only to find that the examination tests different types of knowledge or skills. If a teacher mainly gives grammar tests in his/her communicative language teaching classes this might cause anxiety among learners as they are not familiar with this kind of testing instrument. Learners experience more anxiety when the situation is novel, ambiguous, or highly evaluative. In language testing, the greater degree of student evaluation and the unfamiliar and ambiguous test tasks and formats could produce more anxiety in the learner.

Besides Young (1991), Hui (2009) identifies four key sources of language anxiety, which are "over-expectation from parents", "tolerance of ambiguity", "unscientific beliefs about language learning" and "identification and culture shock". Students may experience anxiety due to their families' involvement in their learning process. If children's parents set unrealistic expectations and become highly critical of

them, children are affected by these negative attitudes and as a result feel themselves inadequate in evaluative situations and this feeling of inadequacy in turn leads to anxiety. Tolerance of ambiguity is “the acceptance of confusing situations” (p. 15). Foreign language learning involves much ambiguity regarding meanings, structures and pronunciation. Learners have to deal with unexpected learning situations, new cultural elements and considerable uncertainty. Words and concepts in the first and second languages do not correspond exactly. Learners who cannot tolerate moderate levels of confusion are likely to suffer stress. It is believed that successful language learners are more inclined to tolerate ambiguity than unsuccessful ones. As mentioned above, unrealistic beliefs of both learners and teachers are also a major contributor to language anxiety. Second language learning can be counted as second culture learning. As students learn a foreign language upon their own culture, it is inevitable for them to get involved in identification and culture shock. Identification with a language group relates to being a member of that group speaking the target language, for instance, in the identification process the learner feels himself/herself as a member of the group of English speaking people. It is suggested that anxiety is lower if the learner identifies with the language group and higher if the learner does not feel himself/herself belonging to the target group. Culture shock occurs “as individuals feel the intrusion of more and more cultural differences into their own image of self and security” (p. 19). Anxiety increases if learners resist accepting the new target culture.

In addition to Young (1991) and Hui (2009), Zhang & Zhong (2012) also examine the possible causes of language anxiety by putting them under the categories of learner-induced, classroom-related, skill-specific and society-imposed anxieties. According to Zhang & Zhong, learner-induced anxiety originates from learners’ erroneous beliefs, unrealistic high standards, poor language abilities, self-perceived incompetence, inclined competitive nature, and dispositional fear of negative evaluation. Classroom-related anxiety is connected with instructors, peers and classroom practices. Skill-specific anxiety is related to the anxiety that separate language skills create in the learners. Although research has consistently revealed that speaking is the most anxiety-generating skill in foreign language learning, several studies has shown that listening and reading comprehension, and writing in the target

language may also be anxiety-ridding. Finally, society-imposed anxiety refers to the anxiety caused by the society which stems from identity formation, cultural connotation, and parental intervention. The anxiety caused by identity formation mainly centers on the process called “subtractive bilingualism”, a term referring to the situation in which “members of a minority group learn the dominant language as L2 [second language] and are more likely to experience some loss of ethnic identity and attrition of L1 [first language] skills” (p. 31). People who consider the acquisition of a second language as a threatening process are prone to anxiety. Cultural connotation is about the anxiety cultural differences bring about in language learning. Some learners bring their own cultural habits and values with them into the language classroom, thus codes of behaviour which may be the modest norms of a specific culture such as keeping silent or involuntarily answering questions, can be attributed to the lack of confidence in a language class where students are required to actively participate in learning tasks. Lastly, parental intervention is concerned with the anxiety students feels because of their parents’ great expectations of them to achieve success in foreign language.

Aydın (1999) determines three causes of language anxiety experienced by Turkish learners of English: “personal reasons”, “teacher’s manner in the classroom” and “teaching procedures”. Personal reasons refer to negative self assessment of ability, self comparison to others, high personal expectations and learner beliefs about language learning. Teachers’ approach towards the students in the classroom and their errors and the teaching process can also create anxiety in the language classroom.

2.4.8. Effects of Foreign Language Anxiety

As indicated in Arnold (1999), research on language anxiety mostly indicates a negative correlation between anxiety and performance. Studies show the negative correlation of anxiety with the following factors:

- grades in language courses
- proficiency test performance
- performance in speaking and writing tasks
- self-confidence in language learning
- self-esteem, i.e., the judgment of one’s worth (p. 61).

Language anxiety can affect students' language learning in general and especially their fluency. Anxious learners may have such problems as reduced speech production and difficulty in understanding oral instructions. Anxiety also influences learners' "perceived competence" and this will negatively affect their motivation to communicate in foreign language classrooms (Riasati, 2011).

Contrary to these debilitating effects of anxiety, it is suggested that a certain degree of anxiety is necessary and beneficial for learners to keep them going. As mentioned before, this type of anxiety is generally called "facilitating anxiety". Facilitating anxiety is regarded as motivating learners and making them struggle hard to perform better on tasks. However, scholars disagree as to whether this emotional state is really anxiety, some think that terms such as "attention", "alertness" and "arousal" may be more appropriate to name it. Although some research has found that high anxiety is associated with high test scores, most of the evidence in literature supports its negative effect, particularly in oral production (Andrade & Williams, 2009).

2.4.9. Ways to Identify Language Anxiety

Arnold (1999) states that language anxiety is observable from outside, but what is anxious behaviour in one culture might be regarded as normal in another culture. She summarizes the likely signs of language anxiety as follows:

-General avoidance: "Forgetting" the answer, showing carelessness, cutting class, coming late, arriving unprepared, low levels of verbal production, lack of volunteering in class, seeming inability to answer even the simplest questions.

-Physical actions: Squirming, fidgeting, playing with hair and clothing, nervously touching objects, stuttering or stammering, displaying jittery behaviour, being unable to reproduce the sounds or intonation of the target language even after repeated practice.

-Physical symptoms: Complaining about a headache, experiencing tight muscles, feeling unexplained pain or tension in any part of the body.

-Other signs which might reflect language anxiety, depending on the culture: overstudying, perfectionism, social avoidance, conversational withdrawal, lack of eye contact, hostility, monosyllabic or noncommittal responses, image protection or masking behaviours (exaggerated smiling, laughing, nodding, joking), failing to interrupt when it would be natural to do so, excessive competitiveness, excessive self-effacement and self criticism (“I am so stupid”) (p. 66).

Horwitz et al. (1986) developed “The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)” with the contribution of the experiences of thirty university students learning Spanish at the beginning level. The scale has 33 question items eliciting reactions of anxiety specific to foreign language learning and has yielded strong internal reliability, test-retest reliability and construct validation. It is scored on a five-point likert scale, requiring learners to respond to each item with a single answer, from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. The FLCAS reflect the three components of language anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. For instance, the item in the scale “I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students” is consistent with communication apprehension, the item “I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language” is associated with fear of negative evaluation and the item “The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get” reflects test anxiety.

The FLCAS was first administered to seventy-five university students from introductory Spanish classes. Horwitz et al. state that the responses to the items “I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language” (%34) and “I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes” (%38) supports the idea that language anxiety is not merely a mixture or transfer of other anxieties but a unique type of anxiety by itself particular to foreign language learning.

2.4.10. Reducing Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest that there are two options for teachers when dealing with anxiety: they can help learners cope with their existing source of anxiety or they can make the language classroom more comfortable. Horwitz et al. assert that teachers must first accept the existence of foreign language anxiety before fulfilling either of these options. Most teachers may have seen in their learners negative behaviours such as avoiding engaging in the classroom activities, coming to class unprepared or being indifferent to the lesson. Thus, Horwitz et al. propound that “teachers should always consider the possibility that anxiety is responsible for the student behaviours discussed here before attributing poor student performance solely to lack of ability, inadequate background, or poor motivation” (p. 131).

Ohata (2005) also claims that teachers’ attitudes towards understanding the affective needs of their students can provide a basis for creating a secure non-threatening classroom atmosphere where learning is facilitated. For this, he recommends that teachers should empathize with students by reflecting upon their own experiences as second language learners so that emotional barriers to language learning can be desuggested from the learner’s point of view.

Nagahashi (2007) suggests that cooperative learning strategies can help reduce students’ foreign language anxiety. He states that providing opportunities for students to develop their skills in small supportive groups of peers will be beneficial especially in diminishing communication apprehension. Although it may be difficult for some teachers to integrate cooperative learning techniques into the traditional language classroom, students profit from the available opportunities to actively participate in the learning process. Nagahashi proposes that teachers can make use of cooperative learning strategies to help lower foreign language anxiety and provide more favourable conditions for students to produce language.

Arnold (1999) gives the following suggestions for language teachers to reduce anxiety in their classrooms:

- ✓ Help students understand that language anxiety episodes can be transient and do not inevitably develop into a lasting problem.
- ✓ Boost the self-esteem and self-confidence of students for whom language anxiety has already become a long-term trait by providing multiple opportunities for classroom success in the language.
- ✓ Encourage moderate risk-taking and tolerance of ambiguity in a comfortable, non-threatening environment.
- ✓ Reduce the competition present in the classroom.
- ✓ Be very clear about classroom goals and help students develop strategies to meet those goals.
- ✓ Give students permission to use the language with less than perfect performance.
- ✓ Encourage students to relax through music, laughter or games.
- ✓ Use fair tests with unambiguous, familiar item types.
- ✓ Help students realistically assess their performance.
- ✓ Give rewards that are meaningful to students and that help support language use.
- ✓ Provide activities that address varied learning styles and strategies in the classroom.
- ✓ Enable students to recognize symptoms of anxiety and identify anxiety-maintaining beliefs.
- ✓ Help students practice positive self-talk (self-encouragement) and cognitive “reframing” of negative or irrational ideas (p. 67).

2.5. Foreign Language Anxiety and Four Skills

For more than three decades, a great deal of research has been devoted to examining the relationship between anxiety and foreign language learning. However, early studies on anxiety and foreign language performance produced inconsistent results due to the use of improper anxiety measures such as the scales of test anxiety and general trait anxiety, which do not elicit a person’s reactions to the specific conditions of foreign language learning. For this reason, researchers went about conceptualizing foreign language anxiety as a unique form of anxiety particular to the second language learning context. Several instruments have been adopted to measure this anxiety, the

most widely recognized of which is Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The FLCAS and other second language-specific anxiety scales provided clearer understanding to the role of anxiety in learning a second language. Research using these scales pointed to a consistent negative correlation between language anxiety and learning attitudes, language processing and achievement. However, these foreign language anxiety measures were more concerned with the oral aspects of language learning than with other skills. Some researchers, considering the majority of the speaking-related items in these scales, began to call into question the reliability of these instruments to measure anxiety in language skills besides speaking. Some scholars attempted to distinguish language skill-specific anxiety from general foreign language anxiety, which seems more associated with the speaking component of language. As a result, there arose a new trend of investigation where researchers have focused on examining the relationship between anxiety and specific language skills such as reading, listening and writing (Cheng, 2004).

2.5.1. Writing Anxiety

Both first and second language writers attempt to fulfill writing tasks. They often experience difficulties and get blocked while writing and cannot begin to write or produce ideas. Even when they write they do it uneasily and uncomfortably. This psychological phenomenon has been given different names in literature including writing anxiety, writing block, writing apprehension and writing fear, of which writing anxiety and writing apprehension are the most commonly used (Shawish & Atea, 2010).

Daly & Miller (1975) were the first to enquire into first language writing anxiety, indicating the existence and harmful effects of writing anxiety among students at all levels in The United States. They proposed the term “writing apprehension” to refer to the “dysfunctional anxiety that many individuals suffer when confronted with writing tasks” (Cheng, 2002, p. 647). In the same year, to measure the levels of writing anxiety of students they developed a writing apprehension instrument (Writing Apprehension Test –WAT) in which respondents were supposed to rate 26 attitudinal statements on a Likert-type scale (from 5-strongly agree to 1-strongly disagree).

As cited in Reeves (1997), in a 1981 article, Daly and his colleagues defined the term writing apprehension as “the tendency to experience high degrees of anxiety when asked to write, resulting in an approach-avoidance conflictive state which manifests itself in one’s behaviors, attitudes, and written products” (p. 38). Below are the summary of Daly and his colleagues’ findings regarding students showing high writing apprehension:

Behaviours

1. They tend to select careers which they perceive to require little or no writing.
2. They tend to avoid courses and majors which require writing on a daily basis.
3. They write very little out of class.
4. They lack role models for writing at home, in school, and in the society at large.
5. They score lower on tests of verbal ability (SAT), reading comprehension, and standardized tests of writing ability used for college placement.
6. They do not necessarily lack motivation (p. 38-39).

Attitudes

1. Their self-concept is often lower, and they may lack self-confidence.
2. They report low success in prior experiences with school-related writing.
3. They have received negative teacher responses to prior writing attempts.
4. They are more apprehensive when writing personal narratives in which they must express personal feelings, beliefs, and experiences.
5. They exhibit less apprehension when writing argumentative persuasive essays in which they are told not to inject personal feeling and not to use the first-person point of view (p. 39).

Written Products

1. They have more difficulty with invention — getting ideas of what to write.
2. They produce shorter pieces of writing; i.e., fewer total words per piece.
3. Their ideas are not as well developed.
4. Their writing is judged to be lower quality when holistic scoring is employed, especially males' writing.
5. They score lower on scales of syntactic maturity: T-units are shorter, and there is less right branching (placing of participles to the right of the main clause).
6. They include less information in each clause or T-unit.
7. They have more difficulty with usage and mechanics.
8. They use less variety in sentence patterns (p. 39).

As Cheng (2002) indicates, studies have shown that writing anxiety is a distinct form of anxiety which is specific to written communication. There are two effects of writing anxiety mostly documented in literature, which are “distress associated with writing and a profound distaste for the process” (p. 648). Previous studies suggest that the negative influence of writing apprehension shows itself when the learner writes under time constraint and, as mentioned above, on narrative-descriptive subjects in which students are required to write about their personal feelings, opinions and experiences. A large number of studies have manifested that writing anxiety is negatively correlated with writing processes and with writing achievement on a variety of writing abilities and skills.

Barwick (as cited in Martinez et al., 2011) handles writing anxiety from a psychodynamic perspective and suggests that writing anxiety may stem from students' past experiences and is manifested in the way they “avoid, revise and complete” writing tasks. He classifies learners with anxiety into three categories on the basis of an examination of case studies: nonstarters, noncompleters and nonexhibitors:

Nonstarters avoid anxiety stemming from loss or rejection and demonstrate denial, self-idealization, and criticism. Noncompleters repress their aggressive impulses to avoid feeling loss or rejection. Nonexhibitors repair the pain of loss through intellectualization or obsession in taking apart and re-creating essays (p. 352).

Contrary to the fact that first language writing apprehension has been recognized as a distinct form of anxiety, unique to written communication and a large number of studies have been conducted about it, studies examining the foreign language writing anxiety have been relatively recent and rare (Cheng, 2002 & Rodriguez et al, 2009). Tsui (1996) believes that writing in a foreign language involves as much anxiety as in learning other skills, since writing is mostly product-oriented and requires individual work, students are in need of assistance, support and motivation.

As mentioned in Cheng (2004), Daly-Miller's Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) was commonly used to measure second language writing anxiety. However, its applicability in the domain of foreign language writing has been questioned even though it has satisfactory internal consistency reliability and concurrent and predictive validity as an instrument by itself. The most important criticism is that the WAT was originally developed to measure the writing anxiety of native speakers of English, therefore it might not elicit the essential aspects of foreign language writing anxiety. Furthermore, the content analysis of the WAT by a number of researchers showed that the WAT mingled writing anxiety with writing self-efficacy, which refers to self-confidence or beliefs about one's writing ability. For instance, the WAT used in studies examining the relationship between writing anxiety and self-confidence was reported to have many items associated with self-confidence in writing, which made the results hard to interpret.

In order to improve the assessment of foreign language writing anxiety, Cheng (2004) developed the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) based on students' reports of foreign language writing anxiety experiences and relevant anxiety scales. The SLWAI comprises 22 items and is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "5-strongly agree" to "1-strongly disagree". The SLWAI reflects a three-

dimensional conceptualization of writing anxiety. Its subscales are “somatic anxiety”, which indicates physiological arousal, “avoidance behaviour”, which is related to situations in which students avoid writing in the foreign language and “cognitive anxiety”, which refers to perception of arousal and especially worry and fear of negative evaluation. Psychometric analyses of the SLWAI showed that the total scale and the subscales of the instrument had good internal consistency reliability, test-retest reliability, satisfactory convergent and discriminant validity and criterion-related validity. The SLWAI was also found to be distinct from second language writing self-efficacy through a factor analysis of the SLWAI items with the items of a second language writing self-efficacy scale.

The reasons why learners feel anxious while writing in a foreign language might be related to a variety of factors, but Zhang (2011) draws some general causes from the previous studies on both L2 writing and writing anxiety, ranging from personal reasons such as self-confidence to procedural reasons like classroom activities and teaching methods. First of all, Zhang states that language anxiety components of test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986) apply in second language writing anxiety as well. According to Zhang, fear of failure in tests is the most important and common reason of foreign language writing anxiety since “writing is a productive activity strongly influenced by time pressure” (p. 13). The fear of negative evaluation of writing is not restricted to test-taking situations and can arise in any social and academic situation such as teachers’ negative feedback or error corrections in essays and having to write an article during a job interview. From a linguistic and cognitive perspective Zhang cites “poor skill development, inadequate role models, lack of understanding of the composing process and authoritative, teacher-centered, product-based model of teaching” (p. 13-14) as the possible causes of writing anxiety. Low self-confidence or lack of confidence in foreign language writing can also lead to anxiety. Zhang underlines the fact that even highly skilled learners will suffer anxiety if they believe they will do poorly in writing classes. Other sources of foreign language writing anxiety include time, topic and language ability. Foreign language learners encounter some linguistic difficulties such as insufficient vocabulary and poor grammar while writing in English and this situation causes them to experience anxiety when they

cannot express themselves in proper and accurate language. The level and type of the writing topic can negatively influence learners' writing processes. Learners who possess the relevant topical knowledge are less likely to suffer anxiety than those who do not. Besides these reasons, Zhang emphasizes the types of feedback as being a potential source of writing anxiety. For example, a feedback with positive comments can increase motivation and reduce anxiety while an irrelevant one with severe criticisms is more likely to produce anxiety in the learner.

Leki (as cited in Zhang & Zhong, 2012) also counts the possible sources of foreign language writing anxiety as learners' limited linguistic capability, teachers' inconsistent method of evaluation, and teachers' treatment of writing as a test of grammatical knowledge instead of a communicative means. By the same token, Sawalla, Chow, & Foo (2012) cite various causes of writing anxiety ranging from the individual's ability to write to teacher-based considerations: "Negative comments written by teachers on students' essays, students' low self-confidence, students' being too worried over their ability to write, time constraints, students' not being able to elaborate on their ideas, difficulty in developing arguments, limited range of vocabulary, students' being incapable of displaying the aesthetic quality of their texts, excessive criticism, repeated arbitrary revision of the writer's work by editors and supervisors, the fear of being assessed and judged on the basis of writing tasks, students' lack of necessary preparation and methods to cope with the writing demands of the given task, the kind of writing tasks given, inadequate writing skills, teachers' reactions to mechanical problems, the inclination to link writing with negative outcomes, apprehensive writers' perception that their teachers are keen to punish them, scorn and embarrassment when a writer's work is compared with others publicly, teachers' giving negative feedback with regard to the content of essays, writers' perceiving themselves poorly, inadequate role models especially in a weak class, lack of teacher feedback, teachers' focusing on the theoretical concepts of writing and ignoring its practical aspects" (p. 7-8).

Cheng (2002) suggests that helping students develop positive and realistic perception of their writing competence is crucial in reducing second language writing anxiety. Gkonou (2011) recommends that theme-centered process writing could reduce

writing anxiety by helping learners acquire skills at a natural pace and by developing critical thinking skills and writing strategies to cover the topics that they are already familiar with and like to discuss. Furthermore, Singh & Rajalingam (2012) underline the need for providing more exposure to the target language, the adoption of student-centered problem-based methodology in language teaching, the treatment of writing as process rather than products, and taking more practices in writing activities in diminishing the writing anxiety of EFL learners.

In broader terms, Shawish & Atea (2010) cite from writing literature the following remedies to reduce writing anxiety applicable in both first and second language contexts:

- 1) Students' fear of being negatively evaluated. Here teachers can give students writing assignments that are not graded. Such as journal writing, exploratory writing on a topic, and rough drafts of essay.
- 2) Resorting to peer feedback as a substitute for teacher feedback when it works. This feedback should be given in non-threatening way that is non evaluative context.
- 3) Teaching writing as a process rather than a final product.
- 4) Identifying error patterns students make and helping student-writers correct these errors rather than correcting every single mistake by the teacher is a widely accepted technique overcoming high levels of writing apprehension among students.
- 5) Encouraging students to spend enough time on free writing activities and techniques as these are frequently cited techniques to reduce high writing apprehension levels.
- 6) Teaching reading and writing, concurrently should be used as this has been found to reduce students' writing anxiety since this reduces student errors and provides them with good writing models.
- 7) Writing more because apprehensive writers have generally done very little writing that has been valued as unsatisfactory by prior teachers.
- 8) Discouraging appropriation of voice. Here students are encouraged to write about their experiences and to be more expressive. To take ownership of their writing and to personalize knowledge are needed.

- 9) Listening to fearful writers. Teaching about feelings and past experiences in a small group frequently works well and can serve a prewriting activity which will make writing a less anxiety-provoking activity.
- 10) Contextualization and customization; this means not teaching grammar in isolation; rather, it means teaching it within the context of a whole piece of writing.
- 11) Conferencing during writing stages reported success in reducing writer's block in students as a result of seeing them privately in conferences between drafts, providing them with more opportunities to talk about their anxiety about starting or finishing a particular writing . Other criteria to reduce writer's anxiety are also suggested, such as: collaborating with students for evaluation criteria, coaching peers for effective response, being aware of possible gender differences, varying writing modes, talking about writers you like and sharing writing (p. 3 - 4).

2.5.2. Related Studies on Foreign Language Writing Anxiety in General

Foreign language writing anxiety has been recognized as an important issue to be addressed in foreign language learning since language skill-specific anxieties came into focus, and a number of studies have been conducted to look into the levels and the causes of writing anxiety and to understand its effects on learners of English.

Masny & Foxall (1992) studied the links between writing anxiety, preferred writing processes, and academic achievement among 28 adult English as a second language (ESL) students. There were two groups of participants. One group consisted of students with a variety of language background taking a intensive intermediate ESL course, the other was formed by francophone Canadians in an evening intermediate ESL writing class. The participants were assessed and categorized as high and low achievers in their writing classes. On the basis of the scores of a writing apprehension test, the students were also classified as having high and low writing anxiety. The findings indicated that writing achievement was negatively correlated with writing anxiety, meaning that high achievers had low apprehension and vice versa. The results also showed that (1) high and low achievers were more concerned about form than content; (2) low achievers were more concerned about form than high achievers were; (3) high

and low anxious writers were more concerned about form than content; and (4) low anxious students were more concerned about form than high apprehensive students were. Moreover, high anxious students were found to be unwilling to take more writing classes. Students who were highly concerned about form appeared to see the necessity to write, and females were found to be more anxious than males.

Aydın (1999) looked into the foreign language anxiety that Turkish EFL students experienced in the productive skills of speaking and writing. The participants were 36 intermediate level language learners. The FLCAS was used to ascertain the range and degree of foreign language anxiety. All of the subjects were told to keep personal diaries about their speaking and writing classes for a month. Randomly selected 12 learners were interviewed to support the data from the diaries. Analysis of the student diaries and interviews revealed three primary sources of language anxiety in both skills. The students stated that their anxiety in speaking and writing classes stemmed from personal reasons, the teachers' manner and the teaching procedures. Personal reasons included negative self-assessment of ability, self comparison to other students, high personal expectations and learners' irrational beliefs about language learning. The teachers' manners towards learners and towards their errors was another source of foreign language anxiety. Lastly, while speaking in front of the classroom, making oral presentations, studying individually were the teaching procedures that created anxiety in speaking classes, writing in the paragraph form constituted the source of anxiety in writing class procedures.

Cheng (1999) examined the links between second language classroom anxiety or general foreign language anxiety and second language writing anxiety along with their associations with second language speaking and writing achievement. The participants were 433 English majors at four universities in Taiwan who were taking English speaking and English writing classes simultaneously. The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire which included the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), the second language version of the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test (SLWAT) and a background questionnaire. The background questionnaire was prepared to elicit both demographic data about the participants and information as to their language learning experiences such as self-perceived proficiency in English speaking

and writing. The students' final course grades in their English speaking and writing classes were used as achievement measurements. The analyses of the interconstruct associations between the FLCAS and the SLWAT, and the internal relationships among the entire pool of items from both scales indicated that second language classroom anxiety and second language writing anxiety were two related but independent constructs. The findings suggested that while second language classroom anxiety was a general type of anxiety about learning a foreign language with a strong emphasis on the anxiety related to the speaking skill, second language writing anxiety was a language skill-specific anxiety. As regards achievement, it was found that the second language classroom anxiety (FLCAS) and the second language writing anxiety (SLWAT) were significantly and negatively correlated with both English speaking and writing achievement. However, the FLCAS variables were found to have stronger associations with speaking performance than with writing performance. Likewise, the SLWAT variables were more related to second language writing performance than to second language speaking performance. This study, overall, suggested that second language writing anxiety was a language skill-specific anxiety because it had a higher correlation with writing achievement and also had significant ability to predict writing performance.

Cheng (2002) investigated the relationships among students' perceptions of their second language writing anxiety and learner differences and between second language writing anxiety and native language writing anxiety. 165 English majors at a university in northern Taiwan participated in this study. The participants were administered four instruments written in Chinese, including the SLWAT (Daly-Miller's Writing Apprehension Test adapted for second language), the FLCAS, two researcher-designed first language anxiety scales, and a background questionnaire was designed to elicit information about learner differences such as age, gender, grade level, amount of extracurricular contact with English, motivation and perceptions about English writing. The results indicated that perceived L2 writing competence predicted L2 writing anxiety better than L2 writing achievement did, and that L2 writing anxiety was distinct from L1 writing anxiety. Also, it was found that female students experienced higher levels of L2 writing anxiety than their male counterparts. According to this study, Cheng

suggests that for English teachers, enhancing students' positive and realistic perceptions of their writing competence is important in reducing their levels of writing anxiety.

Daud, Daud, & Kassim (2005) researched whether anxiety is the cause or the effect of poor writing performance using the Deficit Model Hypothesis as their guiding principle. The Deficit Model Hypothesis postulates that a person's failure to perform well is due to his/her inadequately developed skill. The subjects of the study were 186 third-year students taking accountancy and business courses at university. As instruments Daly-Miller's Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) and the results of two language examinations were used. The study adopted a correlational research design since it aimed to look into the relationship between writing anxiety and writing performance and used the results of the observed relationship to predict the correlation between the two. The results of the study supported the Deficit Hypothesis showing that the subjects suffered anxiety as a result of their poor writing skills and further indicated that successful students experienced less anxiety than unsuccessful ones.

Lin & Ho (2009) carried out a qualitative study to explore the reasons why university students in Taiwan feel anxious while writing in English. 16 junior students from the department of foreign languages and literature taking advanced writing courses participated in this study. Each of them was interviewed face-to-face for twenty minutes after two months of the writing course. Five major reasons were revealed from the findings of the students' qualitative statements, which were the issues of time restriction, teacher's evaluation, peer competition, writing subjects and required writing format.

Armendaris (2009) did a research on the writing anxiety among English as a second language (ESL) students enrolled in academic English writing classes. This study sought to answer three research questions. What stresses, if any, do ESL students experience in learning academic English writing? Which approaches to teaching academic writing facilitate and which impede success? What role, if any, does interaction with native English speakers have in the improvement of academic writing? This study explored these research questions in the context of a variety of cultural experiences and levels of language achievement that learners bring with them to their

college English writing courses. Out of 21 participants 17 came from different countries and spoke 12 different languages. Interviews with the participants revealed several levels of language proficiency and a diversity of individual needs, which indicated that solutions to their writing problems would be individual. Findings showed that all of the participants had certain degrees of writing anxiety. Most of them stated that they were determined to succeed despite their anxiety. It was also found that the interaction with native speakers had no significant effect in improving students' academic writing. However, it was discovered that the teaching methods which made the students aware of their writing anxiety actually diminished that anxiety, collaborative learning lessened anxiety and self-doubt while raising students' expectations for academic achievement, and assignments which utilized students' knowledge and creativity bettered their articulation skills.

Shawish & Atea's (2010) both quantitative and qualitative work attempted to determine why Palestinian university students majoring in English suffered anxiety when they were asked to write. In order to identify the crucial factors of writing anxiety and to offer appropriate solutions for it, the researchers designed two questionnaires following the taxonomy of the Likert scale which graded the respondents' opinions from "1-strongly agree" to "5-strongly disagree": The first instrument titled "Causes of Writing Apprehension" consisted of 32 items divided into six domains, which were affective factors, cognitive factors, linguistic factors, teaching practices, feedback and students' behaviours, and the second questionnaire was titled "Minimizing Writing Apprehension", which included 24 items covering the same six domains. Both questionnaires also included one open-ended question asking students to add any causes or solutions they thought were significant. Each questionnaire had five major variables, including student sex, academic level, university, overall grade in writing and computer skills. The instruments were administered to a total of 265 students from three different universities. The findings indicated that students' sex and academic level were not important determinants of students' estimates of the causes of writing anxiety. Students' belonging to different universities affected their estimates of the causes and solutions of writing anxiety. It was found that highly skilled students were more anxious than low writing achievers, but there was no distinction in their estimates of writing anxiety

remedies. Moreover, students' using computer did not affect their estimates of the causes or the solutions of writing anxiety.

Takahashi (2010) explored the writing anxiety among 139 Japanese EFL learners enrolled in an English course at a private university in Japan, all of whom were freshmen majoring in science. As variables, the relation of foreign language writing anxiety to motivation, self-perceived target language ability, and actual language ability was investigated. Three instruments were administered to the participants. The Second Language Writing Apprehension Test (SLWAT), which was a modified version of Daly & Miller's (1975) Writing Apprehension Test for using it in college English learning situations, was given to the participants to measure their writing anxiety levels, The Strength of Motivation Scale (Ely, 1986) was used to measure the motivational strength among the participants in relation to foreign language learning, and the Can-do Scale (Kitano, 2001) was introduced to the students to measure their self-perceived English language ability. In order to determine the English proficiency of the students, a "C-Test", which consisted of five short passages chosen from three different textbooks was applied, and the students' scores from the final examination were used as a class performance measure. The results indicated that students who had higher levels of writing anxiety showed weaker motivation towards learning the language, a negative correlation existed between foreign language writing anxiety and self-perceived English ability, and writing anxiety was negatively associated with both language proficiency and class performance.

Huwari & Aziz (2011) investigated the writing anxiety among Jordanian post-graduate students studying at University Utara Malaysia (UUM). Their research problem was that Jordanian students lacked the English writing skill as they did very little writing at school or university level. The study aimed to find out the levels of English writing anxiety among Jordanian post-graduate students, the relationship between age, socio-economic status and writing anxiety, and the writing situation which made the students anxious most while writing in English, such as writing a thesis, writing assignments, or writing journals. The instrument used in this study was Daly-Miller's Writing Apprehension Test (WAT), which was administered to 103 Jordanian post-graduate students at UUM. The results showed that the majority of the Jordanian

post-graduate students experienced high levels of writing anxiety, and that there was a significant association between age, socio-economic status and writing anxiety. Also, most of the students expressed that they felt more anxious while writing a thesis than they did while writing assignments or journals.

Dedeyn (2011) conducted a correlational study on the student identity, writing anxiety and writing performance. It attempted to find out whether there was a relationship between student identity, writing anxiety and writing performance, and what the nature of this relationship was if it existed. This study defined student identity in terms of student integration into the culture of an American university. Thus, the participants were 33 international undergraduate students of advanced English, who were enrolled in an introductory university writing course. The identity construct was measured through participants' reflections about their educational experiences in their own country and in the USA. Writing anxiety was measured with the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) and writing achievement was determined by the grades the participants got from their papers in their writing class. The results indicated inverse relationships between student cultural integration and writing performance and between student cultural integration and writing anxiety.

Gkonou (2011) researched the nature of writing anxiety, and the relationship between the English language classroom speaking anxiety and writing anxiety of 128 Greek EFL learners in private language school settings. Three research questions were addressed in this study, which were whether Greek EFL learners' speaking anxiety was part of classroom anxiety, which factors influenced Greek EFL learners' writing anxiety, and to what extent Greek EFL learners' writing anxiety was related to classroom anxiety. The instruments used were the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to operationalize speaking anxiety and the ESL version of the Daly-Miller's Writing Apprehension Test (ESLWAT) to measure the foreign language writing anxiety of the students. Interconstruct and intraconstruct associations between the two instruments were examined through principal components analysis with varimax rotation and correlations check. The results showed that most of the FLCAS items shared a feeling of speaking anxiety caused by low perceived self-efficacy and fear of negative evaluation by the peers, evincing that anxiety about speaking in English

constituted an integral component of foreign language classroom anxiety, in other words, the English language classroom context was a source of speaking anxiety. Writing anxiety was found to be associated with attitudes towards writing in English followed by a self-derogation dimension of writing, and fear of negative evaluation either by the teachers or the peers in the classroom. Pearson correlations computed between the FLCAS and the ESLWAT revealed a significant moderate correlation between the two scales, indicating that the foreign language anxiety and the writing anxiety were two related but distinguishable phenomena. Based on the findings, in order to reduce writing anxiety, a reevaluation of the role that writing anxiety plays in learners' writing achievement and the application of teaching techniques that promote topic-centered process writing were suggested.

Erkan & Saban's (2011) correlational study aimed to identify the relation of writing performance to writing anxiety, self-efficacy in writing, and attitudes towards writing. The participants were 188 tertiary level EFL students studying at the school of foreign languages of a state university in Turkey. Three instruments were used to gather data: Daly-Miller's Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) to assess students anxiety about writing in English, Self- Efficacy In Writing Scale (SWS) to measure the students' self-efficacy in L2 writing, and Attitude-Towards-Writing Questionnaire (WAQ) to examine the link between attitudes towards writing and writing performance. These three instruments were administered to the participants in a two-hour period on the same day. After the completion of the questionnaires, the students were requested to write a composition on a given topic in 45 minutes. The students' compositions were graded and these marks were used as indicators of writing performance. The data was analyzed by the use of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient method. The results of the study indicated that the writing performance of these tertiary level EFL students was negatively correlated with writing anxiety, writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety were also negatively correlated, and a positive relationship existed between writing anxiety and writing attitude.

Singh & Rajalingam (2012) looked into the levels of writing anxiety among 320 Malaysian pre-university students and investigated how writing anxiety level and writing self-efficacy beliefs influenced writing proficiency level. The participants were

administered three instruments, they were given an adapted Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test (EWAS) to measure their writing anxiety levels, an adapted Shell Writing Self-Efficacy Test (SWST) to measure their writing self-efficacy, and the Malaysian University English Test (MUET) to measure their English language proficiency. The findings revealed that there were average levels of writing anxiety among the participants. A significant moderate inverse relationship between writing anxiety and self-efficacy beliefs was established, meaning that the higher the level of writing anxiety, the lower the self-efficacy beliefs would be. Also, a positive correlation between writing anxiety and writing proficiency was found, indicating that the higher the anxiety level the better the students' performance. Moreover, nine participants were selected to reflect upon their writing anxiety, and based on the findings, the researchers presented some recommendations to overcome this problem such as providing more opportunities for exposure to the English language, the adoption of learner-centered problem-based approaches in teaching English, teaching writing as a process rather than a product, and having more practices in writing activities.

Sawalla, Chow, & Foo (2012) investigated the effects of writing anxiety on the writing process of Jordanian EFL students at Yarmouk University in Jordan. The subjects were sixty juniors studying English Language and Literature at Yarmouk University in Jordan. The instruments used in this study were Adapted Daly-Miller's Writing Apprehension Test (WAT) to measure the writing anxiety levels of the subjects, and a writing strategy questionnaire which examined the writing process, namely pre-writing, while-writing and revising stages of writing. The participants were separated into three groups according to their levels of writing anxiety, which were high, middle and low. The results showed that the majority of the students experienced high levels of writing anxiety. What's more, there were significant differences among high, mid, and low-anxious students in the frequency use across the three writing stages, which suggested that writing anxiety affected the type and the frequency of strategy use. Overall, this study indicated that students with different levels of writing anxiety studying English Language and Literature at Yarmouk University in Jordan had a predisposition towards different types and frequency of strategy use.

2.5.3. Related Studies on the Foreign Language Writing Anxiety of Prospective Teachers of English

Research on writing anxiety has been mostly limited to the school context, studies on the effects of writing anxiety on writing performance and on perceptions about writing have been chiefly associated with student populations. However, research has also shown the role teachers play in instilling in students the notions and attitudes about writing. A number of studies conducted in L1 settings have demonstrated that there is a negative correlation between teachers' writing anxiety and their techniques of teaching writing. For instance, it has been found that teachers with high writing anxiety were found to be more rigid than low anxious ones about style and self-expression (Atay & Kurt, 2006). Besides the work on teachers' writing anxiety in the first language, there have been some studies concerned with prospective teachers' writing anxiety in the EFL context as their anxiety will also have implications for their future practices of teaching English.

Atay & Kurt (2006) explored the EFL writing anxiety of 85 prospective teachers of English who were all fourth year students and native speakers of Turkish. Data collection was carried out through the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) developed by Cheng (2004) and an open-ended questionnaire which asked the participants to 1) describe the difficulties they experienced while writing in English, 2) specify the situations and people associated with their writing anxiety, 3) point out the psychological and physiological reactions that arose with their writing anxiety, 4) explain if they shared their writing anxiety with anyone, and 5) explain the effects of their writing experiences on their future teaching careers. The results of the SLWAI manifested that more than half of the participants had high or average writing anxiety. The students' answers to the open-ended questionnaire revealed that those with high or average writing anxiety had difficulties in organizing their thoughts and producing ideas while writing in English. They indicated university instructors and their past L2 writing experiences as the major factors causing their writing anxiety. The majority of the participants pinpointed that they felt nervous while writing in English and cited fear of getting low marks and inability to concentrate as the two major reasons. Perspiring, blushing, trembling, foot tapping, rapid heart rate, stomachache and headache were the

main physical symptoms of both high and moderate anxious students. Students with high anxiety indicated that they felt relieved when they shared their anxiety with their friends. Finally, the participants' answers showed that their EFL writing experiences might affect their future teaching practices.

Latif (2007) conducted a study to investigate the factors accounting for the Egyptian EFL University students' negative writing affect, i.e. their high English writing anxiety and low English writing self-efficacy, which refer to the beliefs the individual holds about his/her writing capabilities. The participants were 67 fourth year students from the English department at the faculty of education. They were administered two instruments measuring their writing anxiety and writing self-efficacy which were adapted from various scales by the researcher. The students with high writing anxiety and low self-efficacy were interviewed about their writing experience and background. The results of the study showed that there were six causes of the participants' high English writing anxiety and four causes of their low English writing self-efficacy. According to the study, the factors accounting for both high English writing anxiety and low English writing self-efficacy included lack of linguistic knowledge, low foreign language competence, self-esteem, poor history of writing achievement and perceived writing performance improvement, the factors accounting for high English writing anxiety only were low English writing self-efficacy, instructional practices of English writing and fear of criticism, and the factor accounting only for the low English writing self-efficacy was others' evaluation of the student's writing.

Öztürk & Çeçen's (2007) action research investigated the effects of portfolio keeping on the writing anxiety of fifteen Turkish prospective EFL teachers who were in their preparatory year at university. Data were gathered by means of the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI), a background questionnaire, and two reflective sessions. The SLWAI measured the students' level of writing anxiety, the background questionnaire comprised four open-ended questions asking about the participants' previous experiences and their knowledge on the use of portfolio, and the two reflective sessions were held to get students' feedback on the effectiveness of portfolio keeping and its effects on their writing anxiety after the portfolio process. The

sessions were carried out in Turkish to prevent any misunderstanding and language blockage and were audiotaped and transcribed. The results of the SLWAI revealed that the majority of the participants had high or average writing anxiety. The background questionnaire indicated that none of the students had ever had experience with a portfolio task previously. The sessions conducted with the participants showed that portfolio keeping is beneficial to overcome writing anxiety and the involvement in a portfolio task might influence prospective teachers' future teaching practices positively.

Kurt & Atay (2007) aimed to find out the effects of peer feedback on the writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English in the Turkish EFL context. A total of 86 prospective teachers participated in this study. The study lasted for eight weeks and included an experimental group who received peer feedback and a control group who had only teacher feedback. The experimental group were asked to work in pairs in the writing class, give feedback on each other's compositions and discuss their feedback before submitting their essays to the teacher. The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) was given to both the experimental and the control groups at the beginning and the end of the study, also 20 participants from the experimental group were interviewed at the end of the term. The results of the SLWAI showed that at the end of the study the experimental group, who received peer-feedback, experienced much less writing anxiety than the teacher-feedback group. The interview results indicated that the participants became more aware of their mistakes through the feedback of their friends and this cooperation helped them to regard writing tasks from a different perspective.

Rodriguez et al. (2009) examined the existence of foreign language writing anxiety among pre-service EFL teachers. A total of 120 prospective teachers from two Venezuelan universities participated in this study. The instruments used were a background questionnaire which asked information about students' age, gender, institution and course level, The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI), and The Native Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (NLWAI), which was a version of the SLWAI and which was developed by the researchers to assess the anxiety that arose when writing in the first language. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient method among the three

types of language anxiety proved the existence of foreign language writing anxiety related to but distinct from general foreign language anxiety and native language writing anxiety. Furthermore, separate analyses of variance (ANOVA) of gender and institution revealed that while gender had a significant effect on general foreign language anxiety and foreign language writing anxiety (female students experienced higher levels of general foreign language anxiety and foreign language writing anxiety than male students did), university had a statistically remarkable effect on all three types of anxieties.

Idris' (2009) quantitative and qualitative study analyzed the levels of writing anxiety among 82 PRE-TESL students in a faculty of education in Malaysia and explored what strategies they used to overcome such anxiety. The scales used were The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) and an open-ended questionnaire. The findings showed that most students had high foreign language writing anxiety, they were not afraid to write in English but worried if their compositions were evaluated and when writing under limited time. They noted that they tried to overcome their writing anxiety by reading more, relaxing, editing, consulting their lecturers, doing mind mapping, and preparing notes before writing.

Zhang (2011) looked into the levels of ESL writing anxiety experienced by Chinese English majors and examined the effects of ESL writing anxiety on writing achievement along with students' perceptions of primary causes of writing anxiety and their learning style preferences in ESL writing class to provide beneficial learning and teaching strategies for decreasing English writing anxiety. The study adopted a quantitative research design and used three instruments for data collection, which were the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) developed by Cheng (2004) to measure the anxiety levels of the students, The Questionnaire of Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety Among Chinese English Majors prepared by the researcher by referring to her teaching practices and the literature on writing anxiety, which consisted of 8 items dealing with the issues of lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties, fear of negative evaluation, low self-confidence, insufficient writing practice, insufficient writing techniques, lack of effective feedback and fear of tests, and Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire, which was designed on the basis of

Reid's Self-Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (1987). Two groups of ESL students participated in this study: 49 freshmen and 47 sophomores. The results showed that there was a high level of ESL writing anxiety among Chinese majors and the cognitive anxiety was the commonest type of writing anxiety. The sophomores were found to experience more writing anxiety the freshmen did. Course grades and timed writing grades suggested a negative correlation between ESL writing anxiety and writing performance. Linguistic difficulties, insufficient writing practice, fear of tests, lack of topical knowledge and low self-confidence were revealed to be the main sources of writing anxiety among Chinese English majors. Based on these findings and the students' learning style preferences in English writing class, the researcher provided some suggested strategies on learning and teaching for reducing ESL writing anxiety such as memorization, imitation, guided practice, peer and self-evaluation, providing a learner-centered and less threatening classroom atmosphere, process-oriented teaching approaches, and devising instruction types and writing tasks which take students' learning style preferences into account.

As an affective factor, anxiety has a debilitating effect on the language learning process. It reduces the cognitive capacity of learners by dividing their attention on the task at hand. Therefore, several theories have been developed and many studies have been carried out to shed light on this negative affect in foreign language learning. The literature on anxiety in language learning has been mostly concerned with the general foreign language learning anxiety or the anxiety related to the speaking skill. However, in recent years, it has been acknowledged that the separate language skills of listening, reading and writing also create anxiety in the learner. In the English Language Teaching (ELT) literature, writing anxiety has been recognized as a language-skill specific anxiety, and it has begun to receive considerable attention in language teaching academy. As outlined above, studies have been conducted to explore the nature of foreign language writing anxiety, the sources of this anxiety and its association with other factors such as academic achievement, attitudes and self-perceived language ability, etc. Research has been dedicated to investigating the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective English teachers as well as language learners in general. However, studies on the writing anxiety of prospective teachers are very limited

compared to those on EFL learners. Furthermore, all the studies in the literature of L2 writing anxiety have examined this issue from only learners' perspectives. However, as Ohata (2005) remarks, language anxiety cannot be defined in a linear manner since it is a complex psychological phenomenon influenced by various factors, therefore, it should be investigated from different perspectives or approaches. Young (1991) states that as well as personal issues and learner beliefs about language learning instructor beliefs about language teaching and instructor-learner interactions have the potential to create anxiety in the language learner. Aydın (1999) also suggests that examining the anxiety problem from the perspectives of both students and teachers might be effective in solving the problems in language classrooms.

Hence, the present study has been designed to address the subject of foreign language writing anxiety among prospective English teachers to contribute to the emerging literature on the L2 writing anxiety of pre-service EFL teachers. Moreover, this study not only explores this issue from the perspectives of learners, prospective teachers in this case, but it also delves into the thoughts of teachers, namely the English Language Teaching (ELT) instructors, to better understand the anxiety associated with the writing skills of prospective English teachers and to suggest remedial learning and teaching strategies to deal with this problem.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The present study aims to explore the L2 writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English from the perspectives of both prospective teachers themselves and instructors working at the English Language Teaching (ELT) departments of universities. The study also looks into the correlation between L2 writing anxiety and the general foreign language anxiety to understand the nature of foreign language writing anxiety, in other words, it attempts to determine to what degree this skill-specific anxiety takes its source from the general foreign language anxiety. For these purposes, quantitative instruments were used to gather data on the levels of foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety along with its causes, and with the help of qualitative instruments sources of L2 writing anxiety that quantitative instruments did not predict and remedial suggestions to reduce this anxiety were elicited.

This chapter gives information as to the research design applied, the instruments used, data collection and data analysis procedures adopted in this study. Along with the description of methodology, some background information about the participants and the context of the study is also provided.

3.2. Research Design

This study employed a cross-sectional survey research design. It elicited both quantitative and qualitative data from the respondents. Quantitative instruments were used to provide numerical values about the responses given, i.e. students' levels of foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety, and causes of writing anxiety.

Qualitative instruments were used to support the data from the quantitative measures and also to free the respondents of the constraints of the ready-made questionnaires by allowing them to go into in-depth details about their reactions and opinions. Together with the quantitative scales, qualitative measures, the open-ended questionnaires in this case, were considered to be appropriate for this study because, as

Hatch (2002) suggests, a qualitative approach seeks to understand the research problem from the perspectives of the participants themselves by bringing out their subjective judgments:

Qualitative research seeks to understand the world from the perspectives of those living in it. It is axiomatic in this view that individuals act on the world based not on some supposed objective reality but on their perceptions of the realities that surround them. Qualitative studies try to capture the perspectives that actors use as a basis for their actions in specific social settings..... The perspectives or voices of participants ought to be prominent in any qualitative report (p. 7).

Qualitative research is as interested in inner states as outer expressions of human activity. Because these inner states are not directly observable, qualitative researchers must rely on subjective judgments to bring them to light (p. 9).

Furthermore, Marshall & Rossman (2010) point out that qualitative methods enable the respondents to mention topics and issues which the evaluator did not take into account and might be significant for the study. These measures allow the respondents to express their feelings and perspectives in their own words.

3.3. Context and Participants

The present study intends to analyze the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English. Since the concern of the study is pre-service EFL teachers the study has been conducted among the students of an English Language Teaching (ELT) program at a university in Turkey. A total of 170 ELT students including freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors have participated in this study. The subjects were comprised of 64 male and 106 female students and their ages showed variation between 18 and 26. The native language of all the participants was Turkish and they all had learned English as a foreign language.

The ELT curriculum comprises both English and Turkish courses, but English courses are in the majority. ELT students receive advanced reading and writing courses in the first year of their study together with speaking, phonetics and grammar classes. In later years of their study they continue to receive content-based instruction where the material is delivered in the target language such as English literature, linguistics, language testing, etc.

Since the ELT education integrates the content and the foreign language, the evaluation measures both the students' language ability and their subject knowledge. For instance, in a literature examination if the student does not know the historical background of a poem, he/she will be unable to write anything no matter how advanced his/her English is. Otherwise, if the student knows the related historical background but lacks the language proficiency to write it down in a coherent way in English, he/she will end up being unable to express himself/herself adequately. As ELT departments adopt content-based instruction, courses require students to carry out written assignments and take examinations in English.

This study also looked into the foreign language anxiety of ELT students from the perspectives of instructors teaching at ELT departments. Therefore, ELT instructors constituted the other group of participants for this research. Their opinions concerning the causes of L2 writing anxiety of pre-service English teachers and how to reduce this anxiety were asked via open-ended questionnaires. The questionnaires were given to as many instructors as could be contacted via e-mail with a cover letter explaining the purpose and the methodology of the study. However, only thirty-two of the instructors responded to the mail and participated.

Table- 1: Demographic information about the participants

Participants	Number	Gender	Age	Native language	Second language	Data obtained
First group: Prospective EFL teachers	170	64 male / 106 female	18-26	Turkish	English	-levels of foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety -causes of L2 writing anxiety
Second group: ELT instructors	32	11 male / 21 female	25-65	Turkish	English	-causes of L2 writing anxiety -suggestions to cope with writing anxiety

3.4. Instruments

This study made use of the following instruments:

Quantitative instruments:

- The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)
- The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI)
- The Questionnaire of the Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA)

Qualitative instruments:

- One open-ended question at the end of the QCEWA to elicit the causes of writing anxiety that the QCEWA did not predict
- A three-item open-ended questionnaire for ELT instructors asking them to express their opinions on the causes of writing anxiety among prospective EFL teachers and to provide coping strategies for reducing this anxiety.

3.4.1. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

In order to measure the general foreign language anxiety of the participants, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was used in the study. The FLCAS was developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) to provide researchers with a standard tool to assess the degree of anxiety experienced in a foreign language classroom setting. The FLCAS has 33 items which are reflective of communication apprehension, test-anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. For instance, the item in the scale “ I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class” refers to communication apprehension, the item “ I keep thinking that other students are better at languages than I am” is related to fear of negative evaluation and the item “ I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class” is consistent with test anxiety. The instrument is scored on a five-point Likert scale requiring the participants to respond to each statement with a single answer from strongly agree (5 points) to strongly disagree (1 point). In Horwitz et al.’s study with 75 university students from four introductory Spanish classes the FLCAS demonstrated internal reliability with an alpha coefficient of .93, and the test-retest reliability was .83 ($p < .001$). Moreover, Vancı-Osam (1996) found a strong reliability of the FLCAS among 105 highly anxious EFL learners at Middle East Technical University (METU), the internal consistency resulting from a t-test for 2-tailed significance was $p = .002$.

One important aspect of the FLCAS is that it is independent of the target language. In other words, the FLCAS is stable and can be used to measure levels of foreign language anxiety no matter what the target language is (Rodriguez & Abreu, as cited in Gönen, 2005). Because of its strong reliability the FLCAS has been applied to many different subject groups by many different researchers (Wang, 1998; Aydın, 1999; Bekleyen, 2004; Feigenbaum, 2004; Chan & Wu, 2004; Gönen, 2005; Sertçetin, 2006; Katalin, 2006; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2006; Wilson, 2006; Kılıç, 2007; Toth, 2007; Huang, 2009; Subaşı, 2010; Lan, 2010; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Kao & Craigie, 2010).

This study utilized a modified version of the FLCAS by Aydın (1999). Aydın used the FLCAS in her study with 36 intermediate language learners to determine their range and degree of foreign language anxiety. To prevent any language blockage or

misunderstanding a translated version of the FLCAS was administered to the participants. The FLCAS was translated into Turkish by using the back-translation technique with the help of two American bilingual teachers in Turkish and English. It was first translated into Turkish then was given to the bilingual teachers and translated back into English. Then both translations were compared with the original English version. To reduce the probability of any mistake coming about, the original and the translated versions of the FLCAS were translated into Turkish again and checked by the bilingual teachers. The translated version of the instrument was piloted among 72 third year ELT students at the faculty of education of Anadolu University.

For her study Aydın omitted the item “I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes” from the questionnaire because the participants were intermediate language learners who received no classes other than language classes, therefore that item was not appropriate for their learning situation. This is also true for this study since the participants, pre-service EFL teachers, did not take any separate English courses along with other compulsory courses, rather, most of their classes were content-based where the material was delivered to them in English. They used English as the medium of communication in their classes.

In the Turkish version of the FLCAS, the negative items were made positive to prevent any confusion from arising during the administration and the analysis of the questionnaire. As Aydın stated “for practical reasons for the subjects completing the questionnaire, and for the analysis, the wordings of all items in FLCAS were changed” (p. 55). Gönen (2005) also points out that items in a scale must withdraw from double negatives in order for participants to be at ease responding to the items.

In the translated version of the FLCAS, the answer “strongly agree” determines high anxiety for all the items in the questionnaire except for the 5th one. For instance while the answer “strongly agree” shows high anxiety for the 12th item “In English classes, I get so nervous I forget things I know”, the answer “strongly disagree” shows high anxiety for the 5th item “It would not bother me at all to take more English classes”. The internal consistency of this modified Turkish version of the FLCAS is 91. (see **Appendix-A3**).

3.4.2. The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI)

The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) was developed by Cheng (2004) to measure the levels of anxiety experienced while writing in English as a second or a foreign language. Prepared in English, this scale consists of 22 items scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree (5 points)” to “strongly disagree (1 point)”. Seven of the items (1,4,7,17,18, 21, 22) are negatively worded and require reverse scoring so that a higher score obtained indicates a higher level of writing anxiety. Thus, in this study the negatively worded items were given opposite scores, for instance if students strongly agreed with the item “I never feel anxious while I am writing in English”, their answer was switched to “strongly disagree” and was given one point instead of five. The SLWAI is a three-dimensional anxiety scale and integrates cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and avoidance behavior. “Cognitive anxiety” refers to the mental perception of the anxiety experience such as “negative expectations, preoccupation with performance and concern about others’ perceptions” (p. 326), “somatic anxiety” is associated with physiological aspects of the anxiety experience such as rapid heart rate, trembling or perspiring, and lastly “avoidance behaviour” is about the situations where one tries to steer clear of writing in the target language. For instance, the 14th item in the scale “I am afraid that the other students would deride my English compositions if they it” refers to cognitive anxiety since it is related to the feelings of worry and fear of negative evaluation, the 19th item “I usually feel my whole body rigid and tense when I write English compositions” is consistent with somatic anxiety and the 10th item “ I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English” is about avoidance behaviour. In this way, the 22 items of the SLWAI can be divided into three subscales of writing anxiety: Cognitive Anxiety (1,3,7,9,14,17,20,21), Somatic Anxiety (2,6,8,11,13,15,19) and Avoidance Behaviour (4,5,10,12,16,18,22) (see **Appendix-B1**).

Both the total scale and the subscales of the SLWAI manifest strong validity and reliability with an internal consistency estimate of .91 Cronbach’s coefficient and a temporal stability of .85 test-retest reliability (Cheng, 2004), and it has been used in a number of studies in the Turkish EFL context as well as in ESL or EFL educational settings in other cultures (Atay & Kurt, 2006; Öztürk & Çeçen, 2007; Kurt & Atay,

2007; Idris, 2009; Rodriguez et al., 2009; Zhang, 2011). These studies utilized the original version of the SLWAI except for Rodriguez et al. (2009) and Zhang (2011). Zhang (2011) translated and modified the 22 items of the questionnaire to provide natural interpretation in the Chinese ESL learning context. In Rodriguez et al. (2009), the SLWAI was translated into Spanish to facilitate the comprehension process and the original statements were modified to suit the EFL learning setting in Venezuela. For this study, to avoid any probable misconception or difficulty in understanding the items of the questionnaire, SLWAI was translated into Turkish by using the back-translation technique. First it was translated into Turkish by the researcher then given to a professional translator and translated back into English. The original English version and the back-translated English version were compared for any mismatch, then the Turkish version was adjusted accordingly. To prevent any problem occurring during the administration of the new version, the Turkish version of SLWAI was piloted among 70 ELT students.

3.4.3. The Questionnaire of the Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA)

This questionnaire was designed by Zhang (2011) by referring to her teaching practices and the literature on writing anxiety to find out the most common problems associated with ESL writing anxiety among Chinese ESL majors. It consists of 8 items and each item covers one possible source of writing anxiety : lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties, fear of negative evaluation, low self-confidence, insufficient writing practice, insufficient writing techniques, lack of effective feedback and fear of tests. Zhang designed this questionnaire in the format of a five-point Likert scale where the participants are requested to respond to each item with a single answer ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” but the subjects’ responses are not given any points as in the case of the FLCAS and the SLWAI. This questionnaire is appropriate for this study since it documents the most common sources of foreign language writing anxiety in literature (see **Appendix-C1**).

In this study, for practical reasons the questionnaire was translated into Turkish using the back-translation technique and piloted among 70 ELT students. Since the last item of the questionnaire mentions certain tests for college English majors in China it

has been modified to suit the context of the study. Thus, the item “ I am much worried about writing English compositions in TEM Band 4 and TEM Band 8” has been adjusted by the researcher as “I am much worried about writing English compositions in exams” (see **Appendix C3**).

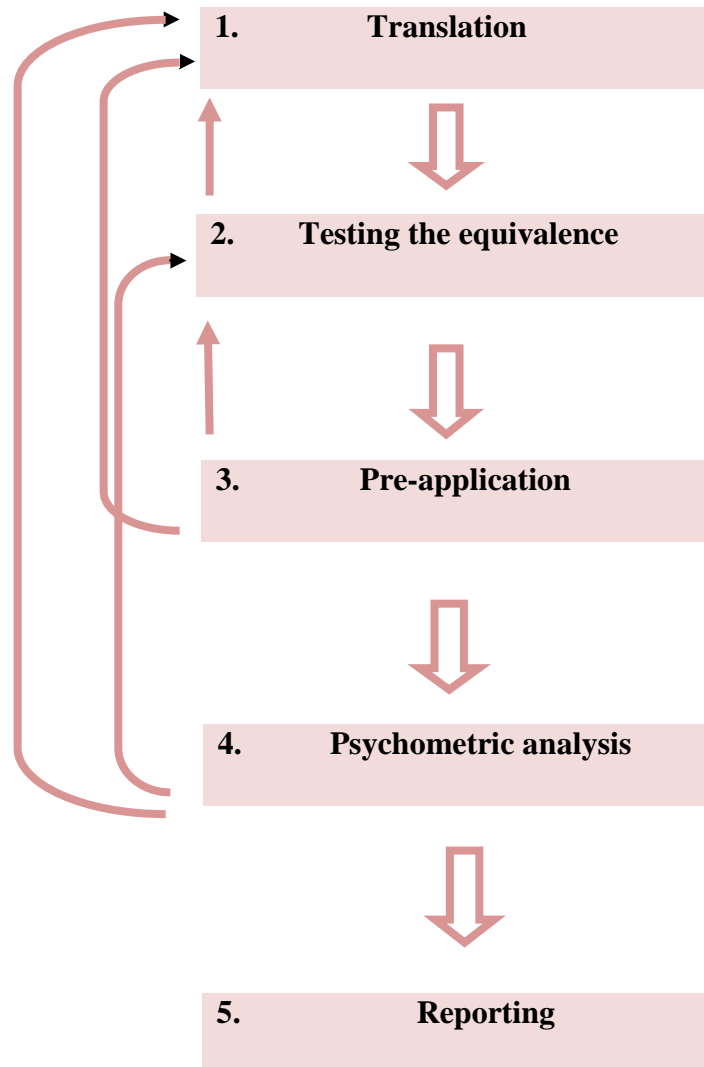
3.4.4. Validity and Reliability of the Turkish Versions of the SLWAI and the QCEWA

To analyze the validity and the reliability of the Turkish version of the questionnaires, Hambleton et al.'s (2005) theory of translating tests was used. According to Hambleton et al., translated tests may be problematic on the grounds that they might measure a different construct once they have been translated into different languages and administered to subjects with different cultural backgrounds. Hambleton et al. assert that it is not only a matter of translating the test items and test materials to develop equivalent instruments in more than one language but changes in item format and testing procedures must be considered as well. A variety of issues relating to test translation should be taken into account for the adapted version of instruments to be appropriate for cross-cultural comparisons. Thus, Hambleton et al. offer some guidelines relating to instrument translation:

1. Instrument developers/publishers should ensure that the adaptation process takes full account of linguistic and cultural differences among the populations for whom adapted versions of the instrument are intended.
2. Instrument developers/publishers should provide evidence that the language used in the directions, rubrics and items themselves as well as in the handbook are appropriated for all cultural and language populations for whom the instrument is intended.
3. Instrument developers/publishers should provide evidence that item content and stimulus materials are familiar to all intended populations.

4. Instrument developers/publishers should implement systematic judgmental evidence, both linguistic and psychological, to improve the accuracy of the adaptation process and compile evidence on the equivalence of all language versions.
5. Instrument developers/publishers should ensure that the data collection design permits the use of appropriate statistical techniques to establish item equivalence between the different language versions of the instrument.
6. Instrument developers/publishers should apply appropriate statistical techniques to a) establish the equivalence of the different versions of the instruments, and b) identify problematic components or aspects of the instrument that may be inadequate to one or more of the intended populations.
7. Instrument developers/publishers should provide statistical evidence of the equivalence of questions for all intended populations (p. 180-183).

In light of the guidelines above, a five-step process was adopted to investigate the validity and the reliability of the questionnaires as illustrated below:



After the questionnaires were translated into Turkish using the back-translation technique with a professional translator, their equivalence were checked by a specialist in linguistics for any mismatch or meaningless items. After that, both the original and the translated versions were administered to 70 ELT students three days apart (these subjects were second and third-year students, the questionnaires were not piloted among freshmen in case they could have difficulty in comprehending the items of the original version). After the administration of the questionnaires were completed, the subjects' ratings of the items of both the original and the translated versions were summed up by

the researcher and their overall scores from the original and the Turkish versions of the questionnaires were compared and analyzed by a statistician using the Independent T-Test measure.

In statistics, the independent t-test is used to compare two independent groups on a dependent variable (Leech et al., 2005). In other words, the independent t-test is a statistical test which is used to determine if there is a statistically significant difference between two unrelated or independent groups (Laerd Statistics, 2012). In this case, the original and the Turkish versions of the questionnaires constituted the two independent or unrelated groups. The Independent t-test was used to see if there was a significant difference between the original and translated versions of the questionnaires on what they measured:

a) *The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI):*

Independent groups: Original and the translated versions of the SLWAI

Dependent variable: Foreign language writing anxiety

Below are the descriptive statistics of the original and the translated versions of the SLWAI:

Table- 2: Descriptive statistics of the original and the translated versions of the SLWAI

Group Statistics

grup		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
birlikte	orjinal	70	63,3143	8,47596	1,01307
	çeviri	70	61,4143	8,39512	1,00341

As shown above, the mean of the original version of the SLWAI is higher than that of the translated version, that is, the students had, on average, higher scores on the original version of the SLWAI than on its translated version.

Table- 3: LEVENE’s Test for Equality of Variances the original and the translated versions of the SLWAI

		LEVENE’s Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
Writing anxiety	Equal variances assumed	,001	,976
	Equal variances not assumed		

The Levene’s test for the equality of variances tells whether the two groups have approximately equal variance on the dependent variable. If the Levene's Test is significant (the value under "Sig." is less than .05), the two variances are significantly different. If it is not significant (Sig. is greater than .05), the two variances are not significantly different; which means that the two variances are approximately equal. Here the “Sig.” is 0, 976, which is greater than 0,05, therefore, it can be assumed that the variances of the two groups are approximately equal.

Table- 4: t-test for Equality of Means of the original and translated versions of the SLWAI

t-test for Equality of Means						
t	df	Sig. (two-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	%95 Confidence of Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
1,333	138	,185	1,90000	1,42588	-,91940	4,71940
1,333	137,987	,185	1,90000	1,42588	-,91940	4,71940

The result of the t-test above shows that there is not any significant difference between the two groups (the Sig. is greater than ,05). The subjects had approximately the same scores on the original and the translated versions of SLWAI. Thus, it can be assumed that the translated version of the SLWAI measures the same construct as the original version does, which means that translated version is both valid and reliable.

b) The Questionnaire of the Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA):

Independent groups: The original and the translated versions of the QCEWA

Dependent variable: Causes of ESL writing anxiety

As stated before, the QCEWA is a questionnaire developed on a five-point Likert system where the subjects are supposed to respond to each item which a single answer ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”, but their responses are not given any points. However, in order to apply the Independent t-test measurement to test

the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire the subjects' responses to the items were scored from 5- strongly agree to 1- strongly disagree, and the overall score of each subject was summed up. Below are the descriptive statistics of the original and the translated versions of the QCEWA:

Table- 5: The descriptive statistics of the original and the translated versions of the QCEWA

Group Statistics

grup		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
birliktecws	orjinal	70	23,9714	4,86028	,58092
	çeviri	70	23,1714	4,61243	,55129

As seen on the table above, the mean of the original QCEWA is higher than that of the translated version meaning the subjects had, on average, higher scores on the original QCEWA than on its translated version.

Table- 6: LEVENE's Test for Equality of Variances of the original and the translated versions of the QCEWA

	LEVENE's Test for Equality of Variances	
	F	Sig.
Causes of Equal variances assumed	,220	,640
writing anxiety Equal variances not assumed		

The Sig. value on the Levene's test is ,640, which is greater than ,05. Thus, it can be said that the two groups have approximately equal variance on the dependent variable.

Table- 7: t-test for Equality of Means of the original and the translated versions of the QCEWA

t-test for Equality of Means						
t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	%95 Confidence of Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
,999	138	,320	,80000	,80086	- ,78355	2,38355
,999	137,624	,320	,80000	,80086	- ,78359	2,38359

The result of the t-test above shows that there is not any significant difference between the two groups (the Sig. is greater than ,05). The subjects had approximately the same scores on the original and the translated versions of the QCEWA. Thus, it can be assumed that the translated version of the QCEWA measures the same construct as the original version does, which means that the translated version is both valid and reliable.

3.4.5. Qualitative Instruments

One open-ended question was provided at the end of the Questionnaire of the Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA) to find out if there were any factors that caused writing anxiety for the participants other than the ones mentioned in the questionnaire. With a single question “Are there any factors that cause you to feel anxious while writing in English other than the ones above?” the participants were allowed to elaborate on their perspectives of foreign language writing anxiety which the QCEWA did not predict.

As the current study also investigated the L2 writing anxiety from the viewpoint of ELT instructors, a three-item open-ended questionnaire was administered to them

requiring them to state the reasons of L2 writing anxiety among prospective English teachers and also to give suggestions as to how to reduce this type of anxiety.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

This study adopted a cross-sectional study design. The questionnaires were administered to the ELT students during their scheduled class time. The researcher completed the administration of the instruments among freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors in a week. The instructors of the students were informed about the aims of the study and before the administration the researcher gave the students detailed information about the aim of the research in order for them to feel more comfortable and secure.

The open-ended questionnaire which questioned the causes of the writing anxiety of ELT students from the perspectives of ELT instructors and sought suggestions as to how to diminish it was given to as many ELT instructors as available at the time of the research. The questionnaires were sent to instructors teaching at different universities via e-mail. Along with the questionnaires, a cover letter was included in the e-mail informing the instructors of the purpose and the design of the study and who the study group was. Of the ELT instructors contacted only thirty-two of them returned the mail and filled out the questionnaires.

3.6. Data Analysis Procedures

The data obtained through the quantitative instruments were analyzed by summing up the subjects' ratings of the items and calculating their mean scores and in numbers and percentages. The qualitative data were analyzed by means of "pattern coding" suggested by Miles & Huberman (1994), which is a method of reducing large amounts of texts into smaller units by extracting categories from them.

3.6.1. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

The FLCAS was analyzed by summing up the subjects' ratings of the items. The participants were categorized as being high, medium or low anxious with the following procedure as suggested by Aydın (1999):

Low = Mean – Standard Deviation —————>The score lower than this

High = Mean + Standard Deviation —————>The score higher than this

Medium = The score between Mean – Standard Deviation and Mean + Standard Deviation

3.6.2. The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI)

The SLWAI was analyzed by summing up the subjects' ratings of the items. Negatively worded statements were reversely scored so that a high point represented high anxiety. The participants were categorized as high, moderate and low anxious according to the formula suggested by Zhang (2011):

Low = A total score below 50 points

High = A total score above 65 points

Moderate = A total score between 50 and 65 points

As mentioned earlier, the SLWAI measures a three-dimensional anxiety which integrates cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and avoidance behaviour. To discover what kind of writing anxiety was dominant among the participants, the scores of the items related to each category was calculated.

3.6.3. The Questionnaire of the Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA)

The eight items of the QCEWA each refer to one specific source of foreign language writing anxiety as mentioned by Zhang (2011): Lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties, fear of negative evaluation, low self-confidence, insufficient writing practice, insufficient writing techniques, lack of effective feedback, and fear of tests. The subjects responded to the items with a single answer ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” and their responses were analyzed in numbers and percentages.

3.6.4. Qualitative Instruments (The open-ended question at the end of the QCEWA and the three-item open-ended questionnaire for ELT instructors)

The qualitative data was analyzed by means of “pattern coding” as suggested by Miles & Huberman (1994). Pattern coding is a method of reducing large amounts of texts into smaller units by extracting categories from them:

Pattern codes are explanatory or inferential codes, ones that identify an emergent theme, configuration, or explanation. They pull together a lot of material into more meaningful and parsimonious units of analysis. They are a sort of meta-code (p. 69).

By the use of the method of pattern coding, the responses to the open-ended questionnaires were analyzed by putting them into categories, so larger written texts were turned into smaller units and similar responses were given a categorical name as a whole.

In order to reduce the statements into patterns or smaller units “lexical cohesion analysis” was used. “Lexical cohesion analysis derives from observing that there are certain expectancy relations between words.... Lexical relations analysis is a way of systematically describing how words in a text relate to each other, how they cluster to build up lexical sets or lexical strings. Lexical cohesion is an important dimension of cohesion” (Eggins, 2004, p. 42). In this process, all the responses were gathered

together and classified in terms of the similarity of the lexical items either in the form of synonymy or direct repetition. Then the similar statements were given categorical names.

3.6.5. The Reliability of the Qualitative Data Analysis

In order to measure the reliability of the analysis of the qualitative data by means of pattern coding this study adopted the rater/observer reliability method. Cottrell & McKenzie (2011) define rater reliability as being “associated with the consistent measurement (or rating) of an observed event by different individuals (or judges or raters), or by the same individual” (p. 153). They also claim that rater reliability is a significant method in determining how effectively a particular coding or measurement system operates. If two or more raters are involved this process is called interrater reliability, and if only one rater is involved it is referred to as intrarater reliability. This study made use of intrarater reliability to see whether the analysis of the qualitative data was consistent.

Intrarater reliability is the assessment of an event, individual or place at two or more points in time by a single observer. Intrarater reliability is significant especially in the evaluation of behaviour or making judgments about an individual’s progress (Engell & Schutt, 2009). For instance, suppose that a researcher wanted to carry out a study which involved reviewing the medical charts of patients to see if the doctors were keeping record of their patient education efforts. Using the same evaluation criteria the researcher would review the same ten medical charts at two different points in time. The percentage of agreement between the two observations would determine the intrarater reliability (Cottrell & McKenzie, 2011).

This study applied intrarater reliability in that the qualitative data was analyzed through the method of pattern coding at two different times (two weeks apart) by the researcher, and the patterns that emerged from the two analyses were compared for any mismatch and corrected accordingly.

3.6.6. The Relationship between the FLCAS and the SLWAI

This study was also dedicated to understanding the characteristic of the foreign language writing anxiety. By examining the relation of the foreign language writing anxiety to the general foreign language learning anxiety this study aimed to discover the consistency between the two types of anxieties and to understand to what extent L2 writing anxiety stemmed from general foreign language anxiety. Besides, to investigate the causes of the foreign language writing anxiety and offer remedies, it is important to know the nature of this anxiety in the first place. Therefore, in order to see if there is a relationship between the foreign language writing anxiety and the general foreign language learning anxiety, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis was used.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) is a measure of the correlation between two variables, it is widely used in sciences as a scale of the strength of linear dependence between two variables. A low correlation indicates a weak relationship between the variables whereas a high correlation reveals a strong relationship between the two variables:

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) is used to specify the direction and magnitude of linear association between two quantitative variables. The correlation coefficient can range from $r = -1.00$ to $r = +1.00$. Positive values of r indicate that the relationship is positive linear, and negative values indicate that it is negative linear. The strength of the correlation coefficient (the effect size) is indexed by the absolute value of the correlation coefficient.

(Stangor, 2010, p. 359)

Thus, in order to measure the correlation between the foreign language writing anxiety and the general foreign language anxiety it was appropriate to use the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis between the FLCAS and the SLWAI.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. General Overview

This study aims to investigate the levels of L2 writing anxiety of ELT students and the causes of this anxiety. It also offers possible remedies that can be applied to reduce it. Additionally, the relationship between the general foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety should be made clear to understand the nature of L2 writing anxiety among prospective teachers of English. In line with these purposes there arose these research questions in this study:

- What are the levels of the foreign language anxiety of prospective teachers of English?
- What are the levels of the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English?
- Are there any differences among prospective EFL teachers' levels of both general foreign language anxiety and foreign language writing anxiety with regard to their years of study (freshmen, sophomores, juniors, seniors)?
- Is the foreign language writing anxiety a phenomenon distinct from the general foreign language anxiety?
- What type of foreign language writing anxiety is dominant among prospective teachers of English (cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety, or avoidance behaviour)?
- What are the sources of the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English?
- What strategies can be used to reduce the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English?

The study comprised both quantitative and qualitative data analyses to answer these research questions. It included two groups of subjects: ELT students and instructors working at ELT departments. To explore the general foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety of prospective teachers, ELT students were administered

the scales of the FLCAS and the SLWAI respectively. Their levels of general foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety were analyzed using statistical calculations. To understand the relationship between the FLCAS and the SLWAI, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis was used to see to what degree L2 writing anxiety differed from general foreign language anxiety. The sources of L2 writing anxiety was investigated from both students' and instructors' perspectives. As mentioned in the 3rd section, the students were administered the QCEWA developed by Zhang (2011) to elicit the general sources of their L2 writing anxiety, and also an open-ended question was provided to learn if there were any other causes of their anxiety that the QCEWA did not predict.

Instructors working at ELT departments were administered an open-ended questionnaire asking them to count reasons of L2 writing anxiety of ELT students, to state the techniques they used (or which they thought should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes and to give suggestions for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety. The questionnaires were sent to as many instructors as could be contacted via e-mail. Their responses were analyzed by using the method of pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994), which reduced large texts into smaller units of linguistic categories.

In this chapter, the findings of this study are presented by explaining the answers to the research questions under related headings. After the presentation of the results, the significance of the current study in the literature of foreign language writing anxiety is discussed by referring to its relation to other studies carried out in this field.

4.2. General Foreign Language Anxiety

To find out the levels of general foreign language anxiety, the FLCAS was administered to 170 ELT students including freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors (54 freshmen, 41 sophomores, 25 juniors and 50 seniors). The descriptive statistics of their scores are given below:

Table- 8: General descriptive statistics of the FLCAS

FLCAS		
Number	Valid	170
	Missing	0
Mean		67,2294
Standard Deviation		19,25446

In categorizing the levels, the following criteria was used:

Low = 1 – 48

Medium = 49 – 85

High = 86 +

Freshmen:

According to this categorization, the freshmen showed medium level of language anxiety in general (mean= 72, 72 , $48 < 72, 72 < 86$). Their scores ranged from 40 to 119 points. Out of a total of 54 students 2 of them (4 %) were found to have low anxiety, 39 students (72 %) showed medium level of anxiety and 13 students (24 %) were reported to have high levels of anxiety:

Table- 9: Descriptive statistics of the FLCAS among the freshmen

Level	Number	Percentage
Low	2	4 %
Medium	39	72%
High	13	24%

Total number =54 Mean= 72,72 * Percentages are rounded off to the nearest numbers

Minimum: 40 Maximum : 119

Sophomores:

The sophomores showed medium level of language anxiety as well (mean= 80,58 , $48 < 80,58 < 86$). The minimum score was 37 points and the maximum was 111. Out of 41 students 2 of them (5 %) showed low anxiety, 23 students (56 %) had medium level of anxiety and 16 students (39 %) were found to have high anxiety:

Table- 10: Descriptive statistics of the FLCAS among the sophomores

Level	Number	Percentage
Low	2	5 %
Medium	23	56%
High	16	39%

Total number= 41 Mean = 80,58 * Percentages are rounded off to the nearest numbers

Minimum: 37 Maximum :111

Juniors:

The general mean score of the juniors indicated a medium level of anxiety (mean= 61,4 , $48 < 61,4 < 86$). Their scores showed variation between 38 and 116. Out of 25 students 5 of them (20 %) manifested low anxiety, 18 students (72 %) had medium level of anxiety and 2 students (8 %) had high levels of foreign language anxiety:

Table- 11: Descriptive statistics of the FLCAS among the juniors

Level	Number	Percentage
Low	5	20 %
Medium	18	72 %
High	2	8 %

Total number= 25 Mean = 61,4

Minimum: 38 Maximum: 116

Seniors:

The seniors were also generally found to have medium levels of anxiety (mean= 53,26 , $48 < 53,26 < 86$). Their lowest score was 35 points and the highest was 81. Out of 50 students 17 of them (34 %) showed low anxiety, 33 students (66 %) had medium levels of anxiety, and none of the students were reported to have high language anxiety:

Table- 12: Descriptive statistics of the FLCAS among the seniors

Level	Number	Percentage
Low	17	34 %
Medium	33	66 %
High	-	-

Total number= 50 Mean = 53,26

Minimum: 35 Maximum: 81

As evident from the descriptive statistics there were generally medium levels of foreign language anxiety among the ELT students. However, what was also obvious was that the mean scores of the freshmen and the sophomores were higher than those of the juniors and the seniors ($72,72$ & $80,58 > 61,4$ & $53,26$), even the general mean score of the juniors was higher than that of the seniors ($61,4 > 53,26$). Moreover, the number of students who had high language anxiety among the freshmen and the sophomores was greater than among the juniors and the seniors. None of the seniors had high anxiety at all. These results indicated that the levels of foreign language anxiety of prospective teachers decreased with increased time of study.

4.3. L2 Writing Anxiety

The levels of the foreign language writing anxiety of ELT students were measured by the use of the SLWAI, and the mean scores were analyzed with the following categorization suggested by Zhang (2011):

Low = A total score below 50 points

High = A total score above 65 points

Moderate = A total score between 50 and 65 points

*Possible scores range from 22 to 110

As in the case of the FLCAS, the SLWAI was administered to the same group of 170 ELT students including freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors. The general mean score of all the students was 58,01 indicating a generally moderate level of L2 writing anxiety among prospective teachers of English ($50 < 58,01 < 65$). The minimum score was 26 and the maximum was 96:

Table- 13: General descriptive statistics of the SLWAI

SLWAI		
Number	Minimum	Maximum
Mean		
170	26	96
58,01		

$50 < 58,01 < 65$ = moderate level of L2 writing anxiety in general

Freshmen:

The freshmen manifested moderate levels of writing anxiety in general (mean= 63,31, $50 < 63,31 < 65$). Their scores varied from 36 to 94. Out of 54 subjects 10 (19 %) were found to have low writing anxiety, 16 (30 %) had moderate anxiety and 28 of them (52 %) suffered from high anxiety:

Table- 14: Descriptive statistics of the SLWAI among the freshmen

Level	Number	Percentage
Low	10	19 %
Moderate	16	30 %
High	28	52 %

Total number= 54 Mean = 63,31 * Percentages are rounded off to the nearest numbers
Minimum: 36 Maximum: 94

Sophomores:

The overall mean score of the sophomores pointed to moderate levels of writing anxiety in general (mean= 64,14 , $50 < 64.14 < 65$). The lowest score was 37 and highest was 96. Among 41 participants 4 students (10 %) had low anxiety, 16 (39 %) manifested moderate anxiety and 21 of them (51 %) were found to suffer high levels of L2 writing anxiety:

Table- 15: Descriptive statistics of the SLWAI among the sophomores

Level	Number	Percentage
Low	4	10 %
Moderate	16	39 %
High	21	51 %

Total number= 41 Mean = 64,1 * Percentages are rounded off to the nearest numbers
Minimum: 37 Maximum: 96

Juniors:

The junior generally showed moderate levels of writing anxiety as well although their mean score was somewhat lower than those of the freshmen and the sophomores (mean= 58,4 , $50 < 58,4 < 65$). Their scores ranged from 33 to 96. 9 out of 25 subjects

(36 %) experienced low anxiety, 8 (32 %) had moderate anxiety and another 8 (32 %) were revealed to manifest high foreign language writing anxiety:

Table- 16: Descriptive statistics of the SLWAI among the juniors

Level	Number	Percentage
Low	9	36 %
Moderate	8	32 %
High	8	32 %

Total number= 25 Mean = 58,4
 Minimum: 33 Maximum: 96

Seniors:

Whereas the freshmen, the sophomores and the juniors generally had moderate levels of writing anxiety, the mean score of the seniors denoted low levels of L2 writing anxiety (mean= 47,58 < 50). Their lowest score was 26 and the highest was 78. 28 out of 50 subjects (56 %) showed low anxiety, 20 (40 %) had moderate anxiety and only 2 (4 %) were found to have high L2 writing anxiety:

Table- 17: Descriptive statistics of the SLWAI among the seniors

Level	Number	Percentage
Low	28	56 %
Moderate	20	40 %
High	2	4 %

Total number= 50 Mean = 47,08
 Minimum: 26 Maximum: 78

Even though the mean scores of the freshmen and the sophomores indicated moderate writing anxiety they were very close and were greater than those of the juniors

and the seniors (63,31 & 64,1 > 58,4 & 47,08). Also, the mean score of the seniors was below 50 and much lower than that of the juniors (47,08 < 58,4), which evinced that while the juniors had moderate levels of writing anxiety, the seniors generally showed low levels of L2 writing anxiety. This difference becomes more obvious when looked at the number of students who showed high anxiety in each group: 28 freshmen were highly anxious while 21 sophomores, 8 juniors and only 2 seniors had high L2 writing anxiety, which supports the fact that, as in the case of the general foreign language anxiety, L2 writing anxiety decreased as students received increasing L2 instruction.

4.4. Differences in the Levels of Anxiety

Both the foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety decreased as the subjects proceeded in language learning. The levels of both types of anxiety were the lowest at the fourth year of study and also the students who showed high anxiety were fewer among the seniors than those among the other three groups of subjects as illustrated on the charts below:

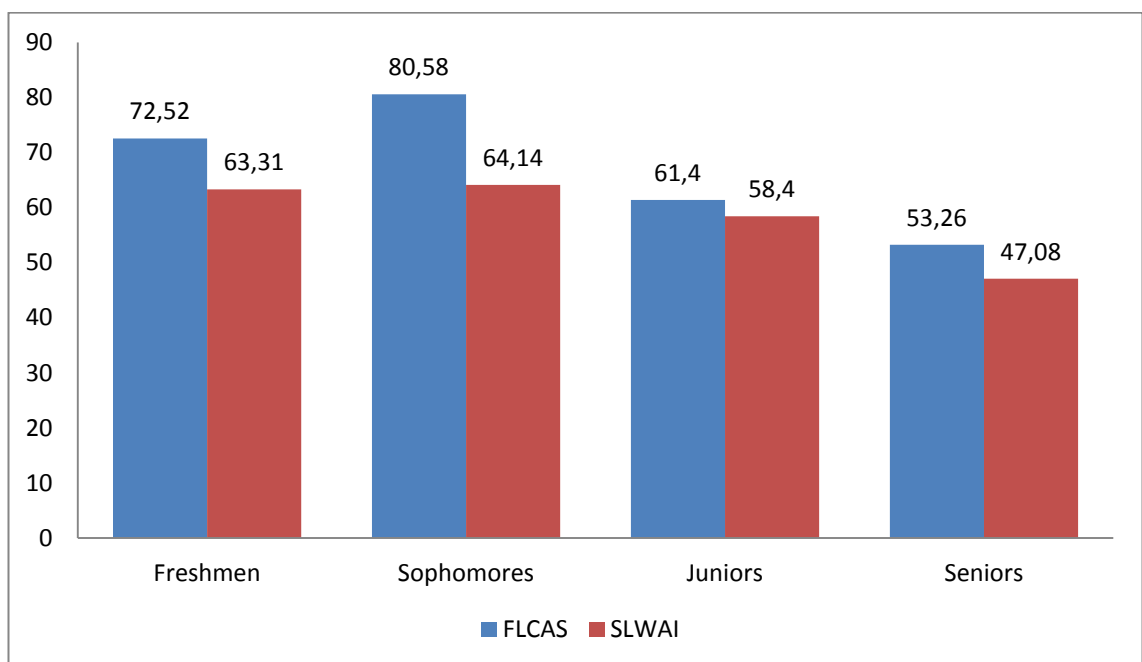


Figure- 2: Mean scores of the subjects

As can be seen on the chart above, the anxiety levels of both the FLCAS and the SLWAI were higher among the freshmen and the sophomores than among the juniors

and the seniors. The mean scores of both the FLCAS and the SLWAI were the highest among the sophomores and the lowest among the seniors.

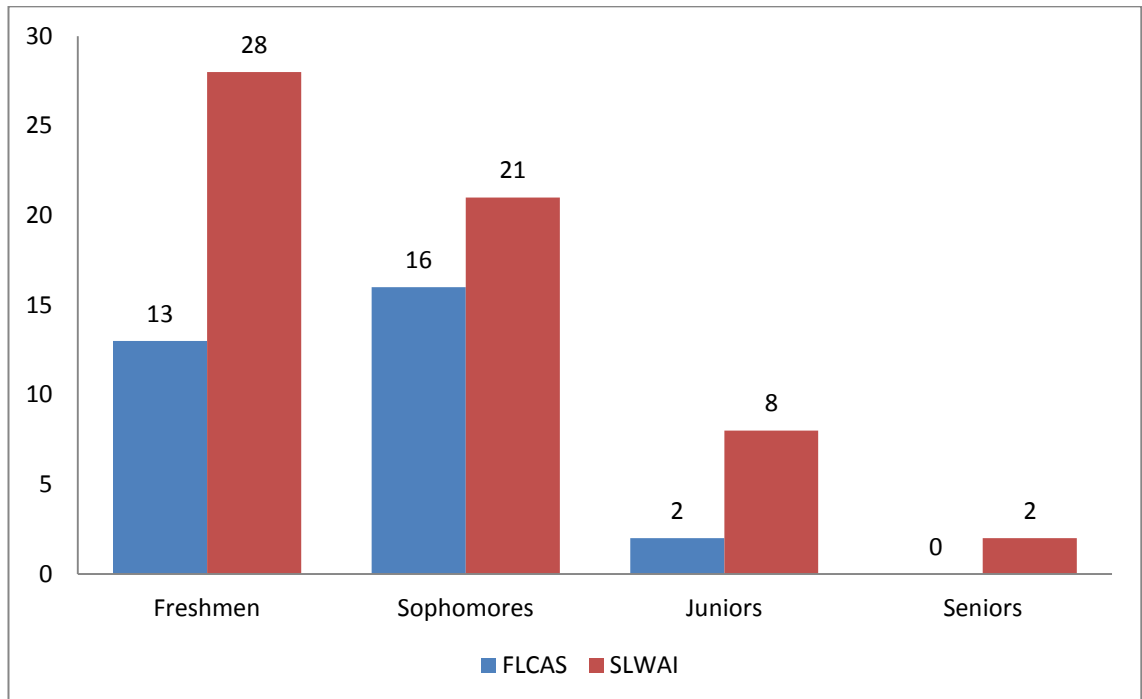


Figure- 3: Distribution of the numbers of subjects with high anxiety

The chart above shows that the numbers of students who had high anxiety in both the FLCAS and the SLWAI were greater among the freshmen and the sophomores than among the juniors and the seniors. The juniors who manifested high anxiety in both types of anxiety were also greater in numbers than the seniors who were high-anxious. Furthermore, the seniors did not have high general foreign language anxiety at all.

It can be concluded from the charts above that both the general foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety were relatively higher among the freshmen and the sophomores than among the juniors and the seniors. Both types of anxiety were also lower among the seniors than they were among the juniors. In short, though not very much higher than the freshmen, the sophomores showed the highest anxiety levels in both the FLCAS and the SLWAI while the seniors generally had the lowest levels of foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety.

4.5. The Relationship between the FLCAS and the SLWAI

One of the aims of this study was to find out the relationship between L2 writing anxiety and the general foreign language anxiety. Before exploring the sources of L2 writing anxiety, the nature of this anxiety in terms of its relation to the general language anxiety must be clarified. For this, the FLCAS and the SLWAI were administered to the same group of 170 participants and the results were analyzed by the use of The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient:

Table- 18: The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient analysis between the FLCAS and the SLWAI

Correlations

		FLCAS	SLWAI
FLCAS	Pearson Correlation	1	,583**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	170	170
SLWAI	Pearson Correlation	,583**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	170	170

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

As seen on the table above, the correlation coefficient between the FLCAS and the SLWAI is 0,583 ($r = 0,583$), which means that there is a significant positive linear correlation between the two scales. This means that as one variable increases the other increases as well or as one variable decreases the other also decreases accordingly. When looked at **Figure-2**, it can be seen that the mean scores of both the FLCAS and the SLWAI goes up and down at the same time on the same groups of subjects. Thus, in this study the participants with high levels of foreign language anxiety were inclined to show high levels of L2 writing anxiety and vice versa.

The relationship between the FLCAS and the SLWAI was positive and statistically significant meaning that higher levels of the FLCAS was associated with higher levels of the SLWAI and vice versa. To find out to what degree L2 writing

anxiety differed from the foreign language anxiety, the coefficient of determination (r^2) was computed by squaring Pearson's correlation coefficient. The coefficient of determination was 0,339889 between the two anxieties ($r^2= 0,339889$). Finally, the r^2 coefficient was multiplied by 100 to be interpreted as the percentage of shared variables between the two scales ($r^2= 0,339889 \times 100 = 33,98$). This finding indicated that L2 writing anxiety shared 33,98 % of its variance with the general foreign language anxiety, in other words, the SLWAI did not share 66,02 % of its variance with the FLCAS, which revealed that L2 writing anxiety was distinct but related to the general foreign language anxiety in this study.

4.6. Types of L2 Writing Anxiety

The SLWAI is a three-dimensional anxiety scale including the components of cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and avoidance behaviour. Cognitive anxiety refers to the feelings of concern and worry, somatic anxiety is about physiological effects of anxiety such as rapid heart rate, trembling or perspiring, and avoidance behaviour is associated with conditions where a person tries to stay away from writing in the foreign language. By calculating the scores of the items related to each category (as given in the Methodology), the distributions of the three types of L2 writing anxiety are given below:

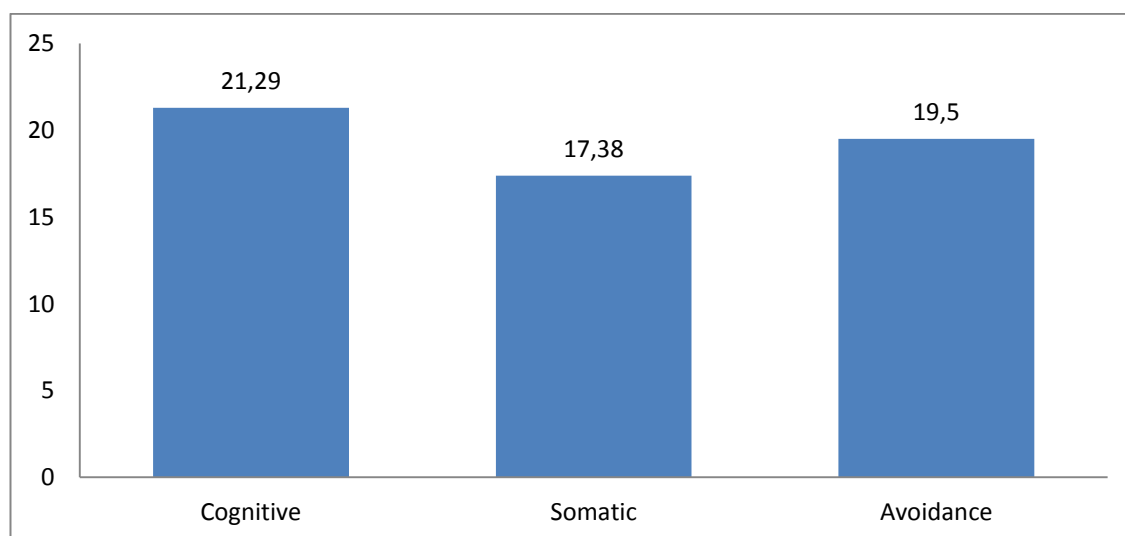


Figure- 4: General mean scores of the types of L2 writing anxiety among the subjects

It is obvious from **Figure-4** that cognitive anxiety was the commonest type of L2 writing anxiety experienced by prospective teachers. Avoidance behaviour was the second dominant writing anxiety while somatic anxiety appeared to be least experienced by ELT students in general.

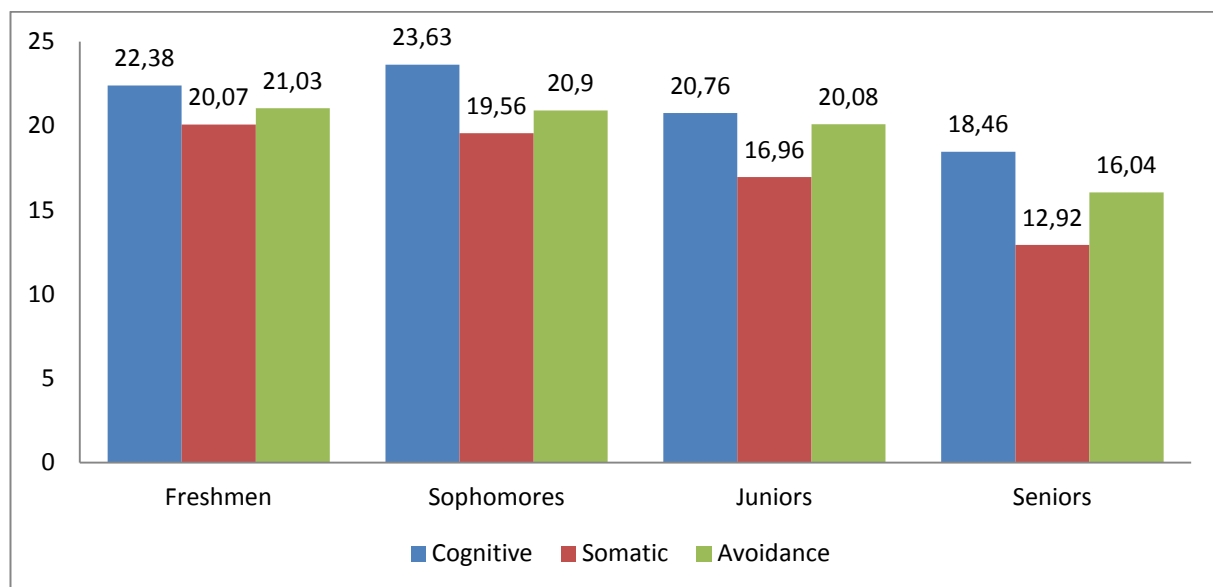


Figure- 5: Mean scores of the types of L2 writing anxiety among freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors (a comparison)

The figure above indicates that sophomores constituted the group that experienced cognitive anxiety at the highest level. The highest levels of somatic anxiety and avoidance behaviour belonged to the freshmen while seniors experienced all of the three types of anxiety least.

4.7. The Sources of L2 Writing Anxiety

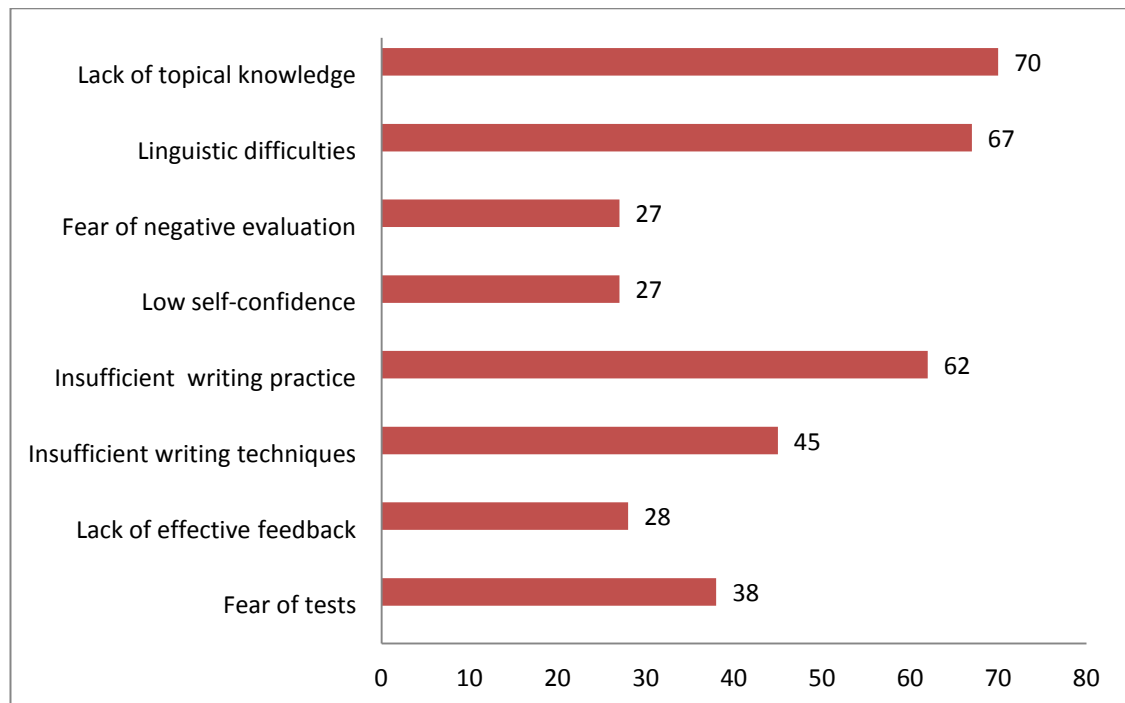
In this study, the sources of L2 writing anxiety of prospective teachers were explored both from their own perspectives and from the perspectives of instructors teaching at ELT departments. Therefore, the causes of L2 writing anxiety were investigated and analyzed under two headings:

- The sources of L2 writing anxiety of prospective teachers from their own perspectives

- The sources of L2 writing anxiety of prospective teachers from the perspectives of ELT instructors

4.7.1. The Sources of L2 Writing Anxiety of Prospective Teachers from Their Own Perspectives

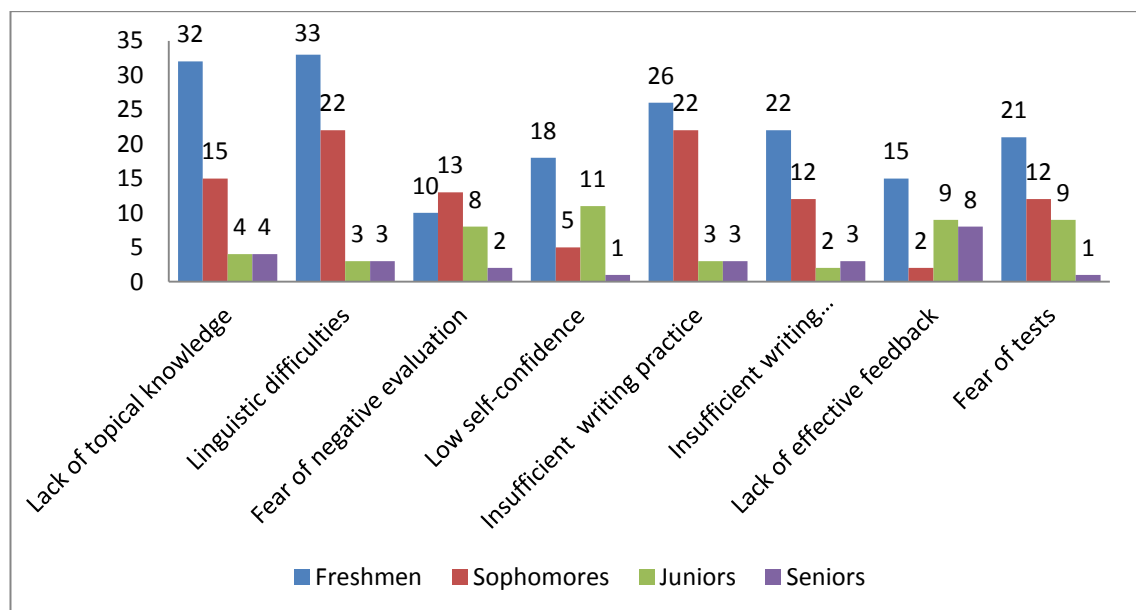
The QCEWA (Zhang, 2011) was used to elicit the sources of L2 writing anxiety of ELT students. As mentioned in the Method, the QCEWA was an eight-item questionnaire consisting of the commonest causes of L2 writing anxiety. Participants were required to respond to the items on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree and the items respectively referred to lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties, fear of negative evaluation, low self-confidence, insufficient writing practice, insufficient writing techniques, lack of effective feedback and fear of tests. The figures below present the results of the QCEWA displaying the sources of L2 writing anxiety with the numbers of the subjects who agreed or strongly agreed with the eight items:



Total number = 170

Figure- 6: Sources of L2 writing anxiety with the numbers of the subjects in general

It is evident from the figure above that lack of topical knowledge was the commonest cause of L2 writing anxiety among the prospective teachers, 70 students (41 %) thought that their writing anxiety resulted from lack of ideas about the topic. The second most prevalent source of anxiety was linguistic difficulties, 67 students (39 %) stated that they suffered linguistic difficulties such as inadequate mastery of vocabulary, simple sentence structures and grammatical errors. The third most problematic issue was insufficient writing practice, 62 prospective teachers (36 %) reported that they did not have adequate writing practice inside and outside the classroom. 45 students (26 %) worried about not having a good mastery of writing techniques while 38 students (22 %) expressed fear of L2 writing in exams. 28 respondents (16 %) ascribed their L2 writing anxiety to insufficient and ineffective feedback from their instructors. Both the fear of negative evaluation and low self-confidence were marked as the factors which caused anxiety least, 27 participants (16 %) were afraid of being negatively evaluated by their peers and instructors, and 27 (16 %) students had low confidence in their writing skills.



Total numbers : freshmen = 54 sophomores = 41 juniors = 25 seniors = 50

Figure- 7: Distribution of the sources of L2 writing anxiety among freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors

It can be seen in the figure above that except for the fear of negative evaluation, the sources of L2 writing anxiety in the QCEWA were the most dominant among the freshmen. Overall, these causes of L2 writing anxiety were more widespread among the freshmen and the sophomores than among the juniors and the seniors. While lack of topical knowledge and linguistic difficulties were the most important factors causing freshmen L2 writing anxiety, linguistic difficulties and insufficient writing practice were the most cited causes for the sophomores. Low self-confidence appeared to be more common among the juniors than the other factors, and lack of effective feedback was the source which made the seniors anxious most.

In addition to the QCEWA, one open-ended question was provided for the participants to elaborate on the sources of their L2 writing anxiety other than the factors in the QCEWA. With the question “Are there any other factors that cause you to feel anxious while writing in English other than the ones in the questionnaire above?” the participants were given freedom to reflect on their causes of anxiety that QCEWA did not include. The participants’ responses to the open-ended question were analyzed with the method of pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The following are the sources of L2 writing anxiety that the participants mentioned apart from the factors in the QCEWA:

✓ ***Limited Writing Time:***

Two students (one freshman and one sophomore) stated that their L2 writing anxiety stemmed from the limited time of writing classes and examinations.

Sample statement:

- Tek kaygım kısıtlı bir zaman içinde yazılması olabilir. Zamanın kısıtlı olması fikir üretme ve kelime açısından benim için sorun yaratabiliyor.

✓ ***Dislike of Writing Classes:***

One freshman stated that he did not like writing classes and thus did not attend the classes regularly, so this created anxiety for him in L2 writing.

Sample statement:

- Writing derslerini pek sevmem ve bu nedenle de derslere çok katılmam, bu durum bende kaygı yaratabiliyor.

✓ ***Having to Obey The Rules of Writing Compositions:***

One freshman stated that the rules of writing compositions was a source of L2 anxiety for him.

Sample Statement:

- Örneğin, makale vb. İngilizce yazı yazarken belirli kuralların olması ve bu kurallar dışına çıkmamak gereği bana çok saçma geliyor. Zaten yazamıyoruz bir de kurallar var, bu çok itici.

✓ ***Thinking in L1 :***

One sophomore attributed her L2 writing anxiety to the difficulty in finding the equivalents of Turkish sentences in the foreign language.

Sample Statement:

- İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken en büyük kaygım kafamdaki Türkçe cümlelerin tam bir İngilizce karşılığını bulamama korkusudur.

✓ ***Physical Atmosphere of The Classroom:***

One sophomore wrote that unfavourable physical conditions of the classroom created anxiety for him.

Sample Statement:

- Ortamın yeterince uygun olamaması, gürültülü vs. olması beni endişelendirebiliyor.

✓ ***Advanced Linguistic Structures:***

One junior gave having to use advanced linguistic structures as the reason for his L2 writing anxiety:

Sample Statement:

- Bazen basit kalıplar yerine daha üst düzey kalıplar kullanmaya çalıştığım da endişeleniyorum.

✓ ***Different Types of Compositions:***

One junior explained that different types of essays made him anxious.

Sample Statement:

- Farklı kompozisyon türleri mesela compare/contrast vb. bende kaygı yaratabiliyor.

✓ ***Lack of Topical Terminology:***

Two seniors expressed that not knowing the terms related to the topic was a source of anxiety for them in L2 writing.

Sample Statements:

- İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken özellikle çok fazla fikrimin olmadığı konularda yazmak zor geliyor. Kelimelerin terim olarak kullanılması gerektiğinde zorluk çekebiliyorum ve endişelenebiliyorum.
- Beni kaygılandıran tek şey sadece konu ile ilgili terimleri bilmemek.

4.7.2. The Sources of L2 Writing Anxiety of Prospective Teachers from the Perspectives of ELT Instructors

As mentioned earlier, an open-ended questionnaire was constructed for ELT instructors to gather their views on L2 writing anxiety of prospective teachers. It consisted of three questions, the first one of which asked about instructors' opinions as to the factors creating writing anxiety. The questionnaires were sent to as many instructors as possible via e-mail but only thirty-two of them participated and filled out the questionnaires. Their responses were analyzed by the use of pattern coding suggested by Miles & Huberman (1994). The categories below emerged from the instructors' responses as to the causes of L2 writing anxiety among ELT students:

Linguistic Factors:

- ✓ Lack of adequate language proficiency in terms of grammar and vocabulary

Cognitive Factors:

- ✓ Lack of coping strategies with linguistic difficulties
- ✓ Lack of adequate writing experience/instruction in the mother tongue
- ✓ Negative previous writing experiences either in the mother tongue or in the target language
- ✓ Lack of writing experience and competence in general
- ✓ Limited knowledge of L2 writing mechanics and organization
- ✓ Lack of topical knowledge
- ✓ Fear of being evaluated in terms of peers' performance
- ✓ Fear of being negatively evaluated either by the teacher or by other students
- ✓ Fear of failure
- ✓ Comparing oneself with other students in the class
- ✓ Lack of creativity
- ✓ Perception of writing as a difficult process
- ✓ Perception of writing not as a skill but as a grammar practice
- ✓ Not knowing the features of various academic writing genres
- ✓ Educational background based on memorization and multiple-choice tests
- ✓ Fear of making mistakes
- ✓ Lack of retention of knowledge after assignments or examinations
- ✓ Lack of the ability to turn L2 competence into skill-based performance
- ✓ L1- based thinking and writing
- ✓ Fear of assessment
- ✓ Having high personal expectations

Affective Factors:

- ✓ Lack of interest in social and cultural issues
- ✓ Lack of interest in writing in general
- ✓ Lack of interest in written tasks given by instructors
- ✓ Negative attitude of the instructor

- ✓ Negative attitude towards the target culture
- ✓ Lack of interest in writing topics
- ✓ Lack of self-confidence

Teaching Procedures:

- ✓ Limited time (writing classes and examinations)
- ✓ Not knowing what is really expected
- ✓ Classroom setting
- ✓ Lack of effective peer-feedback practice
- ✓ Type of feedback the instructor gives
- ✓ The clash between the instructor's method in the writing class and students' expectations
- ✓ The placement of too much emphasis on grammar and reading in foreign language education in Turkey

Student Behaviour:

- ✓ Lack of reading habits either in the mother tongue or in the target language
- ✓ Not practising writing apart from dealing with assignments

When the responses of the prospective teachers and those of the ELT instructors are compared, it is obvious that most of the sources of writing anxiety that prospective teachers mentioned (lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties in terms of grammar and vocabulary, fear of negative evaluation, low self-confidence, insufficient writing practice, inadequate writing techniques, lack of effective feedback, fear of tests, limited time, lack of interest in writing, thinking in L1, classroom environment, various types of genres) were also reported by the ELT instructors to cause writing anxiety for prospective EFL teachers. This suggests that instructors' observation and assessment on students' writing anxiety match students' real psychological state. Therefore, it can be said that there is not much discrepancy between the sources of L2 writing anxiety reported by prospective teachers and ELT instructors' perceptions of the causes of this anxiety among this particular group of learners.

4.8. Ways to Reduce L2 Writing Anxiety

While the first question in the open-ended questionnaire elicited the views of instructors about the causes of L2 writing anxiety among ELT students, the other two asked about possible classroom procedures and learning strategies that can be applied to reduce L2 writing anxiety. The patterns below arose from the responses of the instructors as to how to diminish the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective teachers:

Ways to Reduce L2 Writing Anxiety:

a) On Instructors' Part:

- ✓ Including motivating tasks
- ✓ Giving project work
- ✓ Variety of topics and materials
- ✓ Giving group work to foster collaboration
- ✓ Including tasks which will not be evaluated such as journal writing
- ✓ Class discussion in current social issues
- ✓ Use of technology in teaching
- ✓ Providing efficient instruction on how to find ideas, organize them and complete the writing process in a reflective/cyclical process
- ✓ Adopting a positive humanistic approach towards students' production of writing
- ✓ Using a cognitive therapy, introducing students to the nature and dynamics of writing skills and to the ways which cater for developing such a skill
- ✓ Pre-writing activities to activate students' background knowledge
- ✓ Using mind mapping in pre-writing
- ✓ Using brainstorming in mind mapping activities
- ✓ Helping weaker students organize writing
- ✓ Giving students writing tasks to do outside the classroom
- ✓ Using a wide range of genres
- ✓ Using comprehensible input in writing tasks
- ✓ Giving positive personal feedback

- ✓ Providing necessary linguistic and cultural knowledge for students to write
- ✓ Providing lexical diversity like collocations, fixed expressions, etc.
- ✓ Pair or group writing
- ✓ Fostering self-correction, peer correction and group correction
- ✓ Establishing rapport with students during the writing process
- ✓ More focus on process than on product
- ✓ Giving enough time for the planning phase before students start writing
- ✓ Having students reflect upon their writing process and share these reflections
- ✓ Not forcing students to write, instead acting like a moderator and showing the ways of facilitating the writing process
- ✓ Using authentic materials
- ✓ Setting clearly defined purposes
- ✓ Providing many model texts
- ✓ Showing and analyzing the essays written by previous students
- ✓ Giving sufficient amount of work load to students
- ✓ Arranging deadlines and responsibilities of assignments with students
- ✓ Providing checklists
- ✓ Applying dialog journal writing
- ✓ Teaching time management strategies for timed writing activities
- ✓ Using peer-feedback activities in the classroom
- ✓ Persuading students that it is normal to make mistakes
- ✓ Giving writing tips for students to become better writers
- ✓ Raising students' awareness about the English rhetoric
- ✓ Encouraging students to write reflection after each class
- ✓ Process writing
- ✓ Teaching writing strategies
- ✓ Giving constructive feedback on both content and language
- ✓ Choosing writing topics students are interested in
- ✓ Teaching students reading strategies as well as writing strategies
- ✓ Giving verbal feedback as well as written feedback
- ✓ Using many writing exercises
- ✓ Analyzing sample texts with students

- ✓ Integrating reflective writing with critical thinking
- ✓ Integrating four skills for the development of writing gains
- ✓ Teaching students sentence types
- ✓ Teaching the use of graphic organizers
- ✓ Establishing a simple code of correction
- ✓ Assigning homework with newly acquired forms
- ✓ Supplying psychological input such as success stories from real life and catchy sayings
- ✓ Having students keep portfolios in classes
- ✓ Simultaneously offering writing courses in both L1 and L2

b) On ELT Students' Part:

- ✓ Improving your grammar and vocabulary either through your instructor's corrections or through extensive reading
- ✓ Reading in L1 and L2 to be knowledgeable about social issues
- ✓ Dealing with the present tasks, disregarding your negative past experiences with writing
- ✓ Giving sufficient time to yourself for preparing and writing the task, not studying at the last minute
- ✓ Reading your peers' work to have an opinion about what others do for the given tasks
- ✓ Seeing writing as a process, working on your writing over and over until you are satisfied with the product
- ✓ Using a collocation dictionary
- ✓ Brainstorming about the topic with peers
- ✓ Analyzing L2 paragraphs and texts
- ✓ Working cooperatively in pairs or groups
- ✓ Writing journals and diaries
- ✓ Making outlines
- ✓ Writing drafts
- ✓ Doing free writing
- ✓ Imitating model texts

- ✓ Using secondary resources to do research
- ✓ Using peer-feedback
- ✓ Writing as much as possible
- ✓ External writing : Writing for pleasure
- ✓ Having positive attitudes towards writing
- ✓ Using pre-writing strategies
- ✓ Using time-management strategies
- ✓ Doing research about the topic before starting writing
- ✓ Taking notes before writing
- ✓ Editing
- ✓ Using previous feedback for upcoming writing tasks
- ✓ Reading in L2 by paying attention to different writing styles
- ✓ Working on the intended message given by writers
- ✓ Self-evaluation
- ✓ Writing for real purposes
- ✓ Developing autonomy
- ✓ Developing portfolios
- ✓ Using graphic organizers
- ✓ Setting realistic and reachable goals for yourself
- ✓ Getting feedback from your mistakes
- ✓ Taking risks
- ✓ Mastering the requisite subskills of critical thinking, organizational skills, appropriate and accurate language use in both L1 and L2

4.9. Summary of the Results

Anxiety is a widely-studied phenomenon in language learning. The literature generally documents the negative effects of language anxiety on learners' performance. Hence, a great deal of research has been carried out to understand the causes and the effects of foreign language anxiety, particularly the anxiety that the speaking component of language creates in the learner. (Howitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Young, 1991; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b; MacIntyre, 1995; MacIntyre et al., 1997;

Wang, 2005; Pappamihiel, 2002; Katalin, 2006; Marwan, 2008; Toth, 2007; Riasati, 2011; Horwitz, 2001; Chan & Wu, 2004; Kondo & Ling, 2004; Bekleyen, 2004; Jones, 2004; Ohata, 2005; Wilson, 2006; Feigenbaum, 2007, Aydın, 2008; Ito, 2008; Hui, 2009; Andrade & Williams, 2009; Huang, 2009; Kao & Craigie, 2010; Toth, 2010; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Iizuka, 2010; Lan, 2010; Subaşı, 2010). What's more, in recent years skill-specific types of anxiety have come into view, so foreign language anxiety has also begun to be explored from the perspectives of the separate language skills of reading, listening, and writing. Being a productive skill, writing tends to create much anxiety as learners are required to generate ideas and organize them in a coherent way, and the outcome is much more observable than in any other skill. By taking this into account as a starting point, this study investigated the L2 writing anxiety among prospective teachers of English on the assumption that if the writing problems of pre-service teachers are dealt with, they will create more favourable conditions for their learners to write in when they are in service since learning experiences are likely to affect teaching practices.

Since prospective teachers were the subjects of this study, their levels of L2 writing anxiety were investigated in the first place to determine the existence of such anxiety among them. It was found out that the prospective teachers in this study generally showed moderate levels of L2 writing anxiety (mean= 58,01 , $50 < 58,01 < 65$). In a detailed way, while the freshmen, the sophomores and the juniors generally had moderate levels of writing anxiety, the seniors usually manifested low levels of L2 writing anxiety, also the freshmen and the sophomores had remarkably higher levels of writing anxiety than the juniors and the seniors (means= 63,31 & 64,14 > 58,4 & 47,08, **see Figure-2**). This indicated that, in this study, L2 writing anxiety tended to decrease with increased time of L2 instruction. A reasonable explanation for this situation can be that students' language proficiency and their level of writing skills were the predictors of their foreign language writing anxiety. Here, it can be said that writing anxiety was negatively correlated with language proficiency. Having received one or two years of instruction, freshmen and sophomores were expected to be less proficient or have less control over the English writing than juniors and seniors who had more advanced skills as a result of more years of study. Hence, though no statistical analysis was carried out

to examine the relationship between writing anxiety and proficiency, inferring from the available data, this study can be said to support the finding of Daud, Daud, & Kassim's (2005) study on L2 writing anxiety using as their guiding principle the Deficit Model Hypothesis, which holds that a person's failure to perform well is due to his/her inadequately developed skill and the failure caused by the poorly developed skill in turn causes anxiety. Their study showed that low-performing students suffered more writing anxiety than high-performing ones as a result of their low achievement and poor writing skills. In this way, the present study can be considered to agree with both Daud, Daud, & Kassim's (2005) study and the Deficit Model Hypothesis since the participants tended to show less anxiety with increasing time of foreign language instruction, by which they gained more advanced language skills.

The results of this study in terms of the levels of writing anxiety show mismatch with the findings of the study of Atay & Kurt (2006) on 85 Turkish prospective teachers of English, all of whom were in their fourth year of study. In contrast to this study in which the seniors generally showed low levels of L2 writing anxiety (low anxiety = 56 %), in their study the fourth-year participants usually had high and moderate levels of anxiety (low anxiety = 19 %). This study is also incompatible with the results of Zhang's (2001) study, where 96 Chinese prospective teachers of English consisting of freshmen and sophomores usually showed high levels of writing anxiety (mean=66,49 > 65) whereas the mean scores of the participants indicated moderate levels of L2 writing anxiety among the freshmen and the sophomores in the present study (50 < 63,31 & 64,1 < 65).

This study also researched whether L2 writing anxiety was a phenomenon distinct from the general foreign language anxiety. Before looking into the sources of L2 writing anxiety and offering possible solutions to decrease it, it was important to understand its nature in relation to the foreign language anxiety, in other words, to what degree learners' anxiety about their L2 writing skill stemmed from their general foreign language anxiety. The Pearson correlation analysis showed that L2 writing anxiety shared 33,98 % of its variance with the general foreign language anxiety in this study, meaning that although some amount of the anxiety the participants felt was associated with the foreign language anxiety, a great deal of the anxiety of the prospective teachers

(66,02 %) was particular to L2 writing skill, which proved that L2 writing anxiety was a type of anxiety which was distinct but somewhat related to the general foreign language anxiety. This finding of the study is consistent with that of Rodriguez et al. (2009) where the existence of the foreign language writing anxiety, related to but distinct from the general foreign language anxiety and the native language writing anxiety among Venezuelan pre-service EFL teachers was examined. As in this study, the subjects were administered both the FLCAS and the SLWAI and their scores were computed by using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis. The result was that L2 writing anxiety shared 54,46% of its variance with the general language anxiety, in other words, 45,54 % of its variance was not shared and was specific to itself, underlining the fact that L2 writing anxiety existed as a type of anxiety distinct but related to the general foreign language anxiety. In this respect, this study is also congruous with Gkonou's (2011) research on the relationship between the English language classroom speaking and writing anxiety of 128 Greek EFL students in private language school settings, where the foreign language anxiety and the writing anxiety were found to be two related but distinguishable constructs. The state of writing anxiety as being distinct but associated with the general foreign language anxiety discovered by these studies conducted in different cultural and educational settings corroborates Cheng's (1999) theory that the second language writing anxiety is a language skill-specific anxiety which has significant predictive ability as regards writing performance.

As mentioned before, the SLWAI is a multi-dimensional scale integrating the components of cognitive anxiety, somatic anxiety and avoidance behaviour. Cognitive anxiety refers to the feelings of fear and worry, somatic anxiety is related to the physiological reactions of the body such as perspiring, trembling, and rapid heart rate, etc., and avoidance behaviour is the situations where the learner withdraws from writing in the target language. By calculating the scores of the items relating to each category, the aspect of L2 writing anxiety which was dominant among prospective teachers was investigated. The results showed that cognitive anxiety was the commonest type of anxiety followed by avoidance behaviour and somatic anxiety (mean scores = 21,29 > 19,5 > 17, 38). This finding shows correlation with Zhang's (2011) study on Chinese prospective teachers of English, where the participants mostly had cognitive anxiety,

less strongly experienced avoidance behaviour and least showed somatic anxiety (mean scores= 25,08 >21,77 > 19,64).

The chief aims of this study was to look into the sources of L2 writing anxiety of ELT students from the perspectives of both students and ELT instructors and to offer possible remedies to lessen this anxiety in order for pre-service teachers to feel more secure with this productive skill and therefore create comfortable L2 writing environments for their own learners when they are in service. The causes generally referred to linguistic difficulties, fear of evaluation, lack of knowledge on both content and techniques, lack of interest in writing and topics, low self-confidence and teaching practices. One instrument to elicit the sources of L2 writing anxiety from the perspectives of prospective teachers was the QCEWA designed by Zhang (2011), whose items referred to lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties, fear of negative evaluation, low self-confidence, insufficient writing practice, insufficient writing techniques, lack of effective feedback and fear of tests. With the adoption of this instrument, the results of this study in terms of the sources of L2 writing anxiety show some parallelism with those of Zhang's (2011). In both studies, lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties and insufficient writing practice were the commonly cited factors for L2 writing anxiety among prospective teachers, indicating that these three sources of anxiety were among the most problematic issues in both Turkish and Chinese EFL contexts.

In addition to the QCEWA an open-ended question was asked to the participants to have them reflect upon their other sources of L2 writing anxiety that the QCEWA did not predict. From their responses there emerged the categories of limited writing time, dislike of writing classes, having to obey the rules of writing compositions, thinking in L1, physical atmosphere of the classroom, advanced linguistic structures, different types of compositions and lack of topical terminology. This study also explored the L2 writing anxiety of prospective teachers from the perspectives of instructors teaching at ELT departments. By an open-ended questionnaire they were asked what they thought caused L2 writing anxiety among ELT students and what teaching practices and learning strategies they suggested to reduce this anxiety. According to them, L2 writing anxiety among pre-service teachers were rooted in linguistic, cognitive, and affective

factors, teaching procedures and student behaviour. The anxiety factors elicited from both the students and the instructors show close similarity to those in Atay & Kurt's (2006) study on the writing anxiety of prospective teachers, which were gathered by asking the participants to name the situations or people that might cause writing anxiety for them: teachers, past experiences, time limitation, exams, classroom setting, peer effect and topic were the common factors generating anxiety among the Turkish prospective EFL teachers in their study, which was also the case for this study.

The results of this study also bear similarity to those of Latif (2007) in which the factors accounting for the negative writing affect of 67 Egyptian prospective teachers of English were investigated. The study found out that the sources of high English writing anxiety of Egyptian pre-service teachers of English were lack of linguistic knowledge, low foreign language competence, self-esteem, poor history of writing achievement, perceived writing performance improvement, low English writing self-efficacy, instructional practices of English writing and fear of criticism, which were all but the same linguistic, cognitive, affective and teaching factors of writing anxiety among the Turkish prospective teachers of English discovered in this study. Furthermore, the findings of Idris' (2009) study with 82 pre-service English teachers in Malaysian context are parallel to the results of this study in that the fear of tests and time constraint were among the key factors causing L2 writing anxiety in both studies and the strategies that ELT students adopted to overcome their writing anxiety in Idris (2009) were reading more, relaxing, editing, consulting their lecturers, doing mind mapping, and preparing notes before writing, most of which were among the learning strategies proposed by the ELT instructors for prospective teachers to decrease their L2 writing anxiety in this study.

As discussed above, the sources of L2 writing anxiety of Turkish prospective teachers of English in Atay & Kurt (2006) were among the ones found in this study. The results of this study in terms of the causes of anxiety and the remedial strategies were also very similar to those carried out in Chinese, Egyptian, and Malaysian contexts. Hence, it can be said that although very few in literature studies document similar problems about the writing skills of prospective English teachers in different educational and cultural contexts.

Apart from the issue of prospective teachers, the sources of writing anxiety found in this study bear resemblance to those in general EFL contexts. For instance, Lin's (2009) study on the causes of L2 writing anxiety of 16 university students in Taiwan revealed that time restriction, teachers' evaluation, peer competition, writing subjects and required writing format were, as in this study, the major factors of L2 writing anxiety of the students. Likewise, Aydın's (1999) study on 36 intermediate learners in Turkish EFL context displayed that foreign language anxiety in writing classes originated from three factors: 1) personal reasons such as self assessment of ability, self-comparison to others, high personal expectations and learner beliefs 2) teachers' manner in the classroom like teachers' manner towards students' errors and their attitude to students, and 3) teaching procedures, namely writing in the paragraph form and the teacher's method used in the writing course. Gkonou (2011) also found out factors influencing Greek EFL learners' writing anxiety that were similar to the causes of writing anxiety discovered in this study, which were attitudes towards writing in English, negative self-perceptions and concern about failure in writing classes, and fear of negative evaluation either by the teacher or by the peers.

As outlined above, the sources of L2 writing anxiety investigated in this study are parallel not only to those in other studies on prospective English teachers but also to the ones in general EFL learning situations in different cultural contexts. Hence, the strategies for coping with English writing anxiety presented by this study will be cross-culturally beneficial for teachers and learners in general English learning situations as well as prospective teachers, ELT instructors and ELT departments of universities in diverse cultural and educational contexts.

5. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter includes a brief summary of the study and the general conclusions drawn from the findings of the study. It also presents some implications for prospective teachers, instructors and the English Language Teaching (ELT) programs at Turkish universities. Finally, some recommendations for further research are provided.

5.2. Summary of the Study

As an element of affect, anxiety has received considerable attention in the field of foreign language teaching due to its negative effects on language acquisition, production and performance. MacIntyre & Gardner (1994a) state that anxiety can cause serious problems for the language learner because language learning is an intense cognitive activity. When an individual becomes anxious in a learning context, negative self-related cognition arises, which in turn leads to the thoughts of failure, self-deprecation and avoidance behaviour. These thoughts consume the cognitive resources necessary for the task at hand. This situation can bring about difficulties in cognitive processing since fewer resources are left, causing failure and more negative cognitions consuming more resources. MacIntyre et al. (1997) further argue that throughout the process of second language acquisition learners often evaluate their own developing abilities, and this self-evaluation facilitate their learning by helping them develop learning strategies to improve their linguistic capacities. However, for anxious learners, facing their perceived limitations can be demotivating and problematic. Young (1991) suggests that language learners experience high levels of anxiety followed by unpleasant emotions and distress in the process of learning a second language, and our tasks as language teachers is to “create an atmosphere in our classes for effective language learning and an attitude in our learners that reflects genuine interest and motivation to learn the language. By reducing language anxiety, we will begin to move in that direction” (p. 434).

Literature on anxiety in language learning has been mostly concerned with the general foreign language anxiety and the anxiety created by the speaking skill. Although research has proved that the speaking component of language is the major anxiety-generating factor for the learner, it has also been discovered that listening, reading and writing skills can also create anxiety in the language learner. With this, there has emerged the concept of “language skill-specific anxiety” and instruments have been developed to measure the anxiety associated with the separate language components of listening, reading, and writing. Despite being a productive skill, writing has not received as much attention as the speaking skill in the field of anxiety research. A number of studies have been carried out to understand the nature and the causes of writing anxiety among language learners in cross-cultural educational settings. Some studies have also been conducted to investigate the writing anxiety of prospective EFL teachers. All the studies on writing anxiety have explored this issue from learners’ perspectives only. However, anxiety is influenced by many other factors as well as learners, and since teachers are a major part of the classroom dynamics, their role in the learning process can contribute much to the anxiety among the learners. As Ohata (2005) puts it, one of the effective methods of understanding student anxiety and its manifestations in language learning contexts is to investigate it from teachers’ perspectives. Hence, research is needed to explore the foreign language writing anxiety from the viewpoint of teachers as well as learners to better understand its role in the writing process and to be able to present remedial suggestions to overcome this problem on a firmer foundation.

This study aimed to investigate the writing anxiety of prospective English teachers from the perspectives of both prospective teachers themselves and instructors teaching at the English Language Teaching (ELT) programs of universities. Both quantitative and qualitative instruments were used to look into the levels of anxiety and the causes of writing anxiety, and to elicit coping strategies for students to diminish their anxiety. A total of 170 pre-service teachers studying at the English Language Teaching (ELT) department of a state university in Turkey participated in this study. The participants consisted of students from all years of study including freshmen, sophomores, juniors and seniors. They were administered the quantitative instruments of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), developed by Horwitz et

al. (1986), to measure their general foreign language anxiety and the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) by Cheng (2004) to determine their foreign language writing anxiety levels. Furthermore, a statistical analysis was carried out to ascertain the relationship between the general foreign language anxiety and the foreign language writing anxiety, and to find out to whether the foreign language writing anxiety was a distinct type of anxiety or not. The students were also given another quantitative measure, namely The Questionnaire of The Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA), which was designed by Zhang (2011) by referring to her teaching experiences and the literature on writing. Apart from the QCEWA, the participants were asked an open-ended question requiring them to state the factors causing them writing anxiety in English which the QCEWA did not predict.

As this study explored the phenomenon of writing anxiety from the perspectives of teachers as well as learners, instructors teaching at the ELT departments of universities constituted the other group of participants for this study. A qualitative measurement, namely a three-item open-ended questionnaire, was prepared asking for the ELT instructors' opinions as to the causes of L2 writing anxiety among prospective teachers and their recommendations about how to deal with this problem. The questionnaires were sent to as many instructors as possible via e-mail with a cover letter explaining the aims of the study. However, only thirty-two of the ELT instructors responded and filled out the questionnaires. At the end of the study, it was found that the prospective teachers generally experienced moderate levels of L2 writing anxiety and their responses to both the QCEWA and the open-ended question together with the instructors' views on pre-service EFL teachers' writing anxiety revealed a number of sources of foreign language writing anxiety. Also, a number of suggestions to cope with writing anxiety were obtained from the ELT instructors' responses to the open-ended questionnaires.

5.3. Conclusion

One major finding of this study was the role of instruction as a factor in reducing anxiety as it was found that both the foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety were relatively higher among the freshmen and the sophomores than they were among

the juniors and the seniors, suggesting that the levels of both types of anxiety decreased as the students continued to receive language instruction and their linguistic knowledge increased.

Additionally, there was a significant positive linear correlation between the general foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety, meaning that as the foreign language anxiety increased L2 writing anxiety increased as well. This suggests that the pre-service EFL teachers with high levels of foreign language anxiety tended to show high levels of L2 writing anxiety and vice versa. Moreover, it was also found from this analysis that L2 writing anxiety was a distinct type of anxiety but it was related to the general foreign language anxiety at the same time.

Among the three types of writing anxiety, cognitive anxiety was found to be the commonest type of anxiety followed by avoidance behaviour and somatic anxiety. Cognitive anxiety is associated with the feelings of fear and worry, somatic anxiety is about bodily reactions such as trembling, sweating and rapid heart rate etc., and avoidance behaviour is the negative attitude which makes the learner want to avoid writing in English. Although no systematic research exists on the reduction of foreign language writing anxiety in terms of its cognitive, somatic and behavioral facets, Zeidner's (1998) intervention techniques for diminishing test anxiety may be adopted to deal with these three types of writing anxiety since some portion of writing anxiety also stems from testing situations. In order to cope with cognitive anxiety, it may be beneficial to use Zeidner's (1998) Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) and Systematic Rational Restructuring (SRR), both of which are based on the notion that anxiety is the product of illogical or irrational thinking. Rational Emotive Therapy aims to teach anxious students to recognize and change their irrational beliefs and thoughts. Rather than directly allaying the anxiety, this therapy form places the responsibility on the learner in order for him/her to question and challenge his/her irrational belief systems so that he/she can replace them with more realistic ones. Thus, in this therapy, the anxious learner is encouraged to identify the content of his/her interfering thoughts, describe the context in which these thoughts arise, and think through the behavioral consequences of these thoughts. Systematic Rational Restructuring attempts to help anxious learners discover their anxiety-provoking thoughts during the task at hand, to make them

suppress those task-irrelevant thoughts and create positive self-statements which directs their attention back to the task. The assumption is that the student learns to conquer anxiety by learning to control the task-irrelevant thoughts which generate anxiety and distracts attention away from the task.

In dealing with somatic anxiety, Relaxation Skills Training technique may be useful. Relaxation Skills Training aims at helping the anxious learner to manage his/her anxiety arousal by training him/her in using such behavioral techniques as “progressive relaxation procedures, relaxation without tension, pleasant imagery, breathing exercises, and cognitively cued relaxation” (Zeidner, 1998, p. 374). The use of slow, deep breathing is emphasized during this training procedure. Lastly, for the prevention of the avoidance behaviour in L2 writing, Zeidner’s (1998) Study-Skills Training (SST) therapy may be adopted. This therapy technique is designed to help students use their time efficiently and become proficient in receiving, processing, organizing and retrieving information by introducing them to a number of study-skills techniques such as study planning and time-management strategies, observing study behaviours, fostering reading and summarizing skills, and study techniques for examinations. Accordingly, with the acquisition of necessary study habits and skills, learners will no longer see foreign language writing as something daunting to avoid.

In this study, prospective EFL teachers reported eight main factors causing them to experience anxiety when writing in English, which were lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties, fear of negative evaluation, low self-confidence, insufficient writing practice, insufficient writing techniques, lack of effective feedback and fear of tests. Some of the prospective teachers also cited limited writing time, dislike of writing classes, having to obey the rules of writing compositions, thinking in L1, physical atmosphere of the classroom, advanced linguistic structures, different types of compositions and lack of topical terminology as the sources of their L2 writing anxiety as well. These causes of writing anxiety were also among the anxiety sources in L2 writing found in other studies on both prospective teachers and on students learning English as a second or foreign language in different cultural educational contexts (Zhang, 2011; Atay & Kurt, 2006; Latif, 2007; Idris, 2009; Lin, 2009; Aydın, 1999;

Gkonou, 2011). This showed that different groups of learners from different cultural and educational backgrounds had similar problems as regards foreign language writing.

Concerning the sources of L2 writing anxiety, the ELT instructors thought that prospective teachers' writing anxiety stemmed from linguistic factors, cognitive factors, affective factors, teaching procedures and student behaviour. It was significant that most of the factors that the prospective teachers reported to create writing anxiety for them were also mentioned by the ELT instructors as being among the sources of anxiety related to the writing skills of prospective English teachers. This proves that there was compatibility between students' actual experiences and instructors' perceptions of the student behaviour. For the reduction of the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective EFL teachers the ELT instructors proposed a number of coping strategies on both learners' and teachers' parts, which, on the whole, required teachers to adopt a humanistic, learner-centered approach towards students' writing while suggesting that learners develop autonomy and study in a collaborative manner. This all shows that the ELT instructors were of the opinion that teachers and learners did have shared responsibility in improving student writing.

The results of this study in terms of the sources of L2 writing anxiety were similar to the findings of other studies on the foreign language writing anxiety carried out in cross-cultural educational contexts including prospective teachers and EFL learners, suggesting that the remedial strategies recommended by the ELT instructors for pre-service English teachers to deal with writing anxiety in this study can be applicable in different cultural educational EFL settings.

5.4. Recommendations of the Study

Among the significant findings of this study was the role of instruction in the reduction of anxiety. The fact that the juniors and the seniors had lower levels of both foreign language anxiety and L2 writing anxiety than the freshmen and the sophomores did indicated that the students tended to manifest less anxiety as they continued to receive language instruction in a graded manner, in other words, their anxiety decreased as their linguistic knowledge increased in time. This situation can stand as a good

example for Krashen's (1982) Comprehensible Input Hypothesis in second language acquisition. According to Krashen, language acquisition takes place when a learner is exposed to language which is comprehensible and which contains $i+1$. Here "i" stands for the level of language already acquired, and "+1" represents the language that is a step beyond that level. If students are exposed to language which is below their current level, no progression will occur, and if they are presented with contents or tasks that are too advanced or complicated for them to handle, they will experience anxiety causing their affective filter to go up, that's why, using comprehensible input ($i+1$) in instruction both facilitates students' language development and reduces anxiety. In this study, the participants' anxiety levels showed decline with increasing years of language study, that is, they tended to have less anxiety as they were exposed to comprehensible input. This suggests that the use of comprehensible input in ELT classes can help prospective EFL teachers experience less negative affect in regard to foreign language writing. Students' school years, level of language and writing skills should be taken into account when preparing curricula and tasks, and when giving assignments.

In this study, it was also found that L2 writing anxiety was positively correlated with the foreign language anxiety. Students who had high levels of writing anxiety showed high levels of foreign language anxiety, and vice versa. Moreover, among the participants of prospective EFL teachers, the foreign language writing anxiety was revealed to be a type of anxiety which was distinguishable but related to the foreign language anxiety, lending support to the findings of the previous studies that L2 writing anxiety was a distinct type of anxiety (Cheng, 1999; Rodriguez et al., 2009; Gkonou, 2011). This highlights the significance of writing being a potential source of anxiety for the learner and underlines the need for approaching writing anxiety as a separate language skill-specific anxiety.

This study investigated the writing anxiety of prospective EFL teachers from the viewpoints of both prospective teachers and ELT instructors. Both groups of participants reported a number of factors that caused anxiety for prospective teachers when writing in English. From the perspective of prospective teachers it was found that lack of topical knowledge, linguistic difficulties, fear of negative evaluation, low self-confidence, insufficient writing practice, insufficient writing techniques, lack of

effective feedback, fear of tests, limited writing time, dislike of writing classes, having to obey the rules of writing compositions, thinking in L1, physical atmosphere of the classroom, advanced linguistic structures, different types of compositions and lack of topical terminology were the sources of their writing anxiety. According to the ELT instructors, prospective teachers' L2 writing anxiety arose from linguistic, cognitive and affective factors, teaching procedures, and student behaviour, which included most of the sources of anxiety that the prospective teachers reported themselves. This shows that no huge mismatch existed between prospective teachers' learning experiences and ELT instructors observations and analyses of students' linguistic development. Although ELT instructors provided many suggestions as to how to deal with writing anxiety on the parts of both prospective teachers and instructors, some points are worth elaboration here at the risk of sounding repetitive.

This study discovered that students suffered from linguistic difficulties such as lexical incompetence and erroneous grammatical structures. They also cited lack of ideas as a reason for their L2 writing anxiety. These problems can be overcome by reading a lot in both the mother tongue and the target language. By reading students can improve their linguistic competence and they can have a wide range of ideas about various topics. Therefore, as language teachers we should encourage our learners to develop reading habit, as Jacobs & Farrell (2012) put it, by reading regularly students improve their vocabulary and grammar, as well as their writing, speaking and listening skills. For this reason, prospective EFL teachers should not limit themselves to the intensive reading texts that their compulsory courses require them to read, but they should acquire the habit of "extensive reading". By reading regularly in L2 outside the classroom, they can improve their grammar and vocabulary and expand their world knowledge, so that they will have much to write about with relative ease. As Kumar (2006) suggests, the primary objective of extensive reading is to make reading a "living experience", contributing to the recognition of vocabulary and the feel of the language without the rigid rules of the structures, and creating an interest in reading good literature.

Another significant point to touch upon is process writing. In this study, a considerable number of the subjects were revealed to lack a good mastery of writing

techniques, and this, as a result, caused them anxiety. The treatment of writing as a process rather than a product can help to reduce the anxiety associated with learners' L2 writing skill. As language teachers if we adopt a product-oriented approach to writing, we only concentrate on what the learners will produce as their writing in the end. The writing instruction consisting of a teacher setting a subject and discussing it for learners' writing with little or no attention to how that writing is produced is likely to create anxiety in the learners since no attempt is made to facilitate their writing by helping them acquire writing strategies. A process-oriented approach in writing, however, highlights the stages that learners go through while writing. It is more likely to lessen the writing anxiety of learners in the target language, because, as Harmer (2001) suggests, "by spending time with learners on pre-writing phases, editing, redrafting, and finally publishing their work, a process approach aims to get to the heart of the various skills that should be employed when writing" (p. 257). Hence, in order to help prospective EFL teachers to become effective writers in L2 with minimal anxiety, instructors at ELT programs should engage them in process writing considering the various stages of writing such as pre-writing, composing, revising, editing, publishing, etc.

Prewriting activities are very effective in decreasing the tension in coming up with ideas to write. These activities lead writers to the right direction by providing them with the necessary material. Sorenson (2010) states that prewriting activities help us find a good topic, narrow down subjects that are too broad, and be aware of our purpose because when we finish prewriting activities we will have a sentence and a list or a thesis sentence and a fully developed outline for our writing. Sorenson lists the most common prewriting activities as "reading (specific assignments, general background, and research), discussion (group and interview), personal reflection, journal writing, brainstorming, list making, graphic organizers, and daily experiences (what you see, hear, and do)" (p. 4). Reading is one way to prepare for writing. Reading for specific classroom assignments, for individual growth and pleasure, and for research engages learners' minds, helps them find suitable writing topics by introducing new ideas and providing specific information. Discussion in the form of group talk and interview with

classmates and friends familiar with the subject of writing can provide learners with the material which may become the basis of their papers (Sorenson, 2010).

Personal reflection is another activity for prewriting. Learners can reflect on anything but they need direction because without a systematic approach to the topic or specific concern for the assignment the reflection would be like daydreaming rather than a prewriting activity, and it may never turn into writing. That's why, personal reflection can be directed by various means such as journal writing, brainstorming and list-making. As a prewriting activity journal writing makes writers more observant and helps them to produce ideas about what to write because in their daily journals they write about whatever catches their attention, seems remarkable, and worthy of observation. Brainstorming is effective in steering personal reflection as well. Brainstorming is the act of producing ideas freely, without fear of criticism, by letting one idea generate others. Brainstorming can be done alone but it may be more effective in a group. This activity helps learners come up with new ideas to old ones. Making lists that suggest writing topics and supporting ideas helps learners have a critical approach towards ideas and their relationships. Learners can generate all sorts of lists such as lists of main ideas, lists of supporting details, lists of examples, lists of arguments, and lists of reasons. List making as a prewriting activity enables learners to collect their thoughts and present them in an order, clarifying the organization of their compositions because a list that is revised and arranged in a logical order is considered an outline (Sorenson, 2010).

The use of graphic organizers, which are drawings or maps showing how ideas are associated, can also facilitate the writing process by helping learners generate ideas by providing visual stimuli. Finally, daily experiences of learners can act as a source of inspiration for prewriting. For instance, learners may be encouraged to write about something they have seen such as a film, an accident or a forest fire, etc., or they may be inspired by the things they have heard of like global warming or economic crisis, or they may simply want to write about what they have done: achieving success, having an accident, or helping the old, etc. (Sorenson, 2010). These prewriting activities that Sorenson presents can be very helpful strategies for students who suffer from inability to produce ideas or have difficulty in gathering thoughts and information. These

activities can also be a good guidance for instructors who are willing to teach their students strategies to cope with their anxiety at the prewriting phase.

Another important strategy to reduce L2 writing anxiety can be the adoption of collaborative learning. By encouraging students to work in pairs or groups, language teachers can prevent the anxiety arising from individual difficulties in language learning. The application of collaborative learning in writing classes can, to a great degree, resolve the problems related to linguistic inadequacies and limited ideas by having students learn from each other. Students can achieve higher levels of proficiency and have more ideas to elaborate on with group work and discussion. As Richards & Rodgers (2001) state, one of the aims of collaborative language learning is to provide opportunities for naturalistic second language acquisition and to develop successful learning through interaction. Similarly, Nassaji & Fotos (2011) also express that collaborative learning facilitates language learning because when learners work collaboratively they can develop the linguistic competence that they have not acquired individually, and that they can also use and solidify their existing knowledge by working together. Especially when interacting with more proficient peers, a supportive environment is created where learners can attain a higher cognitive level than they were able to achieve by themselves, thus new knowledge is acquired through interaction, and internalized and solidified by collaborating with others.

Fear of negative evaluation either by the fellow students or by the teacher was found to be another source of writing anxiety in this study. Students tend to be afraid of being mocked by their peers or being harshly criticized by the teacher in front of others. Collaborative learning can also lessen the anxiety associated with this negative social evaluation by providing positive interdependence among the learners and emphasizing cooperation over competition. In a group work for example, the responsibility is shared among the members of the group so that they all work together towards achieving the same goal and the success of the product in the end will belong to the whole group rather than to a particular individual. As Nakata (2006) puts it, collaborative learning creates appropriate psychological conditions for language learning, "it helps to minimize the perception of external regulation since it explicitly puts the initiatives and control of the learning process into the hands of learners themselves, as well as

harnessing their sense of peer group solidarity and shared responsibility” (p. 124). Richards & Rodgers (2001) also state that collaborative learning creates a positive affective classroom climate by fostering learner motivation and reducing learner stress. Hence, collaborative learning can be an effective method for reducing the L2 writing anxiety of prospective EFL teachers. ELT instructors should engage their students in collaborative writing activities at the same time acting as a facilitator helping students and groups. Furthermore, ELT students should work together not only in writing classes but they should also develop the autonomy of working cooperatively outside the classroom. In this way, as teacher candidates, they can enhance their social skills as well as improve their linguistic and writing capabilities.

Feedback is an important contributor to learner success. Both teacher and peer-feedback is crucial particularly in the development of writing skill. Thus, lack of adequate proper feedback can lead to anxiety in writing, which was also the case for this study, where 16 per cent of the subjects attributed their foreign language writing anxiety to insufficient and ineffective feedback. In order to reduce L2 writing anxiety, teachers should give consistent and clear feedback, and their responses to students’ writing should be constructive, meaning that their feedback must be directed at improving poor writing skills or reinforcing good performance. Negative comments or harsh criticism can decrease learner motivation leading to a loss of interest in writing classes, bringing about anxiety in consequence. Teachers should also encourage peer-feedback in the classroom to create a supportive social learning context for learners to write in. Harmer (2004) states that peer-feedback is an important element in the writing process because it has the benefit of encouraging students to work cooperatively, solving the problem of “students reacting too passively to teacher responses” (p. 115). Ferris (2003) further suggests that teachers should not give up providing feedback themselves or encouraging peer response, and they should check their feedback practices to see if their feedback is clear and responsive to the needs of individual students or written texts. She also states that teachers should foster peer-feedback in the classroom and make students revise their written work to see if they have understood and can make use of the feedback provided for them.

Teachers also should achieve a balance between mechanics and content in their responses to students' writing, in other words, they should focus on the ideas /messages of written works as well as sentence structures, organization, and punctuation, etc. More importantly, teachers must give their feedback in accordance with the needs of their learners. If a clash occurs between the teacher's feedback style and students' expectations, anxiety can arise. Hence, as language teachers we should give feedback considering the individual needs of our students and the characteristics of writing genres, and accordingly adopt several roles as suggested by Harmer (2004), sometimes being an examiner when students expect evaluation for their performance, or acting as an audience responding to students' ideas in their written works, or as an assistant helping students along, or a resource when students need information and guidance, an evaluator commenting on the process and students' performance, or an editor when students need help with the rearrangement of their pieces of writing. Therefore, appropriate effective feedback to student writing can play a significant role in diminishing L2 writing anxiety.

Keeping portfolios and journal writing are important learning activities for the development of proficiency and language skills, and they can play a significant role in decreasing anxiety in L2 writing. Portfolios are compilations of students' written work, tests, self-assessment forms, peer-feedback and teacher reflections. Portfolios act as a concrete evidence of learners' development by displaying their improved linguistic ability over time. That's why, by keeping portfolios students can gain autonomy by monitoring their own language development. Arnold (1999) states that portfolio keeping combines the two main goals of learner-centered instruction by enabling students to acquire the required language skills and attitudes, and by helping them develop a critical awareness of their own role as active participants in the learning process, being capable of evaluating their own progress and the learning arrangements. Kemp & Toperoff (as cited in Nuan, 2004) also argue that portfolios are advantageous in that they show a clear profile of learner capabilities, enable students to study without pressure and time constraints in collaboration with peers, create awareness of learners' own progress, demonstrate student efforts and development over time, enhance independent and active learning, highlight individual differences, and develop social skills. Moreover, Öztürk

& Çeçen's (2007) action research with fifteen prospective EFL teachers shows that portfolio keeping is effective in coping with the foreign language writing anxiety, and that the experience with portfolios may affect prospective teachers' future teaching practices in a positive way. Therefore, portfolio keeping should be an indispensable component of the curricula of the ELT programs at universities to help prospective EFL teachers experience less anxiety and develop positive attitudes towards teaching L2 writing in their future teaching careers.

Along with portfolio keeping, journal writing can also act as a valuable activity in diminishing anxiety in writing. By writing diaries or journals students can both improve their writing skill and engage in reflective and critical thinking. Journal writing can also provide a kind of privacy between the teacher and the student, since the student knows that the journal he/she writes will only be read by the teacher, he/she will feel free to write about any problem in his/her learning process that he/she are reluctant to express in the presence of peers. Richards (1998) states that journal writing offers experience which fosters a reflective orientation towards language learning, helping learners understand their own self-development and encouraging a "creative interaction" between the learner and the instructor. Likewise, Harmer (2004) further suggests that journal writing is beneficial because it provides an opportunity for learner introspection by enabling students to reflect on what and how they are learning, and it allows students freedom of expression by giving them privacy and by saving them from having to obey the rigid constraints of writing associated with such genres as letters, reports, or narratives, etc., also it helps to develop writing skills by boosting learner autonomy in writing, and it enhances student-teacher dialogue by creating a confidential channel of communication between them. Hence, journal keeping can be a good option for prospective EFL teachers to cope with their writing anxiety. ELT instructors should encourage journal writing not only in writing classes but also in other content-based and methodology courses, where students have to carry out their written assignments in the target language.

Instructors can reduce both writing anxiety and the general student anxiety by establishing a good rapport with students. Teachers can be a major source of anxiety if they put a huge distance between students and themselves and disregard their students'

needs, but if they behave in a friendly way and create a positive atmosphere in the classroom, anxiety will be diminished or destroyed and the learning process will be facilitated. As Harmer (2007) points out, “a significant feature in the intrinsic motivation of students will depend on their perception of what the teacher thinks of them, and how they are treated” (p. 25). Thus, in order to achieve successful language teaching, teachers should first understand their learners, listen to them, respect them and recognize their individual needs. In foreign language writing, teachers should bring variety to the classroom, choose topics that students are interested in, set clear goals, and give feedback as much as possible before finally evaluating students’ written works. They should also encourage pair or group work, and motivate students that they will succeed if they have faith in themselves. Instructors can achieve a successful rapport with students if they act as facilitators and collaborators rather than as an authority only giving lectures and evaluating papers.

As well as prospective teachers and instructors the ELT departments of universities have responsibility in diminishing the foreign language writing anxiety. One of the sources of writing anxiety is the fact that students do not practice writing enough. Giving students writing courses three or four hours a week in the first year of their study may not be sufficient in developing their writing skills given that ELT students come from an exam-oriented educational background where the productive language skills are most often ignored. More hours should be allocated to the writing course, if that is not possible, writing can be integrated with some other courses. To reduce foreign language writing anxiety, prospective EFL teachers, ELT instructors and ELT departments should work all together towards overcoming this problem, as one of the instructors who participated in this study noted,

This is a matter of Total Quality Management. Unless the whole staff give importance to correcting learners and teaching the correct forms, we cannot cover much ground.

(Nurgun AKAR, Assistant Professor at the ELT
department of Gazi University)

This study is significant because, first of all, it contributes much to the recently growing body of research on the writing anxiety of prospective teachers of English by analyzing this issue in a comprehensive way involving both students and instructors in this process. What's more, it proves the existence of the foreign language writing anxiety as a distinct skill-specific anxiety, drawing attention to the need for taking measures to cope with the negative affect that the writing skill creates for the learner. Lastly, since the sources of foreign language writing anxiety found in this study are similar to those in other studies conducted in different cultural and educational contexts, the coping strategies for reducing writing anxiety offered by this study will be beneficial cross-culturally not only for prospective EFL teachers and instructors but also for learners and teachers of English in general EFL or ESL settings.

5.5. Suggestions for Further Research

This study attempted to investigate the foreign language writing anxiety of prospective EFL teachers from the perspectives of both prospective teachers and university instructors. One limitation of this study originates from the fact that the subject group of prospective teachers were the students studying at the EFL teacher education department of a Turkish state university, thus the writing anxiety explored from the viewpoint of this group of participants may not be generalized to prospective teachers studying at other universities. Hence, further research can be suggested to look into the L2 writing anxiety of different groups of prospective EFL teachers at different schools. For instance, a study can be conducted to investigate the levels and the sources of the writing anxiety of pre-service EFL teachers studying at state and private universities to see whether the institution plays a significant role in the existence of the foreign language writing anxiety and whether it influences the factors causing this anxiety.

It is a widely known fact in the literature of foreign language teaching that learners usually tend to transfer their native language habits into their foreign language, and if there is a mismatch between the L1 and L2 rules, confusion can arise, creating anxiety in the learner. Therefore, native language writing habits can be a source of foreign language writing anxiety, for instance a learner who already feels anxious about

writing in his/her mother tongue is highly likely to experience anxiety when asked to write in a language other than his/her own. For this reason, a further study can be designed to research the sources of the native language writing anxiety of learners to understand if there is any match between the sources of L1 and L2 writing anxiety, and to offer remedial teaching accordingly.

Another suggestion for further studies is looking into the relationship between the foreign language writing anxiety and other affective variables such as motivation, self-esteem, introversion/extraversion, learner styles, and inhibition, etc. since anxiety is not the only factor affecting language learning.

Finally, future research can be carried out as a follow-up to this study. The effectiveness of the various strategies proposed by this study to reduce the foreign language writing anxiety can be tested out in experimental and longitudinal ways. For example, in order to assess whether journal writing is beneficial in the reduction of anxiety in L2 writing, a longitudinal study can be conducted on a group of learners, requiring them to write journals over a period of time and comparing the writing anxiety levels of the learners before and after the journal writing experience. Or, to determine the effect of process writing on the foreign language writing anxiety, an experimental study can be carried out consisting of two groups of participants, one group receiving process writing instruction, and the other one having no such instruction, and the results of the two groups in terms of their anxiety levels can be compared to see whether this writing activity helps to decrease the foreign language writing anxiety.

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APPENDICES

Appendix-A1

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al. (1986) – Original Version

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

17. I often feel like not going to my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

Appendix-A2

Back-translation of the FLCAS by Aydın (1999)

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English classes.
2. I am afraid of making mistakes in English classes.
3. I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in English classes.
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes.
6. During English classes, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.
8. I usually feel anxious during tests in English classes.
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English classes.
10. I worry about the consequences of failing English classes.
11. I can understand why some people get so upset over English classes.
12. In English classes, I get so nervous I forget things I know.
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in English classes.
14. I feel so nervous speaking English with native speakers.
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.
16. Even if I am well prepared for English classes, I feel anxious about them.
17. I often feel like not going to English classes.
18. I don't feel confident when I speak in English classes.
19. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes.
21. The more I study for English tests, the more confused I get.
22. I feel pressure to prepare very well for English classes.
23. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.
25. English classes move so quickly I worry about getting left behind.
26. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English classes.
27. When I am on my way to English classes, I feel very tense and nervous.
28. I get nervous when I don't understand every word my English teacher says.

29. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English.
30. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.
31. I feel anxious around native speakers of English.
32. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.

Appendix-A3

Turkish Version of the FLCAS by Aydın (1999)

AD SOYAD:

SINIF: 1. Sınıf 2. Sınıf 3. Sınıf 4. Sınıf

YAŞ:

CİNSİYET: Bayan Erkek

Bu anket sizin genel yabancı dil kaygınızı ölçmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Toplam 32 sorudur. Anketin sonuçları araştırma için kullanılacağından maddelere dikkatli ve samimi cevaplar vermenizi rica ediyoruz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

HER BİR İFADEYİ OKUDUKTAN SONRA SİZE EN UYGUN OLAN SEÇENEĞİ İŞARETLEYİNİZ.

		5. Her zaman	4. Sıklıkla	3. Bazen	2. Nadiren	1. Hiçbir zaman
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.					

		5. Her zaman	4. Sıklıkla	3. Bazen	2. Nadiren	1. Hiçbir zaman
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 sıkılıyorum.					
14.	İngilizceyi, ana dili İngilizce olan insanlarla konuşmak beni heyecanlandırıyor.					
15.	Öğretmenin hangi hataları düzelttiğini anlamamak beni endişelendiriyor.					
16.	İngilizce derslerinde, önceden çok iyi hazırlanmış olsam bile derste 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.	Diğer öğrencilerin benden daha iyi İngilizce konuştuğunu düşünüyorum.					

		5. Her zaman	4. Sıklıkla	3. Bazen	2. Nadiren	1. Hiçbir zaman
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.	İngilizceyi, ana dili İngilizce olan insanların yanında kullanırken rahatsız oluyorum.					
32.	İngilizce öğretmenim cevabına önceden hazırlanmadığım sorular sorduğunda heyecanlanıyorum.					

Appendix- B1

The Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) by Cheng (2004) – Original Version

Name:

Surname:

This questionnaire has been prepared to measure the anxiety you experience while writing in the foreign language. It consists of a total of 22 questions. We request you to give careful and sincere answers to the questions since the results will be used for research. Thanks for your participation.

AFTER YOU READ EVERY STATEMENT PUT A TICK (✓) TO THE OPTION WHICH SUITS YOU BEST.

		5. Strongly agree	4. Agree	3. Uncertain	2. Disagree	1. Strongly disagree
1	While writing in English, I am not nervous at all.					
2	I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint.					
3	While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated.					
4	I often choose to write down my thoughts in English.					
5	I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions.					
6	My mind often goes blank when I start to work on an English composition.					
7	I do not worry that my English compositions are a lot worse than others.					
8	I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure.					
9	If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade.					

		5. Strongly agree	4. Agree	3. Uncertain	2. Disagree	1. Strongly disagree
10	I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English.					
11	My thoughts become jumbled when I write English compositions under time constraint.					
12	Unless I have no choice, I would not use English to write compositions.					
13	I often feel panic when I write English compositions under time constraint.					
14	I am afraid that the other students would deride my English composition if they read it.					
15	I freeze up when unexpectedly asked to write English compositions.					
16	I would do my best to excuse myself if asked to write English compositions.					
17	I do not worry at all about what other people would think of my English compositions.					
18	I usually seek every possible chance to write English compositions outside of class.					
19	I usually feel my whole body rigid and tense when I write English compositions.					
20	I am afraid of my English composition being chosen as a sample for discussion in class.					
21	I am not afraid at all that my English compositions would be rated as very poor.					
22	Whenever possible, I would use English to write compositions.					

Appendix-B2

Back-translation of the SLWAI

1. I never feel anxious while I am writing in English.
2. I feel my heart beat while I am writing an English composition in a limited time.
3. I feel worried and anxious while I am writing an English composition in a limited time.
4. I often prefer to write my thoughts in English.
5. I usually try to avoid writing an English composition as much as possible.
6. When I start studying on an English composition, the information in my brain is mostly erased.
7. It does not make me worried that my English compositions are worse than those of my friends.
8. I tremble and sweat while I am writing an English composition in a limited time.
9. If my English composition will be evaluated, I feel worried about getting a very low grade.
10. I try to avoid the situations where I have to write in English as much as possible.
11. While I am writing an English composition in a limited time, my thoughts get mixed up.
12. If I had an option, I would not write compositions in English.
13. I mostly get panicked while I am writing an English composition in a limited time.
14. I feel afraid that other students make fun of English composition when they read it.
15. When I am asked to write an English composition at an unexpected time, I get shocked.
16. If I were asked to write an English composition, I would excuse myself as much as possible.
17. I never feel anxious about what other people think about my English compositions.

18. I usually try to get every possible opportunity to write English compositions out of the classroom.
19. I usually feel my whole body stiff and tense while I am writing an English composition.
20. I feel afraid that my English composition is selected as an example for discussion in the classroom.
21. I never feel afraid that my English compositions are evaluated as imperfect.
22. I would prefer English as much as possible when I am writing a composition.

Appendix-B3

Turkish Version of the SLWAI

Bu anket sizin yabancı dilde yazma kaygınızı ölçmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Toplam 22 sorudur. Bu anketin sonuçları araştırma için kullanılacağından sorulara dikkatli ve samimi cevaplar vermenizi rica ediyoruz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

HER BİR İFADEYİ OKUDUKTAN SONRA SİZE EN UYGUN OLAN SEÇENEĞİ İŞARETLEYİNİZ.

		5. kesinlikle katılıyorum	4. katılıyorum	3. kararsızım / fikrim yok	2. katılmıyorum	1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1.	İngilizce yazarken hiç kaygılanmıyorum.					
2.	Kısıtlı zamanda İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken kalbimin çarptığını hissediyorum.					
3.	Değerlendirileceğini/ notlandırılacağını bildiğimde İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken kendimi endişeli ve rahatsız hissediyorum.					
4.	Düşüncelerimi sık sık İngilizce yazmayı tercih ediyorum.					
5.	İngilizce kompozisyon yazmaktan genelde elimden geldiğince kaçınmaya çalışıyorum.					
6.	İngilizce kompozisyon üzerinde çalışmaya başladığımda çoğu kez zihnimdeki bilgiler siliniyor.					
7.	İngilizce kompozisyonlarımın diğer arkadaşlarımdan çok daha kötü olması beni endişelendiriyor.					

		5. kesinlikle katılıyorum	4. katılıyorum	3. kararsızım / fikrim yok	2. katılmıyorum	1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
8.	Kısıtlı zamanda İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken titriyorum veya terliyorum.					
9.	Eğer İngilizce kompozisyonlarım değerlendirilecekse çok düşük not almaktan endişeleniyorum.					
10.	İngilizce yazmam gereken durumlardan elimden geldiğince kaçınmaya çalışıyorum.					
11.	Kısıtlı zamanda İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken düşüncelerim birbirine giriyor.					
12.	Seçeneğim olsaydı kompozisyon yazarken İngilizce kullanmazdım.					
13.	Kısıtlı zamanda İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken çoğu kez panikleniyorum.					
14.	Diğer öğrencilerin İngilizce kompozisyonumla okudukları zaman alay etmelerinden korkuyorum.					
15.	Beklenmedik bir zamanda İngilizce kompozisyon yazmam istendiğinde donup kalıyorum.					
16.	İngilizce kompozisyon yazmam istenseydi elimden geldiğince kendimi mazur gösterirdim.					
17.	Diğer insanların İngilizce kompozisyonlarım hakkında ne düşüneceğinden hiç endişelenmiyorum.					

		5. kesinlikle katılıyorum	4. katılıyorum	3. kararsızım / fikrim yok	2. katılmıyorum	1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
18.	Sınıf dışında İngilizce kompozisyon yazmak için genelde mümkün olan her fırsatı elde etmeye çalışırım.					
19.	İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken genelde bütün vücudumun kaskatı ve gergin olduğunu hissediyorum.					
20.	İngilizce kompozisyonumun sınıfta tartışma örneği olarak seçilmesinden korkuyorum.					
21.	İngilizce kompozisyonlarımın çok başarısız olarak değerlendirilmesinden hiç korkmuyorum.					
22.	Kompozisyon yazmak için mümkün olduğunca her zaman İngilizce kullanırdım.					

Appendix-C1

The Questionnaire of the Causes of ESL Writing Anxiety (QCEWA) by Zhang (2011) - Original Version

This questionnaire has been prepared to determine the factors leading to your writing anxiety in the foreign language. Please read the statements carefully and choose the option which suits you best. Thanks for your participation.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.I usually have no idea about the topic and what to write, in particular when I write English compositions under time constraint.					
2.While writing English compositions, I often encounter some linguistic difficulties, such as inadequate mastery of vocabulary, simple sentence structures, and grammatical errors.					
3.I am afraid of negative evaluation of my English compositions from teacher and fellow students.					
4.My English writing skill stands still, which makes me feel upset.					
5.I am lack of writing practice inside and outside classroom.					
6. I do not think I have a good command of composition techniques. For instance, I am too much concerned about the forms and formats.					
7. I do not think that the teacher's feedback on my English writing is sufficient and effective.					
8.I am much worried about writing English compositions in exams.					

Appendix-C2

Back-translation of the QCEWA

- 1) Especially when I am writing an English composition in a limited time, I do not usually have an idea about the subject and what I am going to write.
- 2) While I am writing an English composition, I frequently have some linguistic difficulties such as lack of vocabulary knowledge, simple sentence structures and grammar mistakes.
- 3) I feel afraid that my English compositions are negatively evaluated by my teachers and classmates.
- 4) My English writing skill does not progress and this makes me worried.
- 5) I do not have adequate writing practice inside and outside the classroom.
- 6) I do not think that I have good knowledge of the techniques of composition writing. For instance, I feel too anxious about the language structures and page layout.
- 7) I do not think that the feedback of the teacher regarding my English compositions is sufficient and efficient.
- 8) I feel very anxious about writing English compositions during exams.

Appendix-C3

Turkish Version of the QCEWA and the Open-ended Question

Bu anket yabancı dilde yazma kaygınıza yol açan nedenleri belirlemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Anketteki ifadeleri dikkatli bir şekilde okuyunuz ve size en uygun olan seçeneği işaretletiniz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

	kesinlikle katılıyorum	katılıyorum	Kararsızım / fikrim yok	katılmıyorum	kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1.Özellikle kısıtlı zamanda İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken genelde konu ve ne yazacağım hakkında bir fikrim olmuyor.					
2.İngilizce kompozisyon yazarken çoğu kez kelime eksikliği, basit cümle yapıları ve dilbilgisi hataları gibi birtakım dilbilimsel zorluklar yaşıyorum.					
3.İngilizce kompozisyonlarımın öğretmen ve sınıf arkadaşlarım tarafından olumsuz bir şekilde değerlendirilmesinden korkuyorum.					
4.İngilizce yazma becerim ilerlemiyor ve bu durum beni üzüyor.					
5.Sınıf içinde ve dışında yeterince yazma pratiğine sahip değilim.					
6.Kompozisyon tekniklerine iyi bir şekilde hakim olduğumu düşünmüyorum. Örneğin, dil yapıları ve kompozisyon formatı/ düzeni beni çok fazla endişelendiriyor.					

Appendix-D2

Sample Entries of Instructors' Responses

1.

- 1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?

The very first reason for Turkish University students' writing anxiety is the educational background they have. As the students are trained in how to answer multiple choice questions for about 7 years during their secondary education, the students feel uneasy writing out sentences and compose a paragraph or an essay. This type of background also hinders their creativity and as they have always been given options to choose from, they cannot come up with original ideas to write about. Even the pre-writing techniques they learn in writing lessons do not help as they find those quite structured and unhelpful because they think such activities hinder their creativity. The other reason why the students are anxious to write is their limited linguistic competence. Because the students have not written extensively before, their grammar is usually insufficient to write about complex thoughts, and they are well aware of this. When the students cannot express what they want to, they are reluctant to write and feel even more anxious. The source of this problem actually lies in students' reading habits. Students do not read as they used to before which prevents them from being subjected to extensive input that they may find useful in writing. When they do not read, it is quite difficult for them to be exposed to correct grammar. Moreover, because they do not read, their vocabulary usually remains inadequate to express their opinions, which in turn causes anxiety. One another reason for writing anxiety occurs at exam times. Usually students feel anxious when they need to compose something in a limited time. The last reason for writing anxiety is the organization they need to follow while writing a paragraph or an essay in English. The students usually want to write as they like, and when they have to obey some organizational rules and follow an organizational pattern they feel anxious not to be able to reflect their ideas within the required organizational pattern.

- 2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?

The measures I try to take in my writing classes are usually insufficient since as I have stated in the previous question, the primary reason for writing anxiety is students' insufficient background and there is no time to compensate for this in university. Still, I try to motivate students to read and improve their vocabulary and grammar which will eventually contribute to their writing and make them more confident while writing. I guess their reading teachers do this as well. The other thing I do is the spontaneous brainstorming activity, which we later turn into outlines in the classroom. I guess this gives them confidence. Realizing that it can be done at a relatively short time, the students (at least those that have higher motivation for learning) seem to attempt trying out strategies of this sort.

As for time restrictions, I usually try to explain students that when used effectively, even in limited time they can write an essay. For this purpose, I usually use a time scale to manage time in timed writing. Here, I encourage them to benefit from pre-writing strategies and prepare a neat outline before actually writing anything. To give an example, if the students have 90 minutes to write their essay, I tell them just to do some pre-writing activity for about 20-25 minutes and produce as many ideas as possible. I also tell them to turn these in an outline in about 15 mins. When all this is done, most of the ideas that are going to be used in the essay and in which order they are going to be presented are ready. The student now has about 50 minutes to write the essay and usually if the previous two stages are done successfully, the writing part generally does not take longer than 35 minutes, which leaves time for editing and proofreading. The students who applied this method have reported that they felt more comfortable as they did not experience mental blocks as they used to.

I also like peer-feedback activities because they give the students a feeling that they are not alone. Moreover, they sometimes become even more confident being able to reflect on somebody else's writing. However, we usually have a very busy schedule, so the times that I use peer-feedback activities in the classroom are quite limited. Yet, even in such cases, I generally assign peer-feedback activity to the students.

Actually, because what I usually teach is academic writing and the rules of APA referencing style, my students are usually anxious about this style of writing where they have to do some research and cite them properly. I have not found any strategy to cope with the anxiety of having to write obeying APA rules, yet, despite my several attempts to do in-class exercises, including searching a source related to a particular topic from the Internet and practicing the citation - all live in the classroom, I have not been able to solve this problem.

3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?

The very first thing I suggest is to read which is of critical importance in generating ideas and vocabulary building. The other thing is obviously the use of pre-writing strategies. Most students do these activities as a part of assignment, but they usually do not benefit from these strategies when they are not obliged to. Lastly, I suggest using strategies for time-management (like the one I explained above). Another strategy is peer-feedback which makes students discover that they are not the only one.

2.

- 1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?

I am not an ELT instructor though I used to be long time ago. As for the crux of the matter, I think there are two basic reasons for L2 writing anxiety among Turkish EFL students, one of which is universal and the other being Turkey-specific. First, many L2 students do not know how to operationalize their L2 competence to produce skill-based performance. This is as much true for speaking as for writing. It is one thing to obtain a passing score on a multiple-choice proficiency test, it is another thing to proceduralize this essentially declarative knowledge into performing writing. That is, the transfer from 'know that' to 'know how' is quite difficult (some applied linguists even find it impossible). It is natural for (cognitive) difficulty to give rise to (affective) anxiety. 2) Turkish secondary schools do not offer any courses in native-language rhetoric. Thus, Turkish university students have little notion of such rhetorical constructs as coherence (not cohesion, mind you), organization, purpose, register, reader-friendliness and what not even in their native language. Add to this the detriments of the SMS culture and you have a 'zombie' as a profile. When asked to write in the L2, the foregone conclusion is clear: the zombie is bound to experience writing anxiety.

- 2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?

- As part of the foundation programme at the university, offer students a writing course (not a 'dilbilgisi' course) in Turkish, aiming to compose properly in their native language.
- Simultaneously, offer a course in English rhetoric.
- Improve their knowledge of the English language as much as you can (I am sure this is already being done but since you asked ...)

- 3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?

The more equipped they become with the requisite subskills (e.g. critical thinking, organizational skills, appropriate and accurate language use) in both Turkish and

English in a procedural sense, the less anxiety they will experience when it comes to writing. Knowledge (both declarative and procedural) is sure to kill fear (including writing anxiety).

3.

- 1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?

Depending on the level of the students, the anxiety factors may vary. The type of incompetency leads to anxiety because the outcome is full of problems. The incompetency could be:

- a. They are simply afraid of making mistakes.
- b. **language use;** wrong subject-verb agreement, tense marker, plural marker, spelling mistakes. Insufficient structure.
- c. **lexical;** inappropriate word choice, e.g. karakul (black arm), I am late because of your face. Insufficient vocabulary.
- d. **discoursal;** student cannot use the right expression, e.g. have breakfast, get on the bus, take off his shoes, etc. or student does not know the appropriate syntactic structure, e.g. s/he wants offer some tea but she does not know/remember “would you like to “ pattern.
- e. **organizational;** student is not aware of topic sentence, supporting ideas relationship in a paragraph organization or not enough exemplification/usage of discourse markers in an essay. No transition from one paragraph to another. Student does not have any style, format and register.
- f. **Content;** student does not have enough information about the topic asked.
- g. **Self-confidence problems** because of the previous bad experience in primary and secondary schools.
- h. **Teacher’s attitude towards language teaching;** behaviourist; provides negative feedback only on language use and mechanics, and no feedback on content, organization, vocabulary. Thus, teacher’s destructive attitude rather than constructive one.
- i. **Peer pressure;**

2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?

Since students are not exposed to any writing tasks until they start their university education, we have to begin from scratch. They should be controlled and guided when they improve their inner criteria, they should be encouraged to write freely.

- i. They should write for a purpose.
- ii. They should write to communicate an idea.
- iii. Initially, they should be provided a model (paragraph, essay).
- iv. They should go through the process writing steps under the guidance of a skillful teacher who is constructive, reflective and can build a good rapport with his/her students.

3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?

Process writing and Portfolio assessment is the best one to help students improve their writing. Technology could be added for a successful blended learning like, moodle, blog, or a website.

4.

1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?

-insufficient vocabulary. They don't read much in L2. They're accustomed to tests so when they're asked to write something, they can't express their ideas clearly. Although they know grammar by heart, they have problems in producing. They are not good at punctuation and spelling. Their being aware of all these problems causes anxiety.

2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?

- To begin with familiar topics
- to encourage them to read
- to ask them to write compositions, and to correct their papers,
- using different materials such as posters and music to create an anxiety-free environment
- to teach the use of graphic organizers

3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?

- Reading,
- learning and using outlines
- Using graphic organizers

5.

1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?

I believe that personal reasons are the main sources of any type of anxiety students experience in learning a language. If the learners believe that their ability is low in communicating in the written mode of the language and they cannot achieve to express themselves while writing in English, they will suffer from language anxiety. Similarly, comparing themselves with the other students in the classroom, having high personal expectations, having irrational beliefs such as trying to translate from L1 cause writing anxiety.

Teachers might also create anxiety in the language learners. If they have a harsh attitude towards students' mistakes or if they have an inconsistent error correction strategy, if they do not give informative feedback to the students written products learners will definitely suffer from anxiety in the classroom. Similarly, teachers' attitudes towards the student themselves are very important in what learners feel.

Finally, I believe that if the teachers' method in the writing class does not match with the students expectations or their needs we might have anxious student in the classes.

2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?

First of all, learners' beliefs towards themselves and towards the language learning process should be identified at the beginning of the learning process and teachers should deal with the irrational beliefs throughout the process.

Keeping diaries is strongly suggested in the literature in dealing with anxiety problem and I personally believe that it works. While writing about their ideas and feelings about the learning process, learners become aware of themselves, the learning process, their problems, the other students and realize that what they are perceiving as a big problem is not actually that big.

Teachers should also be made aware of the language anxiety problem and they should be warned that students might be suffering from anxiety if they are not participating in the lesson. They should be reminded that their attitudes towards the students and towards their errors are extremely important for the learners.

3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?

I would tell the following to the students;

- Believe in yourself and your potential. You can succeed anything if you want.
- Set realistic and reachable goals for your learning.
- Focus on the process of your learning not only on the final product.
- Keep a language diary.
- Realize that you can learn a lot from your mistakes, so don't be afraid of making mistakes.
- Don't be afraid of taking risk. There is nothing you will lose.

6.

- 1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?

First of all, I should confess that I have never taught writing courses, but I will try to express my opinion about it based on my observations. As far as I know students feel anxious because they do not know what to write or how to write. They do not have enough language to express their opinions. Even though they have good command of English, they may not have enough background knowledge (information and or ideas) to express. Whether it is written or oral to be able to say something, one should have something to say. If a student has to write something and if he does not have anything or very little to express then he can be anxious. The other reason if the teachers focus on too much accuracy, and if they are correcting every single mistake which students make, that can also lead to anxiety.

- 2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?

As I mentioned before, I have never taught writing courses so the measures that I have mentioned here can be considered as my humble suggestions only. First of all, students should be taught that writing is a means of communication. Students should learn how to write and how to communicate through written language. Then, there should be some pre-writing activities in terms of ideas and language. The topic that they are going to write about should not be announced out of blue. The topics should be familiar to students. There should be a lot of drafting and editing. Correction should be gentle and encouraging. Students should be encouraged to read different kinds of materials. A good reader can also be a good writer or at least someone who has something to say.

- 3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?

My suggestions to students to read a lot and to read different genres. To practice a lot, as practice makes perfect. I should also make sure that all students understand that writing is a process, and it takes time. They should be patient and never give up trying. One can only fail when he/she stops trying.

7.

- 1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?

Lack of proficiency especially in L2 structure, L2 vocabulary depth and breadth, L2 rhetoric.

- 2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?

More dialogue between instructors and L2 users during the writing process (but I mean throughout the pre- while and post- stages), more focus on process rather than the product (drafting is a good way to achieve this)

- 3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?

Since learner strategies are vast and very individualistic in nature, it is difficult to suggest specific ones. Yet, in general, I may argue that strategies are of high importance considering the fact that they help L2 users develop language competence necessary for the writing skill along with the other skills of course. Both visible (behaviors, techniques, steps) and unseen (mental processes) strategies are important. To reduce the anxiety, it is important to give time for the planning phase before the L2 user starts writing. They may ask for verifications and clarifications. They need to receive feedback from different channels (instructors or peers). They need to reflect upon their writing process and share these reflections with the instructor in a well-structured dialogue.

8.

- 1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?
 - Their low proficiency level in L2 (in terms of grammar and vocabulary)
 - Not having background knowledge on writing topics
 - Their lack of interest in the topic given
 - Not being accustomed to writing in their L1 either
 - Low self ability in their L2 performance

- 2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?
 - Peer check/evaluation
 - Writing checklists- so that they know what is expected from them
 - Pre-writing activities to form/activate their background knowledge

- 3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?
 - Reading in L2
 - Reading example essays
 - Asking their friends to check their essays
 - Re-reading their essays a number of times
 - Telling them that writing improves as they keep writings

9.

- 1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?

There are several reasons causing that. The biggest reason at tertiary level I guess is students' previous writing experiences. They receive very limited writing instruction before they start university and they think writing improves through drills or imitating others' ideas. They find it really hard to create ideas and to organize them in a clear way. Therefore they need ample time practicing to learn how to analyze sample texts, to create a logical path for their own ideas and arguments and to improve their own writing in several rounds of revision process.

- 2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?

Students must know that writing skill cannot be developed overnight. They need a lot of exposure with sample texts and real practice under the guidance of their teacher. Student texts should be first jointly constructed in groups under the guidance of the teacher. This enables anxious students to feel less stressed. Eventually in independent text construction students should be prompted for better analysis of their writing.

- 3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?

To beat their anxiety, students first of all need to learn how to carry out tasks cooperatively with their friends and their teacher. They should feel free to use such available sources as their peers, teacher and written materials to seek guidance. But at the same time they should not fall into traps of 'imitating others' writing' while trying to ease their stress. Finally, they must be aware of the fact that writing skills take time to improve just like any other skill so they must be ready to spend the time and effort needed.

10.

- 1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?
 - The inability and/or the perception of being unable to write
 - The fear of making mistakes
 - Inefficient writing instruction in L1
 - Reluctance to write
 - Learners' not getting sufficient and effective feedback from their teachers on their writing
 - Not employing peer-feedback practice effectively

- 2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?
 - Showing students that it is normal to make mistakes
 - Analyzing sample written works (both good and bad)
 - Providing feedback which is not harsh (in a facilitative way)
 - Giving them some writing tips to become better writers
 - Employing pre-writing techniques to prepare them to write
 - At the end of writing, telling them that they were able to write

- 3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?
 - Writing as much as possible
 - Asking for peer feedback as well as teacher feedback
 - Reading a lot about what they'll write before they start
 - Use a number of pre-writing techniques
 - Not leaving the writing to the last minute
 - Rewriting until they are really satisfied with the product

11.

- 1) As an ELT instructor, what factors do you think cause L2 writing anxiety among students?

There are several reasons for this. First, it is mostly attributable to the fact that students, by and large, do not tend to write in L1 in their daily lives. Since this is the case, they can not transfer this ability to L2. No matter how often they WRITE (tweet or post) something on social networking, they do not find it easy to write in whatever language. Second, they do not have much to write. As Krashen puts it, students need to get a lot of input to get output. Our students, in this regard, do not have many things to write about. Or they have few things to organize. Third, they do not know how to express (write) themselves. Even in daily lives, they may not be able to organize their ideas smoothly.

- 2) What measures do you use (or should be used) to reduce L2 writing anxiety in classes?

Making a mistake is a part of one's progress. If this is the idea that students have, then we can talk about reducing anxiety I suppose.

- 3) What strategies can you suggest for students to cope with L2 writing anxiety?

They should be encouraged to write reflections after each class. At first, they can even be done in L1 just so as to lead them to WRITE whatever. As long as we do have students think it is not something horrible but something ordinary, we can talk about decreasing the level of anxiety in classes. They should believe it is a part of assessment as well. This is related to washback effect. If we teach writing, we have to test their writing skills. Otherwise, it would not make any sense at all.

12.

L₂ WRITING ANXIETY

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1. Factors that cause it
 - a. More than anything else (since it takes ages and tremendous effort to acquire it), a lack of a working linguistic background as regards structure, vocabulary and appropriateness
 - b. A lack of practice in organizing one's ideas and the lay-out of texts
 - c. A lack of feasible ideas on a given topic

2. Measures to use to reduce it
 - a. No marks given at the start; also, Ls given the chance to correct themselves
 - b. Simple NLP input and practical exercises to improve learners' self-confidence
 - c. Frequent writing tasks starting with the interpretation of good and poor writing, and then moving on to self-produced writing

3. Suggested strategies to cope with it
(The numbers refer to the entries above.)
 - 1a. This is a matter of Total Quality Management. Unless the whole staff give importance to correcting Ls and teaching the correct forms, we cannot cover much ground.
 - 1b. Teachers should teach academic writing and the steps of organization, following brainstorming and sequencing ideas logically.
 - 1c. Supply background information on the given topic.
 - 2a. To get Ls used to noticing and correcting their own mistakes, ask them to write on the left-hand side of their sheets, leaving the right half to you. Establish a simple code of correction (e.g. underlining : something is wrong here; ^ : s t. is missing; O : s t. to be omitted; ¶ : new paragraph). Write the type of the mistake on the right. This may need supporting with collocation questions. They can work first indivi-

dually, then in groups and lastly under the T's guidance to find out the correct forms. Laptops for projection, texts on OHP's or even a few copies a L makes of his original copy to share with his group members will be good enough for this. Do common mistakes with the whole class and encourage them to take notes. Ask Ls to express what they have learnt through this particular writing task. Lastly assign homework where they make sentences with the newly acquired correct forms.

2b. Supply some psychological input, sample success stories from real life, catchy sayings, and the like, all of which lead into the fact that what we say to our brain results in what we do, which in turn leads into "give yourself positive messages about being able to write." Later when you start giving marks, they may get negatively shocked, so warn them about this and at the same time, challenge them saying "Keep these to compare with your later productions, and you will be positively shocked this time."

2c. Both poor and good samples of writing make Ls' perception and concepts keener. Analyzing these and doing class corrections as well as scaffolding Ls before and while they write requires a great deal of time and effort. Speaking and writing courses at our Foreign Language Teacher Training Faculties are the most neglected ones. With only one year allotted to both areas for three hours a week or so cannot solve our problem. Home assignments may save us some class time, but they put a big time-and-effort burden on the shoulders of the writing teachers. Therefore, more time has to be spared for writing, if not legitimately, by subsuming it into a different course.