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SPEAKING ANXIETY AND ITS EFFECTS ON SPOKEN PRODUCTION OF EFL STUDENTS

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The Subject of the Thesis : Speaking Anxiety and its Effects on Spoken Production of EFL Students
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ABSTRACT

In this study, 120 students who are enrolled in the English Preparation Department at a foundation University for the 2021–2022 academic year will have their English speaking anxiety determined. Additionally, it seeks to determine the relationship between a student's anxiety level and their gender, kind of school, and age. Horwitz's (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale was used to get the desired results. Students were asked 18 questions in order to find out whether they experienced anxiety when speaking in English, what scenarios they experienced anxiety the most in, and whether they had any coping mechanisms. The findings indicated that the participants had a mild level of speaking anxiety. It was discovered that there is a big variation between the genders of students and their level of speaking nervousness. Speaking anxiety was more prevalent in female students than in male pupils. On the other hand, speaking anxiety among students' ages and school kinds did not differ significantly. SPSS 28.0 was used to evaluate the quantitative data. The study's quantitative research findings showed that prep school students had a modest amount of anxiety about speaking English. When they had to speak in front of others unprepared, students experienced nervousness. Making grammatical errors, speaking in front of an audience, having problems remembering the right vocabulary, and students' lack of confidence in their English language proficiency were shown to be the main reasons of speaking anxiety among participants.This abstract emphasizes the importance of acknowledging and addressing speaking English anxiety as an integral part of second language acquisition.

Keywords: speaking English anxiety, language anxiety, second language acquisition, language learning, coping strategies.

Tezin adı: Konuşma Kaygısı ve İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Öğrencilerin Sözlü Üretimi Üzerindeki Etkileri

Hazırlayan: Asil VATANSEVER

ÖZET

Bu çalışmada 2021–2022 eğitim-öğretim yılında bir vakıf üniversitesinde İngilizce Hazırlık Bölümü okuyan 120 öğrencinin İngilizce konuşma kaygıları tespit edilecektir. Ayrıca bu çalışma, öğrencinin kaygı düzeyi ile cinsiyeti, okul türü ve yaşı arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemeye çalışacaktır. İstenilen sonuçlara ulaşmak için Horwitz'in (1986) Yabancı Dil Sınıf Kaygısı Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Öğrencilere İngilizce konuşurken kaygı yaşayıp yaşamadıklarını, kaygıyı en çok hangi senaryolarda yaşadıklarını ve herhangi bir baş etme mekanizmasına sahip olup olmadıklarını öğrenmek için 18 soru sorulmuştur. Bulgular, katılımcıların hafif düzeyde konuşma kaygısına sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğrencilerin cinsiyetleri ile konuşma kaygısı düzeyleri arasında büyük bir farklılık olduğu keşfedilmiştir. Konuşma kaygısı kız öğrencilerde erkek öğrencilere göre daha fazladır. Öte yandan, öğrencilerin yaşları ve okul türleri arasında konuşma kaygısı anlamlı bir farklılık göstermemiştir. Nicel verilerin değerlendirilmesinde SPSS 28.0 kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın nicel araştırma bulguları, hazırlık okulu öğrencilerinin İngilizce konuşma konusunda orta düzeyde kaygı yaşadıklarını göstermiştir. Öğrenciler başkalarının önünde hazırlıksız bir şekilde konuşmak zorunda kaldıklarında gerginlik yaşadılar. Dilbilgisi hataları yapmak, seyirci önünde konuşmak, doğru kelimeleri hatırlamakta güçlük çekmek ve öğrencilerin İngilizce yeterliliklerine güvenmemeleri, katılımcılar arasındaki konuşma kaygısının ana nedenleri olarak gösterilmiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Konuşma becerisi, kaygı, duygular, dil öğrenme, yabancı dil

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SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BFPF **:** Big Five Personality Factors

CA **:** Communication Apprehension

CEFR **:** Common European Framework of Reference

EFL **:** English as a Foreign Language

EIL **:** English as an International Language

ELF **:** English as a Lingua Franca

ELT **:** English Language Teaching

EPP **:** English Preparatory Program

FLA **:** Foreign Language Anxiety

FLE **:** Foreign Language Education

FLSA **:** Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

FNE **:** Fear of Negative Evaluation

IC **:** Interactional Competence

L1 **:** First Language

L2 WTC **:** Willingness to Communicate in a Second/Foreign Language

L2 **:** Second/Foreign Language

L2MSS **:** L2 Motivational Self System

SLA **:** Second Language Acquisition

SOLE **:** Self Organized Learning Environment

WTC **:** Willingness to Communicate

1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the background of the current study is initially explained with relevant previous studies and followed by the statement of the problem. Next, it proceeds with the purpose of the study and the research questions are formulated in line with the purpose. The chapter then sheds light on the significance of the study. After providing the hypotheses, the limitations of the study are presented. The chapter comes to a close with the definitions of the major terms used throughout the thesis.

1.1. Background of the Study

Among all four skills, speaking is regarded as one of the most important skills while learning an L2. Besides, it is seen as a fundamental objective in the language learning process. Apparently, English is one of the most popular languages learned as an L2 around the world due to various reasons. Most people use it in their daily lives for education, work, or personal necessities. Although language education includes improving different skills, such as listening, reading, and writing, people generally associate proficiency in a language with speaking accurately and fluently. As highlighted by Alahem (2013), speaking is seen as one of the indicators of how proficient a person is. Learners also generally associate success in foreign language education with the ability to speak the target language as it is the skill they can mostly use in real life.

This perception related to speaking ability results from its role in communication with other people. Communication is an indispensable part of our lives, and using a foreign language is emphasized with the idea that “learners have to talk in order to learn” (Skehan, 1989, p. 48) According to MacIntyre and Charos (1996), communication is more than a tool for language learning. In addition, many L2 acquisition theories support the importance of output while learning a language. For example, Swain (1985) highlights that it is impossible to acquire a language

without the production of comprehensible input. Also, Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory (for a review, see Marginson & Dang, 2017) declares that language develops from social interaction.

Along with the importance of speaking ability, which is widely acknowledged by learners and teachers, it is also regarded as one of the challenging skills during the language learning process. Almost all people teaching a foreign language have heard the prevalent saying, "I understand but cannot speak". The reason behind this might be the learners' general perception related to speaking, which refers to the skill that provokes anxiety the most among four language skills (Palacious, 1998). Young (1990) also mentioned that according to learners' ideas, speaking activities during which learners need to talk in front of the class and have on spot performance cause more anxiety compared to other skills. As underscored by Chaokongjakra (2013), overcoming foreign language speaking anxiety (FLSA) is a requirement for learners if they want to be successful in language learning.

Among different types of anxiety, Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) differs from the other types. It has been defined by one of the first researchers interested in FLA as "a distinct set of beliefs, perceptions, and feelings in response to foreign language learning in the classroom" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p.130). FLA has been a concern of many scholars over the past three decades. They have divided FLA into three components: (1) communication apprehension, (2) test anxiety, and (3) fear of negative evaluation. According to Horwitz et al.'s (1986) distinction, communication apprehension is considered to be the fear or anxiety learners experience when they communicate with others. Learners may not show their actual performance because of this anxiety type. The second component, test anxiety, is defined as a kind of fear experienced in assessment owing to fear of failure. Lastly, fear of negative evaluation (FNE) can be identified as fear of being evaluated negatively by the teacher or classmates. Learners may try to stay away from situations requiring the use of the target language because of FNE.

Many researchers have attached importance to FLA and many studies have been carried out to explore it over the past years (Aida, 1994; Chen & Chang, 2008; Horwitz et al., 1986). Also, many researchers have investigated FLA and the correlation between FLA and achievement in the Turkish EFL context (Balemir, 2009; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Tercan & Dikilitaş, 2015). Although some studies have probed into the factors underlying speaking anxiety (Balemir, 2009; Gan, 2012; Saltan, 2003; Subaşı, 2010), it has not been explored enough from the psychological perspective in the Turkish EFL context or foreign contexts, and this is still a crucial point waiting to be discovered.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

English as a lingua franca (ELF) has been defined as a mutual language between people from the same culture or different cultures to contact with each other (Firth, 1996). It is considered by many people around the world that English is a language having a crucial place in communication with different cultures as it has spread to all five continents in the world in time. In this respect, English has become a requirement for people to contact other people from different cultures, and more people have begun to be interested in learning English.

In the Turkish context, English is learned as a foreign language, and students receive English lessons in their schools beginning from early age for several reasons, such as career and traveling. EFL students have this education for communicating with people speaking English around the world (*Harmer, 2001*). These students are supposed to be proficient in all four basic skills during this education because all these skills are interrelated in terms of language competency. In this regard, this connection has been indicated with the idea that "one skill cannot be performed without another. It is impossible to speak in a conversation if you do not listen as well, and people seldom write without reading" (*Harmer, 1991, p. 52*). In addition to these four skills, knowing how to use the language in different situations is also essential to be proficient

in that language; therefore, learning a language necessitates different competencies at the same time.

However, FLA is perceived as an important factor affecting learners while receiving foreign language education. MacIntyre (1999) defines it as "worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language" (p. 27). Thus, it may have a crucial impact on learners' language performances. Nonetheless, anxiety affects learners' behaviors and feelings while using the target language not only negatively but also positively. Dörnyei (2005) divides anxiety into two kinds, referring to debilitating and facilitating anxiety. While facilitating anxiety can have positive effects and motivate the learners to be successful, debilitating anxiety can obstruct the learning process with its negative effects on the learners' behaviors and emotions. As it hinders the foreign language education considerably, various studies can be found on the debilitating aspect of FLA both in the Turkish EFL context (Ay, 2010; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Subaşı, 2010) and in other language teaching contexts around the world (Aida, 1994; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Woodrow, 2006).

When all these aspects are considered within the scope of language learning, speaking is generally seen as the most challenging skill. It is regarded as the most anxiety-provoking one among four language skills as also acknowledged by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991). From young learners to adults, learners generally have this kind of anxiety problem when they are in a context that requires them to speak the target language in front of people. Moreover, pre- service English language teachers in English Language Teaching (ELT) departments may also have these speaking anxiety issues (Karakaya, 2011; Vural, 2019). It is generally considered that learners with high proficiency tend to have less speaking anxiety when they become more competent in that language. However, speaking anxiety cannot be associated with just language proficiency as the aforementioned studies conducted with future EFL teachers illustrated, too. For instance, speaking anxiety might be under the impact of various psychological factors. Because it is a common problem in foreign language education,

an investigation into the psychological factors affecting speaking anxiety might contribute to the understanding of this issue and help the stakeholders find effective solutions for the problem.

Considering the importance of English as a foreign language in our lives and the effects of fear of speaking as a common issue in language education, speaking anxiety preserves its significant place as a research area in second language acquisition (SLA). The exploration of factors affecting speaking anxiety can provide insights into foreign language achievement, as well. To be able to convert the debilitating aspects of anxiety into facilitating aspects and offer solutions for this obstacle in language learning, the first step can be finding out the factors that exert an impact on speaking anxiety. To conclude, the current study sought an answer for the following research problem: To what extent do tertiary level Turkish EFL learners' L2 willingness to communicate, ideal and ought-to L2 selves, and L2 motivation relate with and predict their foreign language speaking anxiety?

1.3. Purpose of the Study

As mentioned above, students start to receive foreign language education at early ages like eight or nine, and they have English lessons at schools in Turkey. Also, foreign language education is viewed as a crucial need to have better careers and lives in the future by many people. However, the language education given in the schools is a controversial issue as the opportunities students have vary from a school to another. Undoubtedly, it is crucial to be exposed to the target language during the language learning process in foreign language education. In L2 learning, more exposure to the target language is required by individuals to incorporate the language patterns unconsciously (Ellis, 2009), but students do not have equal opportunities in getting exposed to the language because the medium of instruction is mostly Turkish in Turkey. This inequality in opportunities leads to some problems in foreign language education.

Foreign language education can be challenging for not only young learners but also teenagers and adults. One of the issues occurring during the language learning process is foreign language anxiety. This anxiety problem can be seen in some English preparatory programs at universities (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Tercan & Dikilitaş, 2015). Despite receiving many long hours of English lessons and being exposed to the target language, some learners may have different anxiety issues when they need to use the target language, and they may feel unwilling to engage in activities like role plays, discussions, and presentations. Moreover, although these learners have high knowledge of English, they may have some anxiety problems in situations that require the use of the target language. Even in universities, some students in ELT or English Literature departments may feel anxious in activities requiring speaking in front of other people, and they may avoid participating in these activities. Consequently, this condition may affect the learners' language achievement negatively. Hence, investigating speaking anxiety may help learners decrease their anxiety problems and focus on their language learning process better.

Because speaking is perceived as the skill that provokes anxiety the most among the others, it has been examined by many researchers over the past years. Whether speaking anxiety and achievement are related or not and why speaking anxiety occurs have been examined by various studies. Beyond these, shedding further light on the psychological factors that impact speaking anxiety may help teachers of English to figure out how to cope with this problem. Thus, the current study aims to investigate tertiary level Turkish EFL learners' English- speaking anxiety and its relationship with their L2 WTC, ideal and ought-to L2 selves, and L2 motivation.

1.4. Limitations

The present study has some limitations, which were minimized by essential precautions. First of all, the study is based on self-report data, and it was presumed that all the participants responding to questions in the scale set and interviews reflected

their real opinions, beliefs and emotions.

However, because of the cross-sectional nature of the study, it may not be probable to capture the dynamic nature of some factors like motivation and anxiety. Considering this limitation, the study intends to capture the nature of those factors with a trait-centered view. A trait-centered view can be perceived as a function of individual characteristics that are associated with personalities, needs and goals of an individual.

Lastly, quantitative data collection was limited with the English preparatory program of a private university, and the participants were selected randomly. Regarding the limitations related to time, as the data was collected in the spring semester of the 2022-2023 academic year, the data collection process is limited with this term.

1.5. Definitions

The following definitions have been provided to promote the comprehension of the concepts in the context of the study.

1.5.1. Anxiety

In general, it is described as “an unpleasant emotional state or condition which is characterized by subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, and worry, and by activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (Spielberger, 1983, p.15).

1.5.2. Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

It refers to “a distinct set of beliefs, perceptions, and feelings in response to

foreign language learning in the classroom" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 130).

1.5.3. Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety (FLSA)

It is generally defined as the amount of concern or anxiety a person has while contacting other people (McCroskey, 1977).

1.5.4. Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

This concept is identified as a tendency to participate in communication when the opportunity arises, and it was initially presented by McCroskey and Baer (1985). According to McCroskey (1997), WTC is "an individual's personality-based predisposition to approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication when free to do so" (p. 77).

1.5.5. Willingness to Communicate in a Second Language (L2 WTC)

It is defined as "a readiness to enter into a discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547).

1.5.6. Ideal L2 Self

It refers to "the representation of all the attributes that a person would like to possess (e.g., hopes, aspirations, desires)" (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005, p. 616).

1.5.7. Ought-to L2 Self

Csizer and Dörnyei (2005) define it as “the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e., various duties, obligations or responsibilities)” (p. 617).

1.5.8. Motivation

It refers to “a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)” (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 120). Also, Gardner (1985) describes it as “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (p. 10).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The current study addresses Second/Foreign Language (L2) speaking anxiety and some of the most important psychological factors affecting it. Accordingly, this chapter starts with defining speaking skills in foreign language education. This part offers insights into the place and importance of speaking in English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Then, anxiety is identified and its types are clarified to get inside the main issue of the study more. Following the types of anxiety, the next part offers insights into foreign language anxiety. After foreign language anxiety is clarified, speaking anxiety is presented in detail. Then, the chapter proceeds with the psychological factors, which have been determined before, and their impacts on speaking anxiety are uncovered. First of all, it focuses on the notion of willingness to communicate (WTC). Following the explanation of WTC, the chapter goes on with defining motivation as a factor affecting speaking anxiety. Next, it elaborates on the concepts of possible selves, which are the ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. Lastly, previous studies into speaking anxiety are covered.

2.1. Speaking as a Foreign Language Skill

In the developing world, English as a foreign language has gained a great deal of global importance all over the world. Along with being used in different fields, it is also seen as a fundamental tool for interaction with different cultures. Therefore, it is labeled as “English as a lingua franca” or “English as an International Language (EIL)”.

This brings the necessity of English knowledge with itself, and English as a foreign language has begun to be taught from an early age. Among the four skills in foreign language education, speaking is regarded as one of the most important skills to be improved. According to Nunan (1999), being able to perform in a foreign language is associated with speaking ability. The importance of speaking ability is

highlighted in that people can convey their ideas and feelings through speaking ability, which is one of the signals demonstrating the proficiency level of a person in that language (Fauzan, 2014). It is also stated that speaking is generally considered as the leading indicator of overall mastery in a language (Nowicka & Wilczynska, 2011).

Along with the aforementioned importance of speaking skill, it is also recognized as a skill that has a highly complex and dynamic nature as it includes using several cognitive, physical, and socio-cultural processes, simultaneously, and fast activation of linguistic skills and knowledge in actual time is a requirement for the speaker (Burns, 2012). In addition, as Shumin (2002) expressed, grammatical and semantic knowledge is not adequate for speaking a foreign language, and learning how to use that language in different contexts is a requirement to be able to speak it. Therefore, exploring the complexity of the speaking skill has great importance in developing proficiency in this ability. Speaking skill is considered to have several processes. These processes are illustrated in detail through the speech production model developed by Levelt (1989) as shown in Figure 2.1.

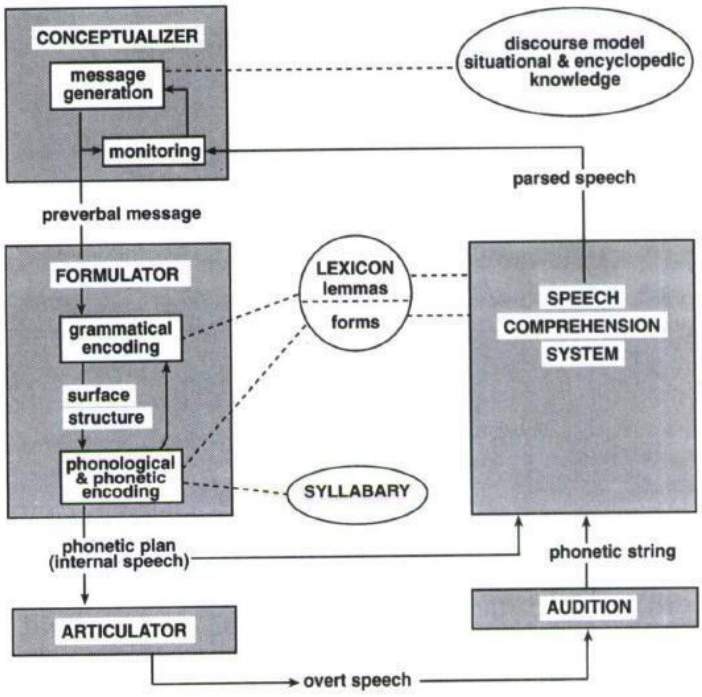

Figure 2.1. The Speech Production Model (Levelt, 1995, p. 14)

As seen in Figure 2.1, four interrelated stages occur consecutively during speaking: (1) conceptualization, (2) formulation, (3) articulation, and (4) self-monitoring. Conceptualization, also called conceptual preparation, is the process where speakers plan their ideas and thoughts with details and connect their background knowledge with the content. Secondly, in formulation, speakers determine which grammatical and lexical items they are going to use to express the ideas coming out in the conceptualization process. This can be considered a challenging stage as the grammatical and lexical choices are essential to express the predetermined message. During the articulation stage, speakers articulate the sounds by using speech organs, such as lips, tongue, and lungs. Lastly, self-monitoring is the process in which speakers check themselves and make error corrections if necessary. However, it might be hard to control and consider all these stages because they occur all at once unwittingly during communication, and speaking becomes automatic. In addition, as Thornbury (2005) underscored, we are unaware of how much speaking takes place in our lives since a significant part of our lives is composed of daily conversations, and it is a natural process for humans. However, it is challenging to acquire this ability, and we realize its complexity in the L2 learning process. In this respect, Thornbury (2005) divided the knowledge necessary to be proficient in speaking into two parts, which are linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge. Extralinguistic knowledge refers to the topic and cultural knowledge, and it might be helpful for the speaker to comprehend the context easily. Linguistic knowledge is associated with the features of the language, and it consists of the language features, such as grammar, vocabulary, genre, and phonology. However, because these types of knowledge are considered interdependent, it is hard to differentiate them from each other.

When it comes to one of the linguistic features, genre, as emphasized by Thornbury (2005), different categorizations can be made in terms of speaking. A distinction can be made between transactional and interpersonal functions in terms of speaking purpose. While the purpose is information exchange in transactional speech events, interpersonal speech events are related to preserving the quality of social relations. In addition, speech events can be categorized as interactive or non-interactive. Interactive speech events require more than one person to maintain

communication. However, the presence of one speaker is adequate in non-interactive speech events. For example, recorded speeches or phone messages are counted as non-interactive speech events. An additional distinction is made between planned and unplanned speeches. While speakers have time to prepare and plan their ideas in planned speeches, unplanned speeches happen spontaneously. Regarding all these distinctions, it might not be possible to describe them separately because there is no single direct explanation, and various combinations are probable. However, exploring these distinctions offers insights to grasp how complex speaking skill is.

Furthermore, as Richards and Renandya (2002) pointed out (see Figure 2.2), various skills are required to be competent in speaking, and these skills differ in line with the intention of speakers because of the complex nature of this ability. In this regard, communicative competence, a term developed by Hymes (1971), is considered a requirement for L2 speaking proficiency. Savignon (1991) defined communicative competence as "the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, as distinct from the ability to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge" (p. 264). Thus, linguistic knowledge is not adequate for competence in a foreign language, and L2 learners need to have other types of competence as well. Following this theory, Canale and Swain (1980) suggested that communicative competence embodies four components, including (1) grammatical competence, (2) discourse competence, (3) sociolinguistic competence, and (4) strategic competence.

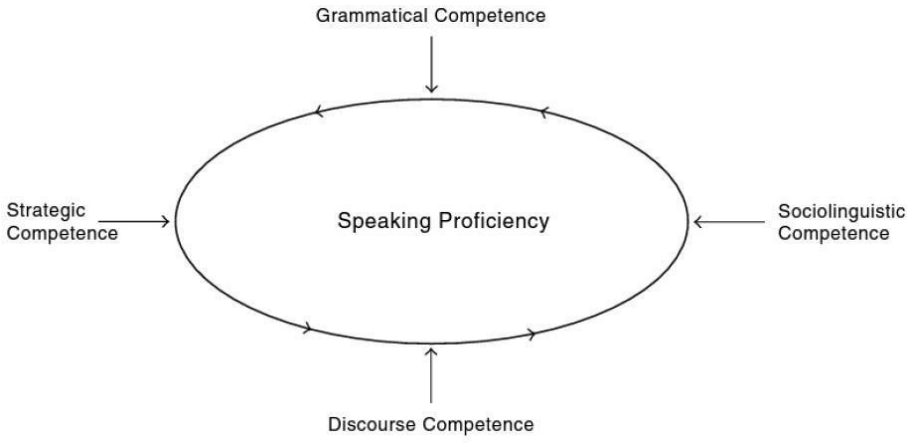

Figure 2.2. Communicative Competence (Shumin, 2002, p. 207)

All these competency types, considered factors affecting speaking proficiency, can commonly be associated with linguistic and functional aspects of communication (Shumin, 2002). According to the framework Canale and Swain (1980) proposed, grammatical competence is developing proficiency in grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics. Considering speaking, mechanics is related to pronunciation, intonation, and stress. Grammatical competence needs to be acquired because it facilitates the accurate use of structures, and it is also essential for fluency. As for discourse competence, it refers to the ability to depict a large context and combine the structures of language by using cohesion and coherence. This enables speakers to maintain communication in a meaningful way. Sociolinguistic competence is about using the language appropriately following the social and cultural rules. Language knowledge alone does not help the learners use a foreign language, and L2 learners are bound to know how to produce the appropriate language in different contexts. Last of all, strategic competence is the ability to sustain communication instead of the possible communication breakdowns. Thus, L2 learners need to know how to start, maintain or end a conversation for better communication.

Following the competence theories developed by Hymes (1971) and Canale and Swain (1980), interactional competence (IC) has been proposed by Kramsch (1986), and it differs from communicative competence with regard to the aspects they focus on. While communicative competence focuses on the knowledge of the speakers, interactional competence concentrates on the interaction among speakers. Young (2011) highlighted the importance of all participants in an interaction with the idea that IC is not related to the people's knowledge , but it is about how people communicate with each other. Moreover, this notion is another indicator of the complexity of speaking ability because there are many aspects to consider for speaking proficiency.

In addition to all these competencies and processes, there are also various factors affecting oral communication, which emphasizes the complication of speaking ability, too. Shumin (2002) mentions some of the factors that impact speaking performance, including (1) age, (2) aural medium, (3) sociocultural factors, and (4) affective factors. First of all, age is considered the most commonly mentioned factor

affecting learners' speaking performance. The onset of learning may determine their success or failure in the language learning process. Secondly, the aural medium is also another determinant in L2 as listening plays an active role in improving speaking. Participants need to be both listeners and speakers to interact with a person. As for socio- cultural factors, because every language has its own rules, learners should be familiar with both verbal and nonverbal communication systems. The appropriate use of language is essential for speakers not to give rise to any misunderstandings during an interaction. Finally, the role of affective factors is critical in language learning since L2 learning is easily affected by human behaviors such as anxiety, motivation and attitudes.

In conclusion, English is a language used by numerous people around the world, and speaking skill among others is considered the best indicator of proficiency in that language as mentioned before. Although the importance of this ability has been stated clearly, speaking a foreign language is generally seen as multifaceted and challenging for L2 learners. To increase expertise in speaking a foreign language, learners may be required to concentrate on diverse aspects, such as processes for speech production (Levelt, 1989), types of knowledge and speech acts (Thornbury, 2005), communicative competence and its four components (Hymes, 1971), interactional competence (Kramsch, 1986), and factors affecting learners' oral performance (Shumin, 2002).

2.2. Anxiety

Anxiety, as an umbrella term, is such a widespread issue in foreign language education that many scholars have been interested in for a long time. Although it is a common subject studied by researchers, there is not one specific definition determined by these scholars because it is a multifaceted notion. However, anxiety, which is also considered one of the affective factors concerning oral communication as mentioned above, serves an important function in foreign language education. Thus, the

explanation of various anxiety definitions in the scope of language education may shed light on this concept. Spielberger (1972) defined anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (p. 482). Horwitz et al. (1986), known as prominent scholars studying foreign language anxiety, identified it as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 127). In another definition, it was pointed out as an emotion of worry and pressure felt by learners, especially within the scope of foreign language education (Gardner & Macintyre, 1993). Considering all these definitions together, there are some common aspects defining anxiety, such as subjectivity, apprehension, and uneasiness. In this regard, it is thought that learners' speaking and listening performances can be affected by anxiety negatively (Humphries, 2011). To sum up, anxiety can be defined as learners' feeling worried or tense when they need to use a foreign language, and this can affect the whole learning process negatively.

2.3.Types of Anxiety

Following the detailed descriptions of anxiety as a general term, an investigation into the types of anxiety needs to be done to figure out its position in foreign language learning more profoundly because it is generally considered as a certain factor affecting the performance in L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2005). In this regard, different scholars have offered multiple classifications for anxiety in L2 learning. For instance, Macintyre and Gardner (1991) studied anxiety under three categories, including (1) *trait anxiety,* (2) *state anxiety,* and (3) *situation-specific anxiety.*

2.3.1. Trait anxiety

First of all, trait anxiety corresponds to the type of anxiety some individuals

tend to have in every situation because it is a characteristic of them. It is also called personality trait as being permanent for these kinds of people (Brown, 1994). Macintyre and Gardner (1991) also expressed that people's memories and cognitive features are influenced by trait anxiety negatively. Although trait anxiety is an individual characteristic, it may be meaningless to measure it alone without considering the situation. People are inclined to give different reactions in various contexts even if their scores of trait anxiety are similar. Also, the situations in which these people are anxious may differ. Thus, it may not make sense to take trait anxiety into account alone, and there are other aspects to be considered within the scope of foreign language learning.

2.3.2. State anxiety

As for state anxiety, it is a kind of temporary feeling experienced at a particular time, and it is generally triggered by a particular stimulant (Brown, 1994; Young, 1991). In contrast to trait anxiety, state anxiety is generally known for its temporariness and its being tied to specific contexts. Anxiety felt before examinations can be given as an example of state anxiety (Spielberger, 1983). It may not be possible to differentiate trait and state anxiety easily. However, it would not be wrong to express that while trait anxiety is about individuals' personalities, state anxiety is related to the learning environment. Therefore, it can be inferred that it is highly possible to decline the level of state anxiety by making learners get used to the situation as it depends on the temporary situations. Nevertheless, individuals having trait anxiety are more prone to experience a high level of state anxiety (Macintyre & Gardner, 1991).

2.3.3. Situation-specific anxiety

Situation-specific anxiety is generally considered as a substitute to state anxiety, and it corresponds to the kind of anxiety that is encountered in situations, such

as taking a test, writing exams, and public speaking tasks. It is also generally associated with foreign language learning as the learners experience this situation-specific anxiety whenever they try to use the target language (Balemir, 2009) In other words, this kind of anxiety can be defined as repeatedly having the same unstable feelings in the same situations. For example, if an individual feels anxious whenever he or she takes a writing examination, that person probably has situation- specific anxiety. However, if this uncomfortable emotion experienced before the exam ceases after the examination, it can be considered state anxiety.

Apart from the classification mentioned above, Dörnyei (2005) expressed another distinction between two types of anxiety, which are debilitating and facilitating anxieties. This distinction was first mentioned by Alpert and Haber (1960), and they constructed a scale to measure facilitating and debilitating anxieties.

2.3.4. Facilitating anxiety

Facilitating anxiety refers to a type of anxiety motivating learners to accomplish the tasks while learning a language, and it is considered a stimulator to gain success in an L2. Scovel (1991) highlights that facilitating anxiety not only triggers the learners to struggle for the new learning task but also prepares them emotionally. It is widely believed that facilitating anxiety creates a positive and competitive learning environment, so this influences the learners' performances positively.

2.3.5. Debilitating anxiety

On the contrary, debilitating anxiety is a driving force for learners to escape from the new learning tasks, and learners interiorize abstention manner emotionally because of debilitating anxiety (Scovel, 1991). Thus, many scholars believe that debilitating anxiety harms the learning process, and it causes the learners to avoid the tasks in the language learning process. Learners having debilitating

anxiety generally have a tendency to escape from the tasks in L2 learning because of fear of failure. Also, many scholars assert that anxiety has a debilitating impact on the language learning process because anxiety as a general term is usually associated with negative feelings (Ehrman, 1996; MacIntyre, 2017; Woodrow, 2006).

However, there are also some researchers promoting the facilitating effects of anxiety (Brown, 1994; Scovel, 1991). They claim that anxiety may have a triggering role for learners, and it may motivate the learners to accomplish new learning tasks during the language learning process if these learners are able to handle anxiety and take advantage of its facilitating effects. Differently from these perspectives, Scovel (1991) also argues that an individual may have both debilitating and facilitating anxiety at the same time, and they can work together. With a good combination of these anxieties, it is possible for learners to manage the process in foreign language education. What these learners need to do is being able to benefit from anxiety and reverse the debilitating effects into facilitating impacts in order to improve their foreign language levels.

2.4. Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz et al. (1986), known as the leading researchers interested in this area, defined foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.128). In addition, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) identified that FLA is the emotion like worry or nervousness experienced by individuals during speaking or listening within the context of foreign language learning. Together with being a complex phenomenon (Young, 1990), foreign language anxiety is a controversial subject among many scholars as they discuss whether it is the cause or effect of the deficiency in foreign language learning. Learners may feel anxious when they observe that they are having problems in their language progress, or the anxiety learners have during the learning process might prevent them

from making progress. However, it is hard to conclude this discussion as there are also other factors affecting achievement along with anxiety in foreign language education. Despite the complexity of FLA, it is still essential to understand the concept better as FLA serves an important function in foreign language education. Therefore, three components of foreign language anxiety, including (1) *communication apprehension* (CA), (2) *test anxiety* and (3) *fear of negative evaluation* asserted by Horwitz et al. (1986) need to be comprehended very well.

2.4.1. Communication apprehension

Communication apprehension is related to avoidance of communicating with people as a result of shyness or fear. People with communication apprehension tend to feel uncomfortable during oral communication considering their listening and speaking skills (Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009). Moreover, these people believe that they will encounter problems in understanding people and expressing themselves (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Besides, CA can be associated with both mother tongue and foreign language. However, as for the use of L2, learners may suffer from the deficiency of language proficiency while communicating by using a foreign language, and they may feel nervous more in the context of L2. In this respect, as a productive skill, speaking has great importance in L2 learning, and escaping from participation in tasks requiring oral communication may lead to some problems in learners' making progress in the L2 learning. When it comes to the reasons of CA, there are several causes, including positive or negative expectations, metacognitive awareness and background knowledge (Aydın, 1999). Firstly, when learners achieve the desired aim, they build up positive expectations and confidence. However, if they face with failure, learners may be inclined to be reluctant to use the target language. Secondly, as comprehending a foreign language completely is not possible, communication breakdowns may occur. Lastly, learners may have trouble in expressing themselves although they possess mature thoughts and ideas, and this lack of language proficiency may cause them to be silent in tasks requiring oral performance. Moreover, Vural

(2017) stated another reason of CA which is related to learner's negative past experiences. If learners encounter with negative reactions repeatedly when they try to use the target language, this may cause a predisposition to avoid using the intended language. To sum up, CA is related to speaking, one of the most important indicators of language proficiency, and learners having CA may be affected negatively with respect to making progress in L2 learning.

2.4.2. Test anxiety

Secondly, test anxiety results from the fear of being unsuccessful in a test, and it can be defined as a predisposition to apprehension related to a forthcoming test. In addition, the relation between test anxiety and foreign language education is undeniable as the language learning process contains various examinations and quizzes in different types, and learners are constantly evaluated throughout this process (Horwitz & Young, 1991). The reason why learners frequently experience test anxiety is that they personally expect themselves to do more than they can manage (Liu & Jackson, 2008). Also, this condition may affect their performance during the test. Accordingly, these students' language learning process might be affected adversely. In this regard, Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009) assert that learners having test anxiety do not acknowledge the language learning process and the examinations, specifically speaking tests, as a chance to improve their language proficiency. Moreover, learners may not be able to give correct answers to the questions because of their nervousness during the exam even though they know the correct answer (Horwitz et al.,1986).

Covington (1985) classified test anxiety into four sub-categories, which are *test anticipation, testpreparation, the test-taking stage,* and *test reaction.* The first one is related to the expectations of learners about the test. Learners guess their performance in the test by evaluating their background knowledge, prior test experiences, and test difficulty predictions. After evaluating their chance for success, if they think that they will not be successful, this may create anxiety (Aydın, 1999). The second stage is test

preparation, and learners get ready for the forthcoming test while having various feelings and expectations at the same time. Learners with test anxiety may have some unrealistic expectations because they consider success is equivalent to a perfect score. If these learners see something less than perfect, this symbolizes a failure for them (Covington, 1985). Thirdly, the test-taking stage is the phase when learners have the exam while experiencing worry and frustration because of their anxiety. In the last stage, learners' expectations and thoughts turn into reality.

2.4.3. Fear of negative evaluation

The third unit of FLA is fear of negative evaluation (FNE). It can be identified as worrying about other people's evaluations and tending to avoid people's negative assessments (Horwitz et al., 1986). Unlike test anxiety, FNE is not constrained to examinations, and it may take place in various social circumstances, such as job interviews and presentations, and it is an important factor affecting learner performance during language learning. In this respect, a study conducted by Kitano (2001) indicated that students experiencing FNE have a higher amount of speaking anxiety. Learners with FNE would like to escape from the adverse comments of their teachers and peers. However, foreign language education requires interaction to be able to improve language proficiency. Also, making mistakes is a very natural part of language education, and feedback maintains its importance in terms of preventing mistakes from becoming errors. In this respect, FNE may harm learners' language education process because learners experiencing FNE do not perceive it as a part of the process occurring naturally. Conversely, these learners associate making mistakes with danger for their social impression and a source for negative evaluations (Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009). To summarize, learners with FNE avoid being evaluated adversely by their peers and teachers not to damage their social image, but this may cause these students to move away from the language learning process itself (Ay, 2010).

2.5. Potential Reasons of Foreign Language Anxiety

As for the sources of foreign language anxiety, Young (1991) claimed that six potential reasons are underlying sources of foreign language anxiety. According to the analysis of research, FLA is derived from (1) *personal and interpersonal anxieties,* (2) *learner beliefs about language learning,* (3) *instructor beliefs about language teaching,*

(4) *instructor-learner interactions,* (5) *classroom procedures,* and (6) *language testing.*

Differences between individuals: Among these, the most discussed source is personal and interpersonal anxieties which are about the differences between individuals.

Low self-esteem and competitiveness: Two main sources under this category are low self-esteem and competitiveness. They may affect the learners adversely as these learners will be concerned with the other people's thoughts too much. The second source is about how students perceive language learning, and if the learners' beliefs and reality do not suit, the level of anxiety may increase.

Pertaining to the perceptions of instructors: Another source of FLA is pertaining to the perceptions of instructors about language learning. How instructors perceive themselves in the classroom is very important. If they act as the authority of the class, the level of anxiety will possibly increase. However, having facilitator instructors will have a motivating effect on students.

Instructor-learner interactions: The fourth one is instructor-learner interactions. The attitude instructors have while correcting the mistakes also has an outstanding effect on students. A harsh manner during error correction will probably lead to an increase in anxiety level. The fifth one is classroom procedures, and it is related to the methods and techniques implemented in class. For instance, students

generally feel more anxious during the activities requiring speaking in front of people.

Language testing: Lastly, language testing is an inseparable source of foreign language anxiety. How the students are evaluated, and which test types are used also have a crucial impact on students when their anxiety levels are considered.

There has been increasing interest in FLA concerning the importance of this issue for foreign language education. Various studies have been performed to seek out its effects on the learners and the learning process. Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) conducted a study with tertiary level participants based on the impacts of FLA on learners' oral performance, and they found that FLA and oral achievement are negatively correlated with each other.

In addition, a study conducted by Salehi and Marefat (2014) revealed that FLA has a negative correlation with the learners' performance, and it has a debilitating role in language education. Another investigation has been carried out by Zhang (2019) recently. This study intended to figure out the correlation between the FLA and language performance, and the findings demonstrated that FLA plays a fundamental part in language learning by affecting learner achievement negatively.

Some of the studies carried out about FLA also focused on the ways to decrease the anxiety level to help foreign language learners. For instance, Alrabai (2015) investigated the effects of FLA and anxiety reducing strategies on learners with a quasi- experimental study. This study revealed that anxiety reducing strategies implemented in experimental group caused them to be more self-confident, and the anxiety level of the participants in this group showed a decrease compared to the control group. Accordingly, this study pointed out a positive correlation between FLA and anxiety- reducing strategies.

In conclusion, FLA has been studied by various scholars for a long time, and it is an important research area to be investigated as a high level of FLA may cause

learners not to participate in the activities during the foreign language education process. Learners having FLA are generally associated with being unwilling to participate in the lessons and having a tendency to escape from the lessons and negative evaluations (Oxford, 2015). However, interaction is of vital importance for foreign language lessons, and learners have to be in touch with others due to the interactive nature of foreign language education while FLA is considered an important factor affecting learners' performance adversely in the course of language learning. Considering how FLA affects the language learning process, although it influences all skills and the language learning process itself, FLA is generally affiliated with speaking skill as it is considered the most anxiety-provoking one among other language skills. Therefore, foreign language speaking anxiety will be discussed in a detailed way in the next part.

2.6. Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

Speaking is generally considered in the center of foreign language education because speaking a language is affiliated with knowing a language (Arnold, 2000). However, learning a foreign language is a complex phenomenon, and such generalizations are not considered possible because knowing a language and using a language are two separate concepts. This can also be justified with the distinction of competence and performance asserted by Chomsky. While competence refers to the capacity of a learner under idealized circumstances, performance can be defined as the actual use of language, so it is not always true that if you know a language, you can speak very well.

Bygate (1991) underscores the distinction between knowledge and skill because it is vital for teaching how to speak. Knowing how to combine words and phrases merely is not adequate to speak, and the ability to know how to make use of the target language appropriately according to different circumstances is another necessity for learners. Comprehension of this distinction is important to

differentiate between a speech error and a mistake that stems from not knowing the correct form. Nevertheless, it is commonly believed that speaking is a principal skill representing general proficiency in a foreign language because it is a productive skill that can show the language level of a learner.

Along with its importance, many researchers have also expressed that it is the most anxiety-provoking one among other skills (Tanveer, 2007). FLSA can be defined as the feeling such as worry or nervousness experienced by L2 learners during communication with people by using a foreign language. Considering the reasons for FLSA, Arnold (2000) pointed out that the underlying reason may be partly because of not feeling confident about linguistic knowledge. However, there must be other factors affecting anxiety as all skills are not affected similarly. Koch and Terrell (1991) also mentioned that although FLA affects all four skills during foreign language education, speaking-oriented activities lead to higher anxiety when compared to the activities implemented in class.

Anxiety is generally associated with this skill because learners are required to process the input and generate their ideas at the same time (Harmer, 2001). Learners do not have much time to think and prepare their ideas as they need to maintain communication immediately. In addition, Bailey (2003) expresses that speaking is harder than other skills for two reasons. Firstly, speaking happens instantly in contrast to writing and reading. Secondly, there is no time to edit or revise the things produced while speaking. Despite the difficulty and complexity of this skill, speaking, as a productive skill, is thought of as the indicator of language proficiency. Therefore, it has been studied by many scholars in the Turkish EFL context or foreign contexts, and different researchers have investigated the reasons underlying FLSA Regarding the foreign contexts, fear of negative evaluation and self-perceived speaking ability were found as the sources of high levels of anxiety according to the study carried out by Kitano (2001). In addition, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) demonstrated perfectionism as the factor provoking anxiety, and students believe that if they make mistakes, their friends or teachers may change their ideas and begin to think about the students negatively.

Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009) lists the following reasons for the foreign language speaking anxiety problem. Firstly, students may get anxious about making mistakes and being evaluated negatively by their peers or teachers. Also, some students may perceive themselves as not competent enough to speak in front of their peers they may compare themselves with. One of the results of Woodrow's (2006) research showed that most of the participants in the study felt nervous while they were talking to native speakers.

Another study conducted by Tanveer (2007) also highlighted that the evaluative nature of the foreign language learning environment makes the learners anxious. Students are anxious about making mistakes and being evaluated by their teachers or peers adversely. They have many problems like high expectations, lack of confidence, and low proficiency. For example, some learners have perfectionist feelings, and native- like pronunciation can sometimes trigger the anxiety level.

Basic (2011) asserted that students can have bad prior experiences about speaking a foreign language, and that can be the reason for their speaking anxiety because negative past experiences trigger the problems like stress or low self-confidence. Also, it is argued by the teachers who participated in the same study that students are generally afraid of being laughed at by their peers. Therefore, the surroundings may have unexpected effects on the learners.

According to Liu (2007), several students feel uncomfortable and anxious in situations where they have to speak the target language, and various reasons are underlying this anxiety, such as inadequate language proficiency, lack of preparation, and practice, fear of making mistakes, fear of not being able to comprehend others, fear of being unable to express their ideas, and memory disassociation. For instance, students mentioned that they feel nervous while speaking as they think they do not have enough language proficiency, and especially lack of vocabulary knowledge prevents them from speaking.

Another point causing students to feel anxious is a lack of preparation and practice. Without preparation, they do not feel confident enough to speak. Also, the possibility of making mistakes and being laughed at by other people frustrates them when learners need to speak English in the classroom. Another reason is that students are afraid of the inability to understand and follow others. Therefore, students become anxious when their teachers ask questions. Fear of being unable to express their ideas is another factor in speaking anxiety. Some students tend to translate, and when they cannot find the words corresponding to the ideas in their minds, they feel embarrassed and anxious. Lastly, memory disassociation is a factor having an impact on speaking anxiety. Anxiety causes some students to forget the words they are supposed to say to express their ideas, and this condition increases the anxiety level more.

Concerning the Turkish EFL context, one of the results found out by Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014) is that the anxiety level learners experience when they need to speak without being prepared is higher. They also summarized the reasons for FLSA under three categories, including individual, environmental and educational reasons in this study. Considering all these categories, the leading causes are individual ones like fear of negative evaluation, insufficient confidence, fear of making mistakes, and inadequate target language knowledge. For example, some students expressed that feeling anxious is a result of not knowing how to explain their thoughts.

The study conducted by Çağatay (2015) revealed that interaction with native speakers causes learners to feel more anxious. Another study carried out by Debreli and Demirkan (2016) asserted that the factors making students anxious while speaking a foreign language are making mistakes, not being able to comprehend what the teacher asks, being unable to pronounce the words correctly, speaking without preparation and lack of good background knowledge.

According to the study conducted by Aydın (1999), there are three main reasons for foreign language speaking anxiety, including (1) *learners'personal reasons,*

(2) *the teacher's manner in the classroom,* (3) *teaching procedures.* First of all, personal reasons may have different sub-categories, such as self-comparison, high personal expectations, self-assessment and learner beliefs. Learners evaluate their language learning processes positively or negatively. If the assessment is positive, it may make a facilitating influence on the language learning process. However, if the learners believe that they are not good enough and focus on their weaknesses, this situation may create anxiety and affect learners' performance. Also, learners may compete with themselves or their peers during the language learning process. Although competition may have some motivating effects for some students, comparing themselves with other students may increase their level of anxiety for highly anxious learners. High personal expectations can also be a factor in increasing the level of anxiety because some students believe that they will fail if they do not show a perfect performance. Learner beliefs are also important in terms of anxiety because different learners come to the classroom with different beliefs related to several issues, such as making mistakes, using the mother tongue, having a native teacher, and so on. Secondly, teachers' manners are also highly important for the anxiety level of learners during foreign language education. Teachers' manners consist of two sub-categories, which are the manners towards errors and the manners towards the students. How teachers correct the errors of students is an important topic as the reactions of teachers may cause unpredictable effects on students. Another factor causing learners to feel more anxious while speaking is the intervention for error correction. Also, teachers' behaviors, such as criticizing a lot and comparing them with other students while talking to the students may unpredictably affect the learners' feelings and thoughts. Lastly, teaching procedures may also lead to anxiety in foreign language education. For instance, speaking in front of a group is an anxiety- provoking activity for many learners. They may feel uncomfortable owing to fear of making mistakes, fear of negative evaluation, or fear of damaging the social image. Especially, when they need to speak without preparation, learners generally feel anxious. Presenting a topic is another teaching procedure increasing the anxiety level of learners. In fact, it is considered one of the prominent anxiety- provoking activities in foreign language education. Classroom interaction patterns, such as working individually and working in groups also affect the learners' anxiety levels in different

aspects. While highly anxious students want to work with a partner, low anxious students would rather generally work individually (Aydın, 1999).

To summarize the sources provoking learners' foreign language speaking anxiety based on the aforementioned literature, the following common reasons can be indicated. The first and most common reason is that students worry about other people's evaluations, and they have an urge not to make any mistakes with the fear of being evaluated negatively. This also shows the confidence problems of learners. The perfectionist feelings they have sometimes increase these learners' anxiety level and affect their speaking performance. For example, some students assume that if they need to speak a foreign language, they should have a native-like proficiency. Another common cause of FLSA is fear of being unable to comprehend what people say and express their ideas. Some students feel anxious while talking to other people in case they do not understand what they say. Also, some students do not believe that they can convey the thoughts in their minds in a foreign language properly. Furthermore, learners' backgrounds have important effects on how anxious they are while speaking a foreign language. If they have prior bad experiences related to speaking a foreign language, these students will be more likely to feel nervous. Lastly, speaking skill differs from the other skills in terms of the time learners have to prepare. Having insufficient time to think and prepare for what they are going to say increases learners' tendency to feel more anxious.

As mentioned above, speaking plays a crucial part in foreign language education owing to the indicator role of foreign language proficiency, and it is an important research area for foreign language education as anxiety mostly has debilitating effects on learners, and studying how to cope with this issue may contribute to this area. Before searching for solutions to the issue, it is essential to explore the sources of FLSA. In addition to all these reasons, there are also several factors affecting speaking anxiety, and it is also necessary to find out whether these factors and speaking anxiety are related to each other or not. In this respect, the following psychological factors determined for this study, namely willingness to

communicate, L2 motivation, ideal and ought-to L2 selves will be analyzed one after another.

2.6.1. Willingness to Communicate

To start with, communication whose Indo-European etymological roots are related to "bringing together" stems from the Latin word "to share" (Cobley, 2008), and three components which are essential for communication generally include "at least one speaker or sender, a message transmitted and a person or persons for whom this message is intended (the receiver)" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 97). As for defining what communication is, it is the transmission of opinions, knowledge, or beliefs occurring between individuals (Newman & Summer, 1977).

Canale (1983) asserted communication is the information exchange process occurring between at least two individuals both verbally and nonverbally. Regarding the definitions mentioned, communication can be considered a simple or undemanding process. On the contrary, it is a complicated process that requires paying attention to various aspects, such as verbal, nonverbal, or behavioral aspects, how, when and where the communication takes place, the features of listeners and speakers, and the affair between them (Pearson et al., 2003). In this regard, the dynamic nature of communication paves the way for considering its different components concurrently.

Communication which is vital in every minute of our lives is not something that we can avoid, and it has crucial effects on various aspects of our lives from professional lives to social lives. It is believed by many communication experts that while many problems derive from poor communication, knowing how to communicate effectively promotes solving or staying away from many problems (Pearson et al., 2003).

Adler and Proctor (2014) underscored that communication which is a physical requirement for people helps them to figure out who they are, and because of the social nature of humans, they demand others instinctively. According to Rubin et al. (1988), people crucially need human relationships from babyhood to adulthood. For instance, while babies need to be touched and talked to improve, adults involved in human relations actively become more successful when compared to people preferring to avoid interacting with people. Indeed, communication is as essential to the development of people's personalities as it is to human relations. In short, communication is indispensable for the improvement of an individual (Morreale et al., 2000).

In accordance with the importance of communication for human life, it is also crucial in foreign language education as the ultimate goal in language learning is the ability to use the language for interaction with people although learners may have diverse goals, such as traveling, learning different cultures and finding a good job (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). Communication occurs both verbally and nonverbally, which is a common principle (Civikly, 1997). However, the most influential tool providing great opportunities to express one's ideas and feelings and convey information is language (Genç, 2007).

MacIntyre and Charos (1996) asserted that language is not just a tool promoting one's language improvement, but it is a necessary goal itself. According to Celce-Murcia et al. (1996), the reason behind learning a foreign language for learners is the ability to interact with foreign people freely. Thus, communication is closely associated with language, and the progress of a person in a foreign language is mostly based on communication as Yashima (2012) highlighted that "L2 competency develops through productive use of the language" (p. 119).

Despite the prominence of communication in foreign language teaching, it is a part of language learning that students generally avoid the activities requiring interaction. It is also acknowledged by Dömyei (2005) that although learners have a

high level of L2 knowledge, there is a common predisposition among learners not to participate in L2 communication situations. Within this context, this condition brings us to the notion of willingness to communicate.

Willingness to communicate, which is one of the individual differences affecting language learning, is a notion first introduced by McCroskey and Baer (1985) despite the first studies focusing on WTC by Burgoon (1976). McCroskey and Baer (1985) defined WTC as the desire to be involved in interaction when provided the conditions. McCroskey (1997) later specified it as an individual's personal tendency to initiate or avoid communicating with other people when favorable circumstances are provided. To sum up, it is considered a personality- based concept representing readiness to begin and maintain communication.

Regarding the concept of WTC in the L1 context, WTC was a notion concerning the mother tongue in the beginning, and it was acknowledged to be personality-based (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015). Although McCroskey (1997) confirmed that the situations have diverse effects on a person's WTC to some extent, it was considered that there is a regularity in communication behaviors in different situations, which was supported by McCrae and Costa (2004). The findings of this study demonstrated that introversion and L1 WTC are permanently associated with each other.

The conceptualization of L1 WTC as a trait-based phenomenon was confirmed by McCroskey and Richmond (1991) in that personality directly affects the notion of L1 WTC. McCroskey and Richmond (1991) also figured out that there are various concepts associated with L1 WTC, such as introversion, communication apprehension, perceived communication competence, and self-esteem. In addition to this, many studies focusing on the L1 WTC (MacIntyre, 1994; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987; Sallinen- Kuparinen et al., 1991) indicated the L1 WTC as a personality-based concept.

In the late 1990s, many researchers have shifted their focus towards L2 learners' willingness to communicate during the language learning process by getting inspired from the studies related to L1 WTC. However, L2 WTC differs from L1 WTC in terms of many aspects, and there is not a direct transfer between them. The conceptualization of L2 WTC has begun to change from a trait-based predisposition to a broader variable that represents the learners' decision on when and who to talk to (MacIntyre, 2007). As MacIntyre et al. (1998) expressed, WTC in the L2 context is "not a simple manifestation of WTC in L1" (p. 546).

The distinction between L1 WTC and WTC in the L2 context was emphasized by different researchers (Cao & Philp, 2006; MacIntyre et al., 2003). This can be explained by the unique nature of the foreign language education context as it has distinct features and rules. Also, MacIntyre et al. (1998) and Cao and Philp (2006) explained this non-transferability with both changing communicative competence from person to person and social factors related to L2 use. For example, an L2 learner preferred being quiet in situations in which many chances were offered for the use of L2 although this person had a high WTC in L1 (Gregersen et al., 2014). As for defining what L2 WTC is, it is "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547). It can also be identified as "an individual's volitional inclination towards actively engaging in the act of communication in a specific situation, which can vary according to interlocutor(s), topic, and conversational context, among other potential situational variables" (Kang, 2005, p. 291). Based on the definitions above, WTC in the realm of L2 has a different nature, and there is a clear distinction between L1 WTC and L2 WTC made by MacIntyre and Charos (1996). According to MacIntyre and Charos (1996), L2 WTC is not a simple construct about which assumptions can be made as it is under the influence of different variables, such as motivation, anxiety, perceived competence, and L2 communication frequency, and further studies are needed to be conducted on these variables.

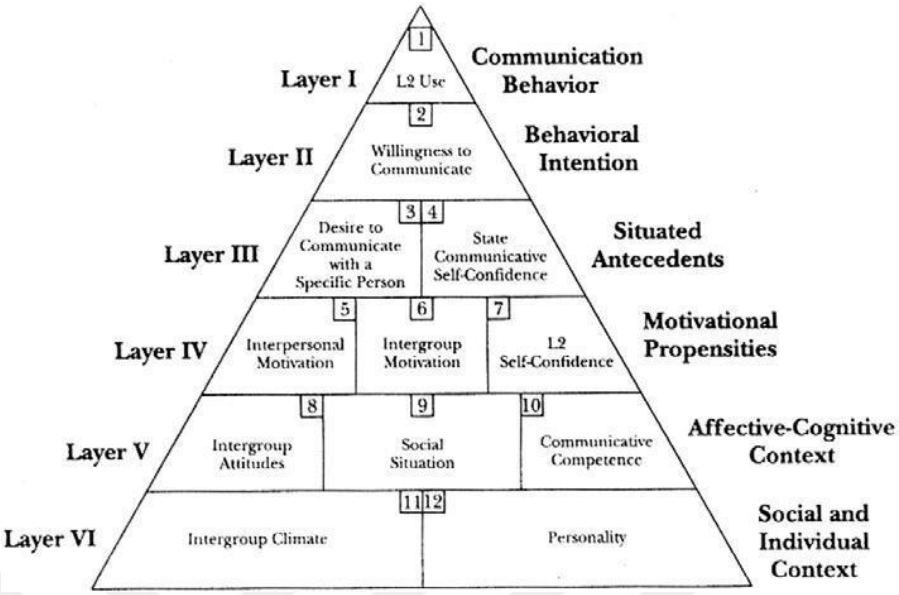

Figure 2.3. The Heuristic Model of Variables Affecting WTC (MacIntyre et. al., 1998, p. 547)

In this regard, MacIntyre et al. (1998) promoted a pyramid-shaped model, comprising six layers as presented in Figure 2.3. L2 WTC is a multifaceted construct affected by various factors such as linguistic, psychological, and social variables (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015).

While it initiates with personality and intergroup climate, the structure ends with the L2 use. When the pyramid is analyzed in-depth, both situational and personality-based influences can be figured out. While the first three layers embody situation- specific influences on L2 WTC, the trait-based variables affecting the L2 WTC were illustrated in the other three layers. In this pyramid, it is considered that there is an interdependent relationship between the variables existing in each layer, and they all form the construction itself. According to Yashima (2012), this pyramid provided an insight into the L2 WTC research area as it involves both trait-based and situational features.

WTC is counted as both a trait-like inclination and a situational structure, which is a distinction made by Dörnyei (2005). At first, WTC was acknowledged as a stable

personality trait by McCroskey and Baer (1985) even though there may be situational effects on students. WTC as a personality feature can be defined as the concept which is consistent no matter where the communication occurs and who the receivers are. However, after MacIntyre and Charos (1996) adapted the concept of WTC to L2 learning, a new viewpoint regarding the WTC as a situational construct emerged. Although this study concluded that several variables have an impact on WTC, it was still perceived as personality-based until the study carried out by MacIntyre et al. (1998). L2 researchers began to emphasize the situational nature of WTC more with the model introduced by MacIntyre et al. (1998).

To summarize, while trait-based L2 WTC refers to a consistent tendency for interaction, situational or state L2 WTC emerges in definite contexts (Peng & Woodrow, 2010). According to Macintyre et al. (1999), the trait-based WTC and state-level WTC can be conceived of as a pair working in an intertwined manner. They also concluded that trait WTC paves the way for an individual to be present in situations where communication is possible, but after the communication occurs, situational WTC can affect the possible (non)occurrence of interaction.

As mentioned above, communication has an indispensable place in foreign language education since, as Rubin and Thompson (1994) underscored, how much an individual practice speaking the target language affects the progress of that language learner. Therefore, the main objective of L2 learners should be to develop their L2 competence while triggering the WTC in the target language (Denies et al., 2015). The reason underlying the stimulation of the WTC is its crucial role in foreign language education. A high level of L2 competence is not the assurance of effective communication in the L2.

MacIntyre (2007) emphasized this perception by expressing that people do not become L2 speakers although they study that language for many years. Several researchers have studied to shed light on this issue. Although WTC was considered a concept related to the L1, studies have shifted their focus to L2. In this respect, WTC

has been an interest of many researchers in terms of two different aspects, including trait level of L2 WTC and situational level of L2 WTC.

According to Peng et al. (2017), trait level L2 WTC represents the enduringpredisposition for interaction, whereas the concept of situational level L2 WTC is identified with its temporariness. Thus, trait level L2 WTC differs from the situational L2 WTC in terms of individuals' inclination to participate in communicative situations.

Cao (2011) expresses that if their tendency varies according to the specific situations, this demonstrates the situational level of L2 WTC. However, the constant tendency to enter the situations requiring active interaction is affiliated with the trait level of L2 WTC. To put it in a nutshell, WTC, which is an intricate concept integrating different variables such as psychological, linguistic, educational, and communicative factors, is regarded as the most apparent indicator of L2 use (Clement et al., 2003).

Different researchers investigating WTC (Baker & Macintyre, 2000; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Yashima, 2002) concluded that if an L2 learner has a high level of anxiety related to speaking the target language, that learner is supposed to have low L2 WTC. This can be seen as the indicator of the relationship between WTC and speaking anxiety. Thus, as a key concept in the foreign language education context, WTC is an essential factor that needs to be investigated.

2.7. L2 Motivation

Motivation, generally recognized as one of the individual differences predicting achievement or failure in language learning (Dömyei, 1994; MacIntyre, 2002), has always been a fascinating concern for the researchers interested in SLA since the 1950s. Although it is considered a complex phenomenon consisting of different sources and situations (Dörnyei &Clement, 2001), there have been several

attempts to define the term 'motivation' in the studies related to this area. The concept of motivation stems from the Latin word "movere" that means "to move" as Dömyei and Ushioda (2011) highlighted. Based on this meaning, it can be simply defined as anything which causes a person to act and make an effort for an aim and then maintain that action. A common definition is that motivation is "a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort to attain a previously set goal (or goals)" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p.120). Also, Gardner and Macintyre (1993) define motivation as a concept including three components which are the aspiration to reach a goal, the struggle directed to this aim, and the fulfillment of the task.

Among all individual differences, motivation is probably the most broadly investigated one by various researchers. Furthermore, Ellis (2008) highlighted that it is the most engaging individual difference in language learning. The complexity and dynamic nature of the motivation can be presented as the reason for the high interest in this area. However, this complexity may obstruct the understanding of the motivation concept comprehensively because various researchers focus on the different aspects of it as Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) mentioned.

Although there have been considerable studies on this research area, it may be hard to find a middle ground because of motivation's multifaceted and dynamic construct. Nonetheless, a consensus on three essential components of the construct, including decision, effort, and perseverance can be mentioned (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). These constituents based on the concept of motivation can also be called direction, duration, and intensity in turn (Locke & Latham, 2004).

To clarify the construct of motivation better, Gardner (2013) indicates some ofthe characteristics of a motivated individual as having an objective, feeling eager and making an effort to reach the objective in a positive manner, and maintaining the determination for that goal steadily. Similarly, the essential position of motivation in language learning is underscored in that the aims and directions individuals follow, the

endeavor they made, how much they participate in learning, and how determined they are can be noted as the indicators of motivation (Ushioda, 2014). Therefore, a motivated behavior can be affiliated with various phases of a comprehensive process, from the beginning which is having an objective to the last phase, perseverance for that goal, and the significance of the stages may vary in itself.

As for the relationship between motivation and learning, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) express it as "a cyclical relationship" and motivation is regarded as both a cause and effect of learning (p. 5). Departing from this viewpoint, if an individual is highly motivated, this person will probably be successful. Accordingly, the motivation levels of learners are affected by achievement positively.

When the opposite scenario is considered, low motivation provokes a low level of success, followed by low motivation once more. However, it is hard to point out such a simple relationship because of the complex nature of the construct of motivation. It is also acknowledged by Dömyei and Ushioda (2011) that paying attention to the complex and dynamic nature of motivation is an essential step to consider the link between motivation and learning. The reason is that motivation has a predisposition to fluctuations in the whole process as it is easily affected by both internal and external factors. In addition to the complex nature of it, the construct of motivation like all individual differences has experienced a conceptual transformation while having beenstudied over the years (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Although individual learner characteristics were considered as stable concepts in previous studies, individual difference factors are not regarded as permanent characteristics special to each learner anymore as Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) highlighted. However, this mentioned revolution did not happen in a day, and many studies have been conducted during this period. To comprehend the construct better, it will be useful to scrutinize the growth of L2 motivation research from past to present.

As mentioned above, motivation is a comprehensive and complex construct, and researchers need to concentrate on one specific aspect of it as it is not possible for

them to be concerned with the whole picture (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In this respect, an investigation into the field of motivation, which includes different phases in itself, needs to be conducted to follow the process thoroughly. As Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) delineated, although the third phase developed into a period, which is currently named the socio-dynamic period currently, the growth of L2 motivation research primarily consists of three main periods:

- The Social-Psychological Period (1959-1990)
- The Cognitive-Situated Period (during the 1990s)
- The Process-Oriented Period (beginning with the turn of the century)

If we return to the beginning of the research field related to L2 motivation, the social- psychological period, lasting for decades, initiates under the leadership of Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert. Gardner (1985), one of the pioneers of the social- psychological period, symbolizes motivation as the integration of effort and aspiration to learn a foreign language and having positive attitudes towards L2 learning.

As stated by Gardner and Lambert (1972), the difference between L2 learning motivation and the other types of learning motivation is the effort made not only to acquire the new language knowledge but also to accommodate themselves in the target language community by using their language behaviors. In this regard, they separated the concept of motivation into two different types, referring to integrative motivation and instrumental motivation.

Integrative motivation is regarded as the individual’s aspiration to match up with the members of the target language community whereas instrumental motivation refers to possessing pragmatic goals, such as finding a good job or having a higher salary during language learning.

The point of the departure in the social- psychological viewpoint of L2 motivation is that the achievement of individuals depends on the attitudes they adopt towards the target language community as Gardner (1985) points out. Although the socio-educational model of second language education Gardner and Macintyre (1993) presented has three main constituents, including integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation, and motivation, integrativeness was considered the essential part of the model. However, as time passed, the concept of integrativeness began to be questioned by different scholars (Dömyei, 2009; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Lamb, 2004; Yashima, 2000).

Correspondingly, the notion was exposed to change and conceptualized again. The increasing use of English globally and lacking a particular group for the integration in the scope of learning English as an international language led to a reinterpretation, and integrativeness began to be regarded as uniting with a "globalized world-citizen identity" instead of characterizing it with a specific community (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 79). Furthermore, the perspective towards the notion of integrativeness altered because individuals were able to reach foreign-language speakers and interact with them easily via text messages, video conferencing, and so on with the developing information technology (Kim, 2011).

Following the changing perspectives towards Gardner's theory dominating the social- psychological period, the cognitive-situated period in L2 motivation began at the beginning of the 1900s. While the focus was on the macro perspective of language learning in the social- psychological period, a transition into the micro perspective was observed in the cognitive- situated period (Dörnyei et al., 2016). Researchers in this field began to concentrate on the cognitive psychology of learners and the classroom setting instead of the target language community as Dörnyei (2005) mentioned. In this respect, the cognitive-situated period in L2 motivation is regarded as "a realignment with mainstream educational psychology" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 83-84).

According to Dömyei and Ryan (2015), this phase was outlined with two main orientations: (1) the tendency to catch up with the growth in motivational psychology, and (2) the aspiration towards restricting motivation to a more situated analysis in specific learning situations, a shift from the macro perspective to the micro perspective. To provide a deeper insight into L2 motivation, different cognitive theories were adopted in this phase. Deci and Ryan (1985) put forward their renowned distinction by dividing motivation into two types: (1) extrinsic motivation, and (2) intrinsic motivation. While intrinsic motivation refers to the inclination to do an action because of personal fulfillment or interest, extrinsic motivation stands for tending to perform a task to gain an external reward. Another theory asserted in this phase is attribution theory, and the basic tenet underlying it is related to past experiences.

Weiner (2010) pointed out that how individuals interpret their past experiences shapes the direction of future actions. For example, if an individual has bad prior experiences related to language learning, that person will probably try not to do that action again. Although the studies conducted in this period may seem like a rejection of the social-psychological period, researchers did not deny the efforts made in the prior phase. Instead, they tried to explore the construct of motivation better by integrating the new perspectives towards this area (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Subsequently, the concept of motivation was exposed to a change because it began to be considered as "a dynamic factor that displays continuous fluctuations" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p.84). This phase of L2 motivation, emphasizing the dynamic interactions instead of the individuals or the context alone, is called the process-oriented period. Considering the dynamic nature of the motivation, the L2 motivation process is divided into three stages, and learners respectively go through the stages, which are finding a reason for an action, decision-making to act for it, and maintaining the effort made for the action (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Dörnyei and Otto (1998) developed a new process model of L2 motivation, consisting of three main phases: (1) *pre-actional stage,* (2) *actional stage,* and (3) *post-*

actional stage. Individuals make their decisions to start an activity in the pre-actional stage whereas they perform upon these decisions in the actional stage. In the post-actional stage, the actions are evaluated for future reference. The key point in this model was understanding motivational evolution by separating the complex construct into small units, but it had some limitations, such as a lack of empirical data, having interwoven relations among the stages, and having difficulty in identifying when the stages start and end. To sum up, the process-oriented period, which is characterized by considering motivation as a process and experience in the progress of time, is considered a transition into the socio-dynamic period of L2 motivation.

Along with the increasing importance of the dynamic nature of motivation, the process- oriented period began to evolve into a phase currently called the socio-dynamic period currently. Delving into the specific learner behaviors and classroom procedures in a situated way leads to the initiation of this shift. The socio-dynamic period, a broader approach in L2 motivation, underscores the "dynamic character" and "temporal variation" of the construct of motivation (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 84).

Different scholars have asserted many frameworks to emphasize the socio-dynamic aspects of L2 motivation in this period. Accordingly, the present socio-dynamic perspective paved the way for the update of L2 motivation conceptualization via the concepts of self and identity (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009). In this regard, when we think of learning English in the globalized world, L2 motivation can be conceived of as an urge to integrate with desired self, vision, or global identity.

As mentioned before, several frameworks have been developed by focusing on the socio-dynamic perspectives of L2 motivation in this phase. One of them is Ushioda's person- in-context relational view, which emerged as a result of criticizing the limitations of traditional motivation knowledge. Ushioda (2009) believes that it is hard to study the complex and dynamic nature of motivation with the traditional approaches as they adopted linear and simple relationships between variables. Thus, she introduced this person in context relational view by questioning how learners

combine their current manners with their identities as language learners (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The basic tenet underlying this view is that individuals should not be evaluated apart from the context and culture in the L2 learning process. In this respect, Ushioda (2009) also emphasized how important considering the learners and the context together is as the relationship between the learners and the context has a dynamic nature like motivation.

Another framework based on the socio-dynamic perspectives of the L2 motivation is the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) put forward by Dörnyei (2005). Before examining L2MSS in detail, the exploration of two crucial theories, namely the possible selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and the self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), underpinning Dörnyei's framework seems essential to comprehend it better.

The possible selves theory, which contributed to the motivational aspects of the self, has a great influence on the development of L2MSS. Possible selves are regarded as "individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming" (Markus & Nurius, 1986, p.954). Accordingly, the ideal or hoped-for selves refer to what people would like to become while the expected selves represent what people might become. Also, feared selves serve as what people are scared of turning out to be. As Markus and Nurius (1986) underscored, possible selves can be considered as individuals' hopes, goals, desires, and fears associated with personal meanings beyond ordinary imagined states or roles.

Depending on the possible selves theory, the following two vital functions increase the importance of possible selves in terms of a cognitive and motivational perspective: serving as an impetus for individuals' future behavior and creating a situation to evaluate and interpret the individuals' current actual selves (Hoyle & Sherrill, 2006; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Oyserman & Markus, 1990). Furthermore, Markus (2006) mentioned self-relevant mental imagery as a fundamental element of possible selves, and this was considered as the element separating possible selves from

goal managing human behavior (Dörnyei, 2009). In short, possible selves can be considered as a prominent concept that scrutinizes the way of individuals' self-representations, and how these guide individuals for future action by approaching their hoped-for selves or abstaining from their feared selves (Hoyle & Sherrill, 2006).

Concurrently, self-discrepancy theory, which is considered as a complementary viewpoint to clarify self-knowledge by dealing with future-related aspects of the self- concept, was presented by Higgins and his associates (Higgins, 1987; Higgins et al., 1985). The theory was formed to define the exchange among different self-states, and Higgins (1987) split the self into three main categories following: (1) *the actual self,* (2) *the ideal self,* and (3) *the ought self.*

According to this classification, the actual self displays the self-representation of the qualities at present, whereas the ideal self is related to personal desires and self-imagined goals. Finally, the ought self stands for an individual's self-representation of the qualities s/he believes s/he ought to have. As Dörnyei (2009) expressed, the major difference between the ideal self and the ought self is that while the ideal self is affiliated with the individual's own desires and hopes, the ought self refers to the characteristics one ought to have that stem from others' vision for the person.

The actual self is perceived as an individual's self-concept while the ideal and ought selves are regarded as future self-guides (Higgins, 1987). Considering the classification of self- states, namely the actual self, the ideal self, and the ought self, Higgins (1987) proposed with the self-discrepancy theory that individuals make a comparison of their actual selves and future self-states and pursue harmony between them. In this respect, motivation represents the aspiration for diminishing the incongruity between actual and desired selves (Dömyei & Ryan, 2015). However, Higgins (1998) differentiates the ideal self and the ought self that the ideal self has a constructive focus and related with the individual's own desires and hopes whereas the ought self presents a prevention focus intending to stay away from any adverse and undesirable effects.

Considering these two theories together, they put forward subsidiary insights for motivational aspects of future-oriented self-states. As mentioned before, these two social- psychological theories also underlie the L2MMS developed by Dörnyei (2009). L2MSS, which is the result of a combination of two important theoretical improvements in the L2 area and mainstream psychology, has had an overarching effect in the field since it was introduced.

Dörnyei (2005) benefitted from Markus and Nurius's (1986) possible selves theory and Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory while developing this framework, and the notion of integrativeness proposed by Gardner in the previous periods has not been ignored. Conversely, a transform in the realm of Gardner's (2001) integrativeness underpinned the growth of L2MSS. Following the enhancement of Gardner's L2 motivation theory, L2 motivation was reconceptualized as a unit of the learner's self-system, and it was considered to have a close link with the learner's self-imagery and the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005). Delving into the different dimensions of an L2 learner's self and the multi-faceted dimensions of his or her identity, the L2MSS possesses three major constituents: (1) *the ideal L2 self,* (2) *the ought-to L2 self,* and (3) *the L2 learning experience.*

Among these components, the ideal L2 self can be associated with the L2-specific image a person would like to become. The second dimension, which is the ought-to L2 self, stands for the qualities associated with the L2 a person thinks she or he is required to own to satisfy others' expectations or avoid adverse outcomes. As for the third facet of the L2MMS, the L2 learning experience focuses on the individual's immediate learning experience that constructs the language learning environment with the motives, such as the curriculum, teacher, and peers. The other two major dimensions of L2MSS, namely the ideal L2 self, and the ought-to L2 self, will be discussed in the next sections in detail.

Shortly, the L2MSS provides opportunities to explore the L2 learners' self-systems, which illustrate future-oriented visions specific to the L2 learning (Ryan &

Irie, 2014). Nevertheless, Dörnyei (2009) reminds that the activation of the motivational potential of possible selves depends on some specific conditions, such as *availability of an elaborate and vivid future self-image, perceived plausibility, harmony between the ideal and ought selves, necessary activation/priming, accompanying procedural strategies, the offsetting impact of a feared self* (p.18).

To put it in a nutshell, L2 motivation has been associated with its dynamic and complex nature as underlined by many researchers, and the variability of motivation has been investigated a lot in the past two phases of motivation studies. Dömyei and Otto (1998) divided motivation into three stages, including initiating, sustaining, and evaluating in the process- oriented area.

As for the socio-dynamic period, Dörnyei (2005) has become the focus of the L2MSS. Although this period contributed to the literature with its future-oriented perspective, Dörnyei et al. (2016) criticized it later because the main constituents of the framework did not clarify enough the complex dynamics underlying the L2-related motivated behavior. However, this issue has been cleared up by extending the future self-guides into a vision that can be identified as the individuals' demonstration of their future objective states (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). This further theoretical aspect in the recent L2 motivation field can be associated with imagination and vision as Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) expressed.

The concept of imagery has centered on a novel investigation, concentrating on directed motivational currents (DMC). Being a vision-oriented concept, DMC is a motivational phenomenon arousing a long-term attempt to get an ultimate goal by way of its vision (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). In other words, DMC can be affiliated with a framework that creates a compatible structure for the process and serves an active function to preserve the current flowing concurrently (Dörnyei et al., 2014).

When it comes to the prominence of L2 motivation for the current study, it is broadly accepted that L2 motivation is one of the most crucial individual differences shaping achievement or failure in the L2 learning context. Therefore, exploring the

effects of L2 motivation on L2 learning has been a concern of various researchers (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; MacIntyre, 2002). Gardner and Lambert (1972) declare that if the other factors are kept equal, L2 motivation can be seen as the factor showing a change and directing learners to success as the other things in the L2 context requires motivation to some extent (Dörnyei, 2005). Moreover, motivated learners can be highly proficient in an L2 without considering their cognitive features although it is possible for intelligent learners to fail as they are unmotivated to learn an L2 (Dörnyei, 2001). In brief, L2 motivation functions as both a preliminary power and a maintaining force affecting the whole L2 learning process (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

2.8. The Ideal L2 Self

One of the main dimensions of L2MSS developed by Dörnyei (2005) is the ideal L2 self and it is regarded as the core element of the framework. The ideal L2 self is originally described as "the representation of all the attributes that a person would like to possess (e.g., hopes, aspirations, desires)" (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005, p. 616). In addition, Dörnyei (2009) identifies the ideal L2 self as "the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self" (p. 29).

According to Ryan and Dörnyei (2013), it stands for the most influential motivator in the process of L2 learning as the ideal L2 self can be easily linked to an individual's L2 proficiency. Also, it is claimed that "a major source of any absence of L2 motivation is likely to be the lack of a developed ideal self" (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 33). In other words, the reason why an individual does not have a high level of L2 motivation may be the ideal L2 self in insufficient levels. For instance, when an individual wants to speak an L2 fluently, the mental image of that person as a fluent L2 speaker functions as an effective motivator for declining the discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal image (Papi, 2010). Thus, the ideal L2 self is considered to play a fundamental role in the L2 learning process.

As for the initiation of the ideal L2 self-concept, a great theoretical shift has appeared in the L2 motivation research area when the framework called L2MSS was suggested by Dörnyei (2009). L2 motivation, which is believed to be a key indicator of achievement or failure in the context of L2 learning, has been reconceptualized, and a transition from the traditional integrative/instrumental motivation to the concept of motivation as a part of the learner's self- system has taken place (Dörnyei, 2010).

Many researchers interested in this area have questioned the concept of integrativeness, but it has not been rejected completely. On the contrary, they have aimed to provide a deeper understanding of L2 motivation depending on the ideal L2 self concept. For instance, the study carried out by Ryan (2009) intended to test the notion of the ideal L2 self empirically and examine this concept in a Japanese educational context. According to the findings of this study, integrativeness can be considered as the local expression of a more complex construct, which is the ideal L2 self. In other words, integrativeness is regarded as a unit within a broader L2 self-concept because the ideal L2 self has the power of explaining motivated behavior better.

Taguchi et al. (2009) administered on the purpose of justifying Dörnyei's L2MSS within three Asian settings uncovered that the concept of ideal L2 self attained a better explanatory potential based on the intended effort of learners. Therefore, integrativeness has been reinterpreted as a part of a broader notion of the ideal L2 self.

In addition to these, Dömyei (2009) believes that traditional integrative and internalized instrumental motives are regarded within this dimension of L2MSS. The ideal L2 self is thought to be comprised of both integrative and instrumental dispositions along with its dynamic nature. However, Kim (2009) argues that an L2-specific image of one's ideal L2 self may refer to an aspiration related to integrating into the L2 community (integrativeness), finding a job in an international workplace by using the L2 (instrumentality), or the blend of these two desires. Because of the changing and globalized world, a clear distinction between integrativeness and

instrumentality does not seem much possible, and it may be more purposeful to deal with the complexity of the notion of the ideal L2 self with the intention of perceiving it better.

It has been acknowledged by many researchers that the ideal L2 self makes a great contribution to the current L2 motivation research area (Kim & Kim, 2012; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Papi, 2010; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). The concept of the ideal L2 self serves a major function in the realm of L2 motivation as well as it is considered to have a close relationship with the achievement in the L2 learning process (Huang et al., 2015; Lanvers, 2016). However, it should be noted that future self-guides, namely the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self, differ from goals even though both of them are regarded as future end-states. Similarly, future self-guides should not be considered a subset of goals (Dörnyei, 2009).

While future self-guides consist of cognitive, emotional, visual, and sensory facets, the nature of goals is just cognitive (Magid & Chan, 2012). In brief, although possible selves can be affiliated with long-term developmental goals, the ideal L2 self is considered a broader concept than goals (Pizzolato, 2006).

Regarding the nature of the possible selves, imagination has great importance since the concept of possible selves depends on people's perceptions related to themselves in the future as underscored by Markus and Nurius (1986). That is, possible selves match up with the dreams and visions of individuals. Therefore, they can be regarded as the vision of what might be. Individuals can hear and see their possible selves because the notion of possible selves contains actual images and senses (Markus & Nurius, 1986). According to Dörnyei (2009), the possible selves concept proposed by Markus and Nurius (1986) paved the way for utilizing the influential motivational function of imagination. Moreover, vision and imagery serve a function in displaying the motivational force of possible selves and future self-guides (Dömyei, 2009; Markus, 2006).

Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) mention vision as a motivational structure that is fundamental in the L2 context. In this regard, it is considered that individuals having a vivid ideal self-image are more eager to join in the L2 learning activities when compared to the learners without that kind of self-image (Dörnyei, 2014a). The links among imagery capacity, learning styles, future self-guides, and motivated L2 behavior have been studied by various researchers recently (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009b; Kim & Kim, 2011). The findings persistently revealed that learners having a more powerful ideal L2 self showed a predisposition to being successful in the L2 learning context. In short, imagery and visualization support creating a more vivid ideal L2 self due to the association of vision and imagery with the ideal L2 self.

To put it in a nutshell, the ideal L2 self can be identified as features an individual would like to possess to be competent in an L2. It serves as a powerful motivator for learners to be proficient L2 users. Learners in the L2 learning process imagine themselves having ideal features and attempt to lessen the discrepancy between their actual and ideal selves thanks to this influential motivator, so learners' capacity for visual imagery plays an important role to reduce the mentioned gap. In this respect, individuals possessing a clear and influential ideal self-image are considered to be more eager and motivated to succeed in reaching their goals (Csizer & Magid, 2014).

The fundamental driving force motivating individuals to begin and maintain learning an L2 is the discrepancy between their actual and ideal selves in the L2 (Williams et al., 2016). Because of these reasons, the ideal L2 self is regarded as the main element of the L2MSS. Regarding the effects of the ideal L2 self on the learners' proficiency levels in L2 learning, the ideal L2 self serves as an important factor that is required to be assessed for the current study.

2.9. The Ought-to L2 Self

The ought-to L2 self, another component of Dörnyei's L2MSS, is originally associated with characteristics an individual needs to have to avoid possible adverse outcomes as Dörnyei (2009) stated. It is also regarded as more extrinsic (i.e., less internalized) because language learners perceive it as duties, obligations, or responsibilities they have to deal with. The ought- to L2 self derives from the ought self- concept which is a component of the self-discrepancy theory developed by Higgins (1987).

When it is analyzed, the ought self corresponds to a prevention focus aiming to stay away from any negative and undesirable effects. Namely, an individual with ought self feels pressure to act in line with other people's expectations. Correspondingly, it serves as an instrumental stimulus that owns a prevention focus within the scope of language learning (Csizer & Dömyei, 2005). To exemplify, a learner having an L2-related intention to satisfy the expectations of a teacher or a boss may be stimulated by the ought-to L2 self to learn the L2 (Papi, 2010).

Although the ought-to L2 self is accounted as a determinant of learners' L2 motivation similar to the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013), it has less impact on activating learners' motivated behaviors in comparison with the ideal L2 self. It is expressed in a study carried out by Kim (2011) that the ought-to L2 self owns a minor role in L2 motivation unlike the ideal L2 self since it functions only at the cognitive level and does not own any emotional commitment to it by the learner.

Learners with the ought-to L2 self have problems in personalizing the base of L2 learning because they perceive learning an L2 as a duty or obligation. In addition, the ideal and the ought to L2 selves possess different focal points. The ought-to L2 self is based on a prevention focus concerning the possible adverse outcomes of perceived duties or obligations whereas the ideal L2 self adopts a promotion focus concerning hopes, aspirations, and desires (Dörnyei, 2009). In other words, it becomes possible for the learners to reach their desired end-states thanks to the ideal L2 self, but the

ought-to L2 self poses an obstacle for them in terms of staying away from a feared end-state.

Also, the ought-to L2 self depends on the culture of the L2 learning context as Teimouri (2017) put forward. To clarify, learners possessing the ought to L2 self may have more difficulties in language learning in eastern countries as they are influenced by social pressure more when compared to western countries. However, it is asserted that the self-images of L2 learners are interchangeable (Kim, 2009b). From this point of view, it is probable to convert the ought-to L2 self into the ideal L2 self provided that individuals can internalize the goal of learning an L2. Through the personalization of the L2, the ought-to L2 self may serve with regard to cognitive and affective aspects and exert a major influence on L2 motivation.

To summarize, the ought-to L2 self is counted as qualities learners need to possess to fulfill others' expectations or prevent possible unfavorable outcomes, and it has an important influence on L2 motivation. The ought-to L2 self is covered in the current study because the ought-to L2 self affects L2 learners' anxiety levels adversely as indicated by Peng (2015). Also, Papi (2010) claimed that learners with the ought-to L2 self are inclined to experience a high level of L2 anxiety, and this may lead to an unwillingness to learn the L2. In this respect, the ought-to L2 self may be an essential factor to investigate.

2.10 An Overview of Relevant Studies

Anxiety has been an intriguing issue for many researchers interested in the foreign language learning context for a long time because it is considered one of the affective individual difference variables designating the L2 learners' progress during language learning (Gardner & Macintyre, 1993 a). Moreover, the impact of foreign language anxiety on learners' achievement in FLE has been proved by different researchers, and it is accounted as one of the factors predicting achievement in foreign

language learning best (Horwitz & Young, 1991; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Sanchez-Herrero & Sanchez, 1992). It is also claimed that if FLA is not measured in a model having an aim to predict foreign language achievement, that can be considered underdetermined (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). In this regard, foreign language anxiety has been studied from different points of views in different contexts.

To begin with, the position of anxiety in foreign language education has been researched by Horwitz et al. (1986), and this study is accepted as one of the pioneers when the relevant studies are considered. In the light of this study, many scholars have implemented Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and conducted different studies both in the Turkish EFL context (Demirdaş, 2012; Tuncer & Doğan, 2015; Ün, 2012; Ziyan Atlı, 2017) and in other language teaching contexts around the world (Aida, 1994; Bailey et al., 1999; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016; Kim, 2009; Liu, 2006; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Von Worde, 2003). Some of these studies have centered upon examining the causes of foreign language anxiety and come up with some solutions to deal with this issue (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016; Liu, 2006; Luo, 2018; Ün, 2012; Ziyan Atlı, 2017). For example, the study conducted by Ün (2012) revealed that fear of negative evaluation, having a low level of language proficiency and lack of group work activities can be considered as the sources of foreign language anxiety. Furthermore, Liu (2006) sought the causes of foreign language anxiety in a Chinese context and listed the results as: (1) having individual activities instead of group work, (2) being unprepared, and (3) having inadequate language competency.

Various scholars have investigated how related foreign language anxiety and foreign language achievement are (Demirdaş, 2012; Horwitz, 2001; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). These studies found that FLA and language achievement were correlated with each other negatively. Also, Bailey et al. (1999) and Von Worde (2003) have examined learner perspectives on foreign language anxiety, and these studies have discovered that how students perceive themselves in foreign language education serves a fundamental function in reducing foreign language anxiety.

As for speaking, which is regarded as one of the prevalent reasons for foreign language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986), it is of vital importance in foreign language education because proficiency in a foreign language is considered to correspond to the ability to speak that language in a fluent and effective way (Dalton-Puffer, 2006). Also, communication is accounted as a basic requirement for humans since they can share their opinions, feelings, and beliefs by way of communication. In this respect, speaking as a productive skill provides opportunities for people to communicate with each other, and English has a prominent place in communication with different cultures because of its function as a lingua franca as mentioned in previous sections.

In many areas such as media, tourism and education, English is seen as a necessity for good communication with people from other cultures. Thus, knowing how to speak English is affiliated with having a substantial advantage (Crystal, 2003). Nevertheless, speaking is also acknowledged as the most challenging and anxiety-provoking skill among others (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Palacious, 1998; Tercan & Dikilitaş, 2015).

Accordingly, many researchers have carried out various studies in different contexts to find out how anxious learners are while speaking a foreign language, and these researchers have addressed this issue from different perspectives, such as using anxiety coping strategies or solutions for speaking anxiety, perceptions of students and teachers on speaking ability and speaking anxiety, speaking anxiety levels of learners, the association between speaking anxiety and achievement, and causes of speaking anxiety.

To begin with, how students or teachers perceive speaking skill and their perceptions' relation with speaking anxiety have been studied by different researchers (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Gürbüz, 2019; Nazara, 2011; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014). Dinçer and Yeşilyurt (2013) carried out a study to probe into pre-service English teachers' ideas about teaching speaking skill. It was found out in the study that participants having intrinsic or extrinsic motivation to speak English perceived

speaking instruction in Turkey negatively although they acknowledged the prominence of speaking for language learning. Also, these students identified themselves as incompetent speakers, and the reason for this perception appeared to be speaking anxiety or motivation.

Another study conducted by Gürbüz (2019) aimed to explore oral presentation perceptions of prep class students regarding language ability, motivation, and speaking anxiety. Data were collected from 33 preparatory class students having 10 oral presentations at a state university by way of pre- and post-questionnaires, interviews, self-reflection, and peer evaluation forms. The findings of the preliminary study demonstrated that students generally had optimistic beliefs about oral presentations because they knew how important these oral presentations were for communication. However, students also had negative ideas about oral presentations, and they found teachers responsible for these adverse ideas due to lack of instructions and limitations. Regarding this dissatisfaction, students also felt anxious in the case of an oral presentation. The post data pointed out that there was a change in the perceptions of students, and they took advantage of oral presentations for reducing speaking anxiety and acknowledged how prominent oral presentations are for improving themselves in many ways.

Another focal point of studies conducted on foreign language speaking anxiety was using various strategies to enhance the speaking ability and reduce speaking anxiety both in the Turkish EFL context and in other language teaching contexts around the world (Darıyemez, 2020; Fauzan, 2016; Han & Keskin, 2016; Liu, 2018; Öz, 2017; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009; Uyumaz, 2020; Zerey, 2008).

Tsiplakides and Keramida, (2009) carried out a study aiming to help teachers by suggesting some strategies, including the implementation of project work and creating a supportive classroom atmosphere to reduce speaking anxiety. They also examined the characteristics of learners who experience anxiety while speaking and the causes of this anxiety. According to the findings of their study, giving place to project works in the classroom is very advantageous because students have the

opportunity to study with their peers actively in a non-threatening context. Also, a supportive classroom atmosphere facilitates students to lessen their speaking anxiety levels because learners' fear of making errors triggers their speaking anxiety.

Darıyemez (2020) investigated the impacts of teaching speaking skills via Flipped Classroom Model regarding learners' autonomy, WTC, and anxiety. Also, how students comprehend the flipped speaking instruction was examined. The study was carried out by collecting data from 55 EFL students in a tertiary level Turkish EFL context. The study revealed that while autonomous learning levels and willingness to communicate levels of learners increased significantly, their speaking anxiety decreased just as the Flipped Classroom Model was implemented in the class properly. The study also showed that the Flipped Classroom Model offers many advantages for learners as they can be exposed to the language inside and outside the classroom.

In another study conducted by Öz (2017), a mixed-method research design was selected to investigate how mindfulness training affects learners in terms of speaking anxiety, L2 WTC, mindfulness levels, and L2 speaking performance. The study performed with 29 tertiary level EFL students figured out that mindfulness training increased learners' mindfulness levels and helped to reduce L2 speaking anxiety. Moreover, learners having mindfulness training got higher points in midterm exam when compared to the other students in the school.

When we examine the literature regarding the causes of foreign language speaking anxiety, there has been an influx of research investigating why learners feel anxious while speaking an L2. Various researchers both in the Turkish EFL context and in other language teaching contexts across the world have aspired to explore what factors affect the foreign language speaking anxiety of learners. However, these researchers have focused on different aspects along with exploring the causes of foreign language speaking anxiety. Although they have scrutinized the sources of foreign language speaking anxiety in common, these scholars have also investigated different variables, such as speaking anxiety levels and its relationship with proficiency.

A study carried out by Saltan (2003) examined the reasons for speaking anxiety Turkish EFL learners experience during language classrooms from the viewpoints of students and teachers. Data were collected from 100 intermediate level learners and 7 teachers who are teaching these students with two versions of the same questionnaire for students and teachers.

FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) was selected for data collection as it is commonly used to investigate foreign language anxiety within the scope of related literature. However, 18 items from the scale were selected and adapted because the purpose of the study was related to foreign language speaking anxiety. According to the results of the study, many students experienced anxiety at a certain level although this level was not intensely high. As for the causes of speaking anxiety from the viewpoint of students, this study offered three possible categories, including personal reasons, teachers' behaviors, and teaching procedures. Participants of this study noted that their speaking anxiety mostly results from personal reasons, such as assessing their language abilities adversely and fear of making mistakes.

Teaching procedures are one other anxiety-provoking element mentioned in this study. Speaking in front of a group, not practicing speaking enough and some types of activities like oral presentations provoke learners' anxiety level when they have to speak an L2. The last category is related to teachers' behaviors, but students in this study did not mention it as a reason for speaking anxiety. As for the teachers' perspectives, they also agreed that the most anxiety-provoking factor is personal reasons. Teachers made a further comment that learners' beliefs about language learning, native speakers or teachers, and using L1 or L2 affect their speaking anxiety. They also acknowledged that teaching procedures can be noted as the second most anxiety- provoking category. Lastly, teachers did not report teachers' behaviors as a reason for speaking anxiety, which is similar to the students' views. This study has importance in the literature related to foreign language speaking anxiety as the researcher adapted the Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (FLSAS)

considering the examination of speaking anxiety. Following this study, different scholars have implemented the adapted version by Saltan (2003) in their studies (Baykara & Aksu Ataç, 2021; Boldan, 2019; Çağatay, 2015).

One other study conducted in Australia by Woodrow (2006) aimed to conceptualize L2 speaking anxiety and explore the relationship between achievement and L2 speaking anxiety along with enlightening the reasons behind L2 speaking anxiety. The study was conducted with 275 students in EAP courses, and the collected data demonstrated that a crucial issue within the context of language learning is anxiety as it has debilitating effects on learners' speaking performances. Therefore, the necessity of providing classroom interactions and help by teachers to decrease learners' anxiety levels was stated. Moreover, speaking anxiety made a significant contribution to explaining achievement in speaking ability as the researcher stated. The most prevalent source of L2 speaking anxiety was communicating with native speakers according to the data collected from interviews. It was noted that learners felt anxious while speaking an L2 because of a lack of language proficiency and retrieval interference.

Balemir (2009) scrutinized factors causing foreign language speaking anxiety and the relationship between learners' speaking anxiety levels and proficiency levels. He conducted the study by collecting data via a proficiency exam, a questionnaire, and interviews with the learners with 234 tertiary level EFL students. The results of the quantitative data demonstrated that learners participating in this study experienced foreign language speaking anxiety at a moderate level, and the proficiency levels of learners did not affect their anxiety levels significantly. Also, the following four main anxiety-provoking factors were stated on the basis of quantitative data results: teaching and testing procedures, personal reasons, and fear of negative evaluation. Additionally, the qualitative data revealed some other causes of speaking anxiety such as insufficient vocabulary knowledge and poor pronunciation. Lastly, fear of negative evaluation was stated as the underlying reason for all these sources as it can be affiliated with all the sources mentioned.

In another study, Subaşı (2010) investigated the causes of L2 speaking anxiety of learners with 55 tertiary level students from a state university in the Turkish EFL context. The study adopting a mixed methods research design revealed that learners' anxiety levels are correlated with fear of negative evaluation positively. Also, students having poor self- perception of abilities tended to feel more anxious in comparison to other students. As for the interaction between fear of negative evaluation and learners' self-perceived abilities, if learners have a high fear of negative evaluation and low self- perceived ability, they are inclined to be more anxious while speaking an L2. Therefore, it was noted that fear of negative evaluation and self-perceived ability are correlated with each other, and they were acknowledged as two major sources of foreign language speaking anxiety.

Gan (2012) carried out a study to present an overview for the comprehension of L2 speaking problems with the participation of 20 pre-service English language teachers in a Chinese context. The results obtained from semi-structured interviews displayed the following factors to understand the causes of speaking problems in an L2. Firstly, having an inadequate level of vocabulary was noted as the primary reason for L2 speaking problems. The majority of students also mentioned a lack of grammar as an obstacle while speaking an L2. While some students declared that they feel obliged to be careful about pronunciation and intonation, it was also expressed that they do not have enough opportunities for speaking English in class. Moreover, participants of this study touched on the lack of a focus on language improvement as they have lots of pedagogy-based lessons in the program. The last reason is that sufficient opportunities do not exist for learners' exposure to the L2 outside the classroom.

Çağatay (2015) examined learners' foreign language speaking anxiety levels together with exploring the causes of this anxiety. She conducted the study with tertiary- level EFL students and suggested some solutions following the findings. The quantitative data collected from 147 EFL students figured out that learners

participating in this study experience speaking anxiety at a moderate level. Also, a significant gender difference was found out, and female students' speaking anxiety levels were higher than those of males. It was expressed that this gender difference may stem from the characteristics of Turkish culture. This study did not find a significant correlation between proficiency and speaking anxiety. Speaking with a native speaker in comparison with peer communication increased learners' anxiety levels more, which was another result of the study. The reason underlying the anxiety experienced while communicating with native speakers was indicated as fear of negative evaluation.

In addition, Tercan and Dikilitaş (2015) investigated whether tertiary level EFL students' foreign language speaking anxiety differed based on their proficiency, gender, the duration of the learning experience, and the beginning time of learning. Learners participating in this study were found to feel anxious while speaking because of the following factors: being unprepared, testing, speaking in front of people, error correction and discussion. The study concluded that proficiency and speaking anxiety are significantly linked with each other. For example, learners with a low level of proficiency experience a higher level of speaking anxiety. As for gender differences, female learners are inclined to be more anxious according to the findings of this study. Lastly, the age of onset to learn English did not serve a function in learners' anxiety levels.

A comparative study was conducted to probe whether big five personality factors (BFPF) and L2 speaking anxiety are related to each other or not (Babakhouya, 2019). Moroccans and Koreans were compared with the participation of 270 Moroccan learners and 257 Korean learners. The study drew a conclusion that Koreans do not diverge from Moroccans in the sense of foreign language speaking anxiety. As for the correlation between BFPF and L2 speaking anxiety, neuroticism had a positive correlation with L2 speaking anxiety in the Moroccan context while openness and conscientiousness were correlated with L2 speaking anxiety negatively. On the other hand, neuroticism and L2 speaking anxiety were positively correlated in the

Korean context, whereas a significant negative relationship was found between L2 speaking anxiety and openness, conscientiousness, and extraversion. The factors predicting L2 speaking anxiety were significantly expressed as openness and neuroticism. In general, these two countries have more common characteristics in comparison with the differences between them in this study.

In a similar vein, Vural (2019) intended to examine the L2 speaking anxiety level of learners and figure out whether learners' personality traits predict their L2 speaking anxiety or not by comparing students from ELT and ELL departments. According to the findings of the study, extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness had a significant negative relationship with L2 speaking anxiety whereas neuroticism and agreeableness were positively correlated with it. Among all personality traits, agreeableness was expressed as the major predictor of L2 speaking anxiety. In addition to these, the exploration of sources underlying foreign language speaking anxiety of learners has been the purpose of various scholars depending on different perspectives recently.

Özkan (2019) concluded that learners' proficiency and anxiety levels are significantly correlated, and students with high levels of proficiency tend to get less anxious. The causes of L2 speaking anxiety were expressed as follows: having low vocabulary knowledge, being afraid of making mistakes, and teachers' behaviors. Furthermore, the study carried out by Ülker (2021) demonstrated that learners participating in this study were moderately anxious while speaking the target language, and female learners experienced speaking anxiety at higher levels in comparison with male learners. The study also figured out that the preparatory school background did not affect learners' speaking anxiety levels significantly as students beginning at lower levels experienced speaking anxiety less. Regarding the results of the quantitative data, the most frequent factors provoking speaking anxiety were inadequate competence in speaking ability, being unprepared, and speaking in front of people.

A very recent article that investigated how mindsets of foreign language

learners affect their L2 speaking anxiety and self-confidence was published by Ozdemir and Papi (2021). They aimed to explore whether mindsets predict L2 speaking anxiety and self-confidence through quantitative analysis. According to the results, individuals with fixed language mindsets believed that intelligence is fixed, and efforts made to improve intelligence are useless. On the contrary, individuals with growth mindsets supposed that intelligence is flexible and open to development. They think it is possible to grow it with sufficient experience and effort. The results of multiple regression analysis demonstrated that a fixed language mindset predicted L2 speaking anxiety while a growth language mindset was found as a strong predictor of learners' self- confidence related to L2 speaking.

Moreover, Ozdemir and Papi (2021) expressed on the basis of their study's results that learners' beliefs and motive systems affect learners' emotional conditions, and it is required to comprehend these systems well to cope with learners' emotional conditions.

To sum up, the literature portrayed so far has shown that L2 speaking anxiety has a considerable position in foreign language education, and it is considered a clear and common issue in language classrooms. Therefore, a number of studies have been performed related to the sources underlying the L2 speaking anxiety concerning different perspectives. However, there is a dearth of research into L2 speaking anxiety from a psychological aspect, and the psychological factors affecting L2 speaking anxiety remain uncharted. In this respect, the current study intends to contribute to the literature by focusing on several psychological factors affecting L2 speaking anxiety.

3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter explains the methodology used in the study. It starts by describing the research design and the research questions to give an overview of the nature of the study. Then, it explains how data was collected and provides information about the setting, participants and instruments used. Finally, it presents the data analysis process.

3.1. Research Design

The study aimed to investigate the effects of speech anxiety on speech production by using quantitative methods to identify structural parts related to the usage areas. The study included information such as demographics, speech tracing, and language variables selected by those experiencing speech tracing and different levels of speaking ability. Standardized measurement tools such as “Speech Anxiety Scale” and “Speech Fluency Scale” were used to limit anxiety stores and speech production. These scales were helpful in comprehensive frameworks and a comparative assessment of speaking performances. Different speech programs were given, such as working lectures, various forms of speech such as oral presentation, discussion, role-playing.

The study aimed to reveal comprehensive speaking skills and the use of attention. The next speech performance was used along with observations and other relevant measurements with the use of various tools such as audio recordings, observation notes, comprehensive responses. The collected fibers were made by continuing the analysis. In particular, the explanations between the measurement of speech anxiety and speech production were tried to transform the statistical data. Based on the analyzed data, it also explains the effects of speech anxiety on speech production. The obtained subject has been discussed again in its entirety by making comparisons with the relevant literature. Ultimately, the results are presented from the

point of view with practical recommendations such as creating a stress-free learning environment and collaborative group work.

3.2. Research Questions

This study explores the level of foreign language speaking anxiety within Turkish context. The main research question of this study is whether or not any difference between the levels of foreign language speaking anxiety for certain characteristics. Thus, the null hypothesis of this study can be arranged as following;

H10: There is no difference between the levels of foreign language speaking anxiety based on participants' gender

H20: There is no difference between the levels of foreign language speaking anxiety based on participants' age?

H30: There is no difference between the levels of foreign language speaking anxiety based on participants' high school type?

3.3. Data Collection Process

The data collection process began with obtaining the necessary permissions from Trakya University and Beykent University. The data collection tools were distributed via QR codes leading to questionnaires via Google Forms. The data collection process lasted in two months. After that, the collected data were analyzed.

3.4. The Setting and Participants

The study was conducted during the 2021-2022 school year with participants selected from 120 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) preparatory students of a

foundation university. Permissions have been obtanined for the study Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, a Google Forms questionnaire was prepared and shared with the students by the instructors using digital platforms. The students were given the flexibility to complete the questionnaire when they were free.

This approach seems to be a practical solution to ensure data collection while adhering to the safety protocols and restrictions imposed by the pandemic. Using online platforms like Google Forms allows for remote data collection, ensuring minimal physical contact and promoting convenience for the participants.

3.5. Instruments

In this study, quantitative data collection instruments were utilized, the Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (FLSAS) to gather initial quantitative data. The scale employed in this research consisted of two sections. The first section focused on obtaining personal information from the participants, including their name, department, gender, and the duration of their English language learning. The remaining 18 questions in this section pertained to foreign language speaking anxiety. The scale adopted a five- point Likert scale format, wherein responses ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (See Appendix A for further details).

The FLSAS used in this study comprised 18 items, each scored on a 5-point Likert scale, with response options ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Notably, grammatically negative sentences were incorporated into the scale, and these were taken into account during the analysis process, where they were scored in reverse. The obtained scores from the scale provided an indication of the level of English- speaking anxiety experienced by the participants. Due to the precautions necessitated by the Covid-19 pandemic, the questionnaires were administered online to the students. (see Appendix B)

3.6. Statistical Analysis

All data of the research is analyzed in SPSS 28.0 package program. In the study, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test was applied to measure whether the data showed a normal distribution. In the study, the T test was used to compare paired groups, and the Anova test was used to compare two or more groups.

3.7. Data Analysis

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was used in this study. (see Appendix A). The study provides descriptive statistics of the participants' demographic information. Chi-square test was used to test if there are any differences between the age group and school types based on gender. The scale scores based on gender and school was assured with independent t-test. The scale score difference between age group was analyzed with ANOVA test. The analysis was conducted with SPSS (IBM version 21).

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Demographic Information of Participants

In the present study, Table 1 presents the comprehensive compilation of demographic information pertaining to the participants involved in the research.

Table 4.1. Demographic Information of Participants

N=120		N	%
Age	17-22	81	67.5
	22-27	22	18.3
	27-32	6	5
	32+	11	9.2
Gender	Female	83	69.2
	Male	37	30.8
How many years have you been learning English?	1-5	43	35.8
	6-10	47	39.2
	11-15	13	10.8
	16-20	9	7.5
	21-26	8	6.7
What type of high school did you graduate from?	Private high school	29	24.2
	Public high school	91	75.8

As can be seen from Table 1, a total of 120 people participated in the research. When we look at the distribution of the participants by age; 81 of the participants were 17-22, 22 participants 22-27, 6 participants 27-32, 11 participants 32 and over years old. When we look at the distribution of the participants by gender; it is seen that 83 people are women and 37 people are men. When we look at the distribution of the participants according to the English education; it is seen that 43 people received education for 1-5 years, 47 people for 6-10 years, 13 people for 11-15 years, 9 for 16-20 years, 8 for 21-26 years. When we look at the types of high schools which the participants graduated from; it is seen that 29 people graduated from private high schools and 91 people graduated from public high schools.

The distribution of the participants participating in this study was analyzed descriptively. In addition, whether the distributions differ according to gender was tested with the chi-square test. The details of the analysis are presented at the following table (Table 1).

Table 4.2. Descriptive analysis and Pearson Chi-Square Tests results for age and school types

		Gender							
		Female		**Male**					
		N	%	N	%	Total	Chi- square	df	p
Age	17-22	54	66,7	27	33,3	81	1,638	3	.651[a]
	23-27	15	68,2	7	31,8	22			
	28-32	5	83,3	1	16,7	6			
	32+	9	81,8	2	18,2	11			
	Total	83		37		120			
School	State High School	60	65,9	31	34,1	91	1,845	1	0,174
	Private High School	23	79,3	6	20,7	29			
	Total	83		37		120			

Results are based on nonempty rows and columns in each innermost subtable.
a. More than 20% of cells in this subtable have expected cell counts less than 5. Chi-square results may be invalid.

According to the descriptive analyzes, 83 females and 37 males participated in the study, according to the findings obtained from the Chi-square test. When examined in terms of age, the number of participants in the 17-22 age range is 81, the number of participants in the 23-27 age range is 22, the number of participants in the 28-31 age range is 6, and the number of participants over 32 years old is 11. When the distribution of the participants according to the school they attended was examined, the number of those who went to the state high school was 91 and the number of those who went to the private high school was 29. The percentage distribution of these distributions and their distribution by gender are given in detail in the table above. In addition, whether the distribution of these participations according to gender is statistically significant or not was examined with the chi-square test. According to the

findings, the age variable does not show a significant difference according to age and high school variable based on gender (p>0.05).

This study has a purpose to check if there is any difference between female and male participants' foreign language speaking anxiety scale results. In order to test this research hypothesis an independent T-test was applied.

Table 4.3. The Foreign language speaking anxiety results based on gender

Gender		N	Mean	Std.Deviation	t	df	p
Q1	Female	83	3.31	1.278	1.277	118	.204
	Male	37	3.00	1.155			
Q2	Female	83	3.24	1.445	1.162	118	.248
	Male	37	2.92	1.299			
Q3	Female	83	2.77	1.291	-.578	118	.564
	Male	37	2.92	1.299			
Q4	Female	83	2.76	1.321	-.398	118	.691
	Male	37	2.86	1.398			
Q5	Female	83	3.23	1.391	-.445	118	.657
	Male	37	3.35	1.399			
Q6	Female	83	2.77	1.443	-.982	118	.328
	Male	37	3.05	1.490			
Q7	Female	83	3.16	1.452	.626	118	.533
	Male	37	2.97	1.554			
Q8	Female	83	2.93	1.314	.034	118	.973
	Male	37	2.92	1.320			
Q9	Female	83	3.02	1.388	.381	118	.704
	Male	37	2.92	1.422			
Q10	Female	83	2.78	1.506	1.012	118	.313
	Male	37	2.49	1.426			
Q11	Female	83	2.84	1.461	.020	118	.984
	Male	37	2.84	1.344			
Q12	Female	83	2.88	1.426	1.111	118	.269
	Male	37	2.57	1.405			
Q13	Female	83	3.00	1.297	-.827	118	.410
	Male	37	3.22	1.377			
Q14	Female	83	3.11	1.371	.611	118	.543
	Male	37	2.95	1.290			
Q15	Female	83	2.76	1.428	-1.341	118	.182
	Male	37	3.14	1.398			
Q16	Female	83	3.19	1.357	-.385	118	.701
	Male	37	3.30	1.412			
Q17	Female	83	2.43	1.548	.187	118	.852
	Male	37	2.38	1.381			
Q18	Female	83	2.95	1.431	-.358	118	.721
	Male	37	3.05	1.471			
TOTAL	Female	83	53.14	18.764	.084	118	.933
	Male	37	52.84	17.911			

Based on the independent t-test results (Table 2), there are no statistically significant differences between female and male participants' each scale item results. Indeed, there is no statistically significant difference between female and male participants' total scale results ($t_{118}=0.084$, $p=0.933>0.05$). This result shows that H10 hypothesis is accepted.

In order to check the difference between participants' foreign language speaking anxiety scale results based on their school types, an independent T-test was applied. The results of the test are presented at the following table (Table 3).

Table 4.4. The Foreign language speaking anxiety results based on school types

School Type		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p
Q1	State High School	91	3.30	1.278	1.251	118	.214
	Private High School	29	2.97	1.117			
Q2	State High School	91	3.26	1.389	1.700	118	.092
	Private High School	29	2.76	1.405			
Q3	State High School	91	3.00	1.274	2.839	118	.005
	Private High School	29	2.24	1.185			
Q4	State High School	91	2.91	1.404	1.759	118	.081
	Private High School	29	2.41	1.053			
Q5	State High School	91	3.37	1.419	1.503	118	.136
	Private High School	29	2.93	1.252			
Q6	State High School	91	2.95	1.478	1.157	118	.250
	Private High School	29	2.59	1.376			
Q7	State High School	91	3.24	1.456	1.878	118	.063
	Private High School	29	2.66	1.495			
Q8	State High School	91	3.02	1.299	1.443	118	.152
	Private High School	29	2.62	1.321			
Q9	State High School	91	3.15	1.382	2.299	118	.023
	Private High School	29	2.48	1.326			
Q10	State High School	91	2.77	1.521	1.015	118	.312
	Private High School	29	2.45	1.352			
Q11	State High School	91	3.02	1.437	2.519	118	.013
	Private High School	29	2.28	1.222			
Q12	State High School	91	2.87	1.462	1.159	118	.249
	Private High School	29	2.52	1.271			
Q13	State High School	91	3.25	1.261	2.813	118	.006
	Private High School	29	2.48	1.353			
Q14	State High School	91	3.12	1.324	.903	118	.368
	Private High School	29	2.86	1.407			

Q15	State High School	91	3.00	1.461	1.718	118	.088
	Private High School	29	2.48	1.243			
Q16	State High School	91	3.26	1.357	.548	118	.585
	Private High School	29	3.10	1.423			
Q17	State High School	91	2.51	1.523	1.156	118	.250
	Private High School	29	2.14	1.382			
Q18	State High School	91	3.03	1.501	.668	118	.505
	Private High School	29	2.83	1.227			
Scale Total	State High School	91	55.04	18.646	2.130	118	.035
	Private High School	29	46.79	16.515			

Based on the independent t-test results (Table 3), there are no statistically significant differences between most of the scale results based on the participants' school types. However, for some scale items the differences between the participants' results were found significant based on their school types. For the item 3, item 9, item 11 and item 13 the difference was found statistically significant ($p<0.05$). These items are; (Q1) I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in English classes, (Q3) I don't feel confident when I speak English in classes, (Q11) I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes and (Q13) I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students. Indeed, there is a statistically significant differences found between participants' total scale scores based on their school type ($t_{118}= 2.130$, $p=0.035<0.05$). It was found that for all these scale items and scale total scores, the participant who graduated from state school has higher mean scores than the participants who graduated from private high schools. This results show that H20 is rejected.

This study test whether there is a differences between scale results based on the participants age group. The age of the participants were divided to four groups; 17-22, 23-27, 28-32 and over 32. The ANOVA test was used to check the differences between these groups. The results are presented at the following table (Table 4).

Table 4.5. The Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Results Based On Age Group

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p
q1	17-22	81	3.32	1.160	.831	.479
	23-27	22	2.86	1.283		
	28-32	6	3.33	1.633		
	32+	11	3.09	1.578		
	Total	120	3.22	1.245		
q2	17-22	81	3.27	1.423	1.032	.381
	23-27	22	2.86	1.320		
	28-32	6	3.33	1.506		
	32+	11	2.64	1.362		
	Total	120	3.14	1.404		
q3	17-22	81	2.86	1.321	.357	.784
	23-27	22	2.59	.959		
	28-32	6	2.67	1.633		
	32+	11	3.00	1.549		
	Total	120	2.82	1.290		
q4	17-22	81	2.84	1.383	.115	.951
	23-27	22	2.73	1.352		
	28-32	6	2.67	1.366		
	32+	11	2.64	1.120		
	Total	120	2.79	1.340		
q5	17-22	81	3.37	1.391	.602	.615
	23-27	22	3.14	1.320		
	28-32	6	3.17	1.722		
	32+	11	2.82	1.401		
	Total	120	3.27	1.389		
q6	17-22	81	2.93	1.490	.262	.852
	23-27	22	2.82	1.368		
	28-32	6	2.67	1.633		
	32+	11	2.55	1.440		
	Total	120	2.86	1.457		
q7	17-22	81	3.23	1.527	.718	.543
	23-27	22	2.77	1.378		
	28-32	6	3.00	1.414		
	32+	11	2.82	1.401		
	Total	120	3.10	1.480		
q8	17-22	81	3.07	1.330	1.124	.343
	23-27	22	2.68	1.249		
	28-32	6	2.50	1.378		
	32+	11	2.55	1.214		
	Total	120	2.93	1.310		
q9	17-22	81	3.10	1.411	.762	.518
	23-27	22	2.86	1.390		
	28-32	6	3.00	1.095		
	32+	11	2.45	1.440		
	Total	120	2.99	1.393		
q10	17-22	81	2.78	1.508	1.433	.237
	23-27	22	2.82	1.402		
	28-32	6	2.67	1.633		
	32+	11	1.82	1.250		
	Total	120	2.69	1.483		
q11	17-22	81	2.94	1.400	.484	.694
	23-27	22	2.68	1.492		

	28-32	6	2.83	1.472		
	32+	11	2.45	1.508		
	Total	120	2.84	1.420		
q12	17-22	81	2.85	1.433	.813	.489
	23-27	22	2.59	1.333		
	28-32	6	3.33	1.506		
	32+	11	2.36	1.502		
	Total	120	2.78	1.421		
q13	17-22	81	3.10	1.329	.570	.636
	23-27	22	2.77	1.110		
	28-32	6	3.17	1.329		
	32+	11	3.36	1.690		
	Total	120	3.07	1.320		
q14	17-22	81	3.21	1.330	1.446	.233
	23-27	22	2.77	1.232		
	28-32	6	3.17	1.722		
	32+	11	2.45	1.368		
	Total	120	3.06	1.343		
q15	17-22	81	3.12	1.444	3.546	.017
	23-27	22	2.27	1.032		
	28-32	6	3.17	1.722		
	32+	11	2.09	1.300		
	Total	120	2.88	1.423		
q16	17-22	81	3.27	1.332	2.580	.057
	23-27	22	2.91	1.377		
	28-32	6	4.50	.837		
	32+	11	2.82	1.537		
	Total	120	3.23	1.369		
q17	17-22	81	2.60	1.497	1.909	.132
	23-27	22	2.18	1.500		
	28-32	6	2.33	1.751		
	32+	11	1.55	1.036		
	Total	120	2.42	1.493		
q18	17-22	81	3.20	1.382	1.995	.119
	23-27	22	2.50	1.336		
	28-32	6	2.83	1.835		
	32+	11	2.45	1.635		
	Total	120	2.98	1.438		
Scale Total	17-22	81	55.07	18.706	1.281	.284
	23-27	22	48.82	15.807		
	28-32	6	54.33	20.992		
	32+	11	45.91	19.191		
Total	120		53.05	18.431		

The ANOVA test presented at the Table 4 shows that there is no difference between most of the scale items based on the age group. However, there is statistically significant differences found between age group for item 15 of the scale (I get nervous when I don't understand every word my English teacher says) ($F=3.546$, $p=0.017<0.05$). The 28-32 age group has the highest mean score comparing to the other age groups. Moreover, there were differences found between the total scale

results based on the age group but these differences were not found statistically significant. These results show that H30 hypothesis is accepted.

The speaking anxiety scale sub dimension scores that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety scores and speaking anxiety scale total score of the EFL students showed a significant difference according to their age. The speaking anxiety scale sub dimension scores that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety scores and speaking anxiety scale total score of the EFL students showed a significant difference according to their gender. The speaking anxiety scale sub dimension scores that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety scores and speaking anxiety scale total score of the EFL students showed a significant difference according to the duration of English education.

The speaking anxiety scale sub dimension scores that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety scores and speaking anxiety scale total score of the EFL students showed a significant difference according to the type of high school they have been graduated from.

Table 4.6. Reliability Analysis of Speaking Anxiety Scale

Scale	Cronbach Alpha
Speaking Anxiety Scale	0.950

As can be seen from Table 2, the reliability level of the speaking anxiety scale is sufficient.

Table 4.7. Normal Distribution Test Results of Speaking Anxiety Scale Scores

Test Results of Normal Distribution	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	Shapiro-Wilk
Speaking Anxiety Scale	0.200	0.062

As can be seen from Table 3, the speaking anxiety scale scores of the participants showed a normal distribution.

Table 4.8. Distribution of the EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scale Scores.

Scale	**Mean**	**S.D**	**Median**	**IQR**	**Min**	**Max**
English Classroom Anxiety	3.02	1.05	3	1.67	1	5
Communication Apprehension	3.08	1.03	3.16	1.33	1	5
Fear of Negative Evaluation	2.80	1.09	2.71	1.71	1	5
Test Anxiety	2.91	1.30	3	2	1	5
Total Score of Speaking Anxiety Scale	53.05	18.43	53	28	18	90

As seen in Table 4, the highest score that can be obtained from the speaking anxiety scale is 90. As a result, it can be said that the speaking anxiety scores of EFL students are above the average. The participants' English Classroom Anxiety, Communication Apprehension, Fear of Negative Evaluation and Test Anxiety scores are moderate. However, it is seen that the participants experienced the highest anxiety in the sub dimension of communication apprehension and the lowest anxiety in the sub dimension of fear of negative evaluation.

4.2. Comparing EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scores by Their Age

Comparing EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students' speaking anxiety scores by their age is given in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. Anova Test Result for Comparing EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scores by Their Age

Scale	Age	N	Mean	S.D	Anova test result	p
English Classroom Anxiety	17-22	81	3.10	1.07	1.307	0.276
	22-27	22	2.80	1.04		
	27-32	6	3.44	0.93		
	32+	11	2.63	0.93		
Communication Apprehension	17-22	81	3.20	1.04	1.355	0.260
	22-27	22	2.78	0.84		
	27-32	6	3.13	1.32		
	32+	11	2.77	1.16		
Fear of Negative Evaluation	17-22	81	2.92	1.11	1.098	0.353
	22-27	22	2.57	0.94		
	27-32	6	2.73	1.23		
	32+	11	2.41	1.12		
Test Anxiety	17-22	81	3.02	1.32	1.252	0.294
	22-27	22	2.84	1.22		
	27-32	6	3	1.44		
	32+	11	2.22	1.16		
Total Score of Speaking Anxiety Scale	17-22	81	55.07	18.70	6.837	0.001*
	22-27	22	48.81	15.80		
	27-32	6	54.33	20.99		
	32+	11	45.90	19.19		

As seen in Table 5, the speaking anxiety scores of the EFL students showed a significant difference according to their age ($p<0.05$). Participants, between the ages of 17-22 had the highest speaking anxiety scores, over 32 years had the lowest speaking anxiety scores.

The scores of participants' speaking anxiety scale sub-dimensions that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety also did not show a significant difference according to their age ($p>0.05$).

4.3. Comparing EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scores by Their Gender

Comparing EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students' speaking anxiety scores by their age is given in Table 4.9.

Table 4.10. T- Test Result for Comparing EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scores by Their Gender

Scale	Gender	N	Mean	S.D	T- test result	p
English Classroom Anxiety	Female	83	3.02	1.05	0.074	0.786
	Male	37	3.03	1.06		
Communication Apprehension	Female	83	3.08	1.03	0.001	0.970
	Male	37	3.09	1.07		
Fear of Negative Evaluation	Female	83	2.79	1.12	1.394	0.240
	Male	37	2.81	1.04		
Test Anxiety	Female	83	3.01	1.33	2.544	0.113
	Male	37	2.70	1.21		
Total Score of Speaking Anxiety Scale	Female	83	53.14	18.76	1.548	0.216
	Male	37	52.83	17.91		

As seen in Table 6, the speaking anxiety scores of the participants did not differ significantly according to their gender ($p>0.05$). The scores of participants' speaking anxiety scale sub-dimensions that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety also did not show a significant difference according to their gender ($p>0.05$).

4.4. EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scores by the Duration of Learning English.

Result for Comparing EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scores by The Duration of Learning English is given in.

Table 4.11. Anova Test Result for Comparing EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scores by The Duration of Learning English.

Scale	The Duration of English education	N	Mean	S.D	Anova test result	p
English Classroom Anxiety	1-5	43	3.24	1.04	1.588	0.182
	6-10	47	2.85	1.03		
	11-15	13	2.74	1.04		
	16-20	9	3.48	1.08		
	21-26	8	2.75	1.10		
Communication Apprehension	1-5	43	3.27	1.04	3.214	0.018*
	6-10	47	2.99	0.95		
	11-15	13	2.94	0.98		
	16-20	9	3.70	1.09		
	21-26	8	2.14	0.97		
Fear of Negative Evaluation	1-5	43	3.03	1.11	2.223	0.071
	6-10	47	2.65	1		
	11-15	13	2.62	1.12		
	16-20	9	3.34	1.15		
	21-26	8	2.10	1.04		
Test Anxiety	1-5	43	3.05	1.34	1.315	0.269
	6-10	47	2.70	1.23		
	11-15	13	3	1.42		
	16-20	9	3.61	1.24		
	21-26	8	2.50	1.22		
Total Score of Speaking Anxiety Scale	1-5	43	56.72	18.60	1.285	0.259
	6-10	47	50.55	17.13		
	11-15	13	50.30	18.64		
	16-20	9	63.33	19.21		
	21-26	8	40.87	17.55		

As seen in Table 7, the speaking anxiety scores of the participants did not differ significantly according to the duration of English education ($p>0.05$). The scores of participants' speaking anxiety scale sub-dimensions that are; English classroom

anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety also did not show a significant difference according to the duration of English education ($p>0.05$). The score of participants' speaking anxiety scale sub-dimensions that is; communication apprehension showed a significant difference according to the duration of English education ($p<0.05$). As a result; participants who had English education for 16-20 years have highest scores and who had English education for 21-26 years have lowest scores.

4.5. EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scores by The Type of High School Graduated

T- Test result for comparing EFL students' speaking anxiety scores by the type of high school they have been graduated from is given in table 4.12

Table 4.12. T- Test Result for Comparing EFL Students' Speaking Anxiety Scores by The Type of High School They Have Graduated From

Scale	The Type of High School They Have Been Graduated From	N	Mean	S.D	T- test result	p
English Classroom Anxiety	Private high school Public high school	29 91	2.79 3.09	0.95 1.08	1.407	0.214
Communication Apprehension	Private high school Public high school	29 91	2.66 3.21	0.99 1.02	0.169	0.682
Fear of Negative Evaluation	Private high school Public high school	29 91	2.45 2.91	0.93 1.12	3.118	0.080
Test Anxiety	Private high school Public high school	29 91	2.60 3.01	1.18 1.33	1.562	0.216
Total Score of Speaking Anxiety Scale	Private high school Public high school	29 91	46.79 55.04	16.51 18.64	0.621	0.432

As seen in Table 8, the speaking anxiety scores of the participants did not differ significantly according to the type of high school they have been graduated from ($p>0.05$).

The scores of participants' speaking anxiety scale sub-dimensions that are;

English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety also did not show a significant difference according to the type of school they graduated from ($p>0.05$).

The acceptance and rejection of the research hypotheses are mentioned below:

1. The tested hypotheses of the research are mentioned below:
2. The speaking anxiety scale scores of the EFL students are high.
3. The speaking anxiety scale scores of the EFL students are low.
4. The hypothesis of; speaking anxiety scale scores of the EFL students are high is accepted.
5. The hypothesis of; speaking anxiety scale scores of the EFL students are low hypothesis is rejected.
6. The hypothesis of; speaking anxiety scale sub dimension scores that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety scores and speaking anxiety scale total score of the EFL students showed a significant difference according to their age is rejected in English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety sub dimensions and accepted as a speaking anxiety total score.
7. The hypothesis of; speaking anxiety scale sub dimension scores that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety scores and speaking anxiety scale total score of the EFL students showed a significant difference according to their gender is rejected.
8. The hypothesis of; speaking anxiety scale sub dimension scores that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety scores and speaking anxiety scale total score of the EFL students showed a significant difference according to the duration of English education is rejected in English classroom anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety sub dimensions, speaking anxiety total score and accepted in a communication apprehension sub dimension score.
9. The hypothesis of; speaking anxiety scale sub dimension scores that are; English classroom anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation,

test anxiety scores and speaking anxiety scale total score of the EFL students showed a significant difference according to the type of high school they have been graduated from is rejected.

5. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study aims to investigate the English speaking anxiety of Turkish third-level English learners and its relationship with L2 WTC, ideal and required L2 selves, and L2 motivations. The findings of the study show that the speaking anxiety scores of the students learning English as a foreign language are above the average. The effect of foreign language anxiety on students' success in FLL has also been proven by different researchers. In the literature, foreign language anxiety is accepted as one of the factors preventing success in foreign language learning (Horwitz & Young, 1991; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Sanchez-Herrero & Sanchez, 1992). In addition, it is claimed that in studies aimed at predicting foreign language success, if FLA is not measured, it can be considered uncertain (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). In this context, foreign language anxiety has been examined from different perspectives in different contexts.

Speaking is of vital importance in foreign language education because proficiency in a foreign language is directly related to the ability to speak that language fluently and effectively (Dalton-Puffer, 2006). However, the speaking anxiety scores of the EFL students of the participants of this study were found to be above the average. Speech It is considered as one of the common causes of foreign language anxiety in the literature (Horwitz et al., 1986). This finding is similar to the results of various studies (Ün, 2012; Liu, 2006). Studies show that speaking in language skills is considered the most challenging and anxiety-provoking skill compared to other skills (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Palacious, 1998; Tercan & Dikilitaş, 2015).

Similar to the findings of this study, Dinçer and Yeşilyurt (2013) stated in their study that although the participants accepted the importance of speaking for language learning, speaking teaching was not given well in Turkey. In addition, these students described themselves as inept speakers. Unlike the results of this study, Balemir (2009) stated that the students participating in the study experienced moderate level of foreign language speaking anxiety and that the students' proficiency levels did not significantly

affect their anxiety levels.

Özkan (2019) concluded that students' proficiency and anxiety levels are significantly related, and students with high proficiency levels tend to worry less. The causes of L2 speaking anxiety were expressed as follows: low vocabulary, fear of making mistakes, and teachers' behavior. In addition, the study conducted by Ülker (2021) showed that the students participating in this study were moderately anxious when speaking the target language, and female students had higher levels of speaking anxiety than male students. The study also revealed that preparatory school background did not significantly affect students' speech anxiety levels, as students starting at lower levels experienced less speech anxiety. Regarding the results of the quantitative data, the most common factors triggering speech anxiety were insufficient proficiency in speaking ability, being unprepared, and speaking in front of people.

Various researchers, both in the Turkish EFL context and in other language teaching contexts around the world, aimed to investigate which factors affect students' foreign language speaking anxiety. For example, research conducted by Ün (2012) revealed that fear of negative evaluation, low language proficiency and lack of group work activities can be considered as sources of foreign language anxiety. In addition, Liu (2006) investigated the causes of foreign language anxiety and listed the results as follows: (1) engaging in individual activities rather than group work, (2) being unprepared, and (3) having insufficient language proficiency. Horwitz et al. (1986) presented three possible categories of causes of speech anxiety, including personal reasons, teachers' behaviors, and teaching procedures. The study conducted by Subaşı (2010), on the other hand, revealed that students' anxiety levels are based on the fear of negative evaluation. In addition, students with poor perception of ability feel more anxious compared to other students. Therefore, it has been noted that the fear of negative evaluation and the ability to perceive oneself are interrelated and are considered to be the two main sources of foreign language speaking anxiety. Similarly, speaking in the mother tongue compared to peer communication in Çağatay (2015) increased students' anxiety levels even more, which was another result of the

study. He stated that the underlying reason for the anxiety experienced while communicating with native speakers is the fear of negative evaluation.

Another focus of studies on foreign language speaking anxiety is that various strategies are proposed to improve speaking ability and reduce speaking anxiety both in the Turkish EFL context and in other language teaching contexts around the world (Dariyemez, 2020; Fauzan, 2016; Han & Keskin, 2016; Liu , 2018; Öz, 2017; Çiplakides & Keramida, 2009; Uymaz, 2020; Zerey, 2008). According to the results of his study by Gürbüz (2019), students benefited from oral presentations to reduce speaking anxiety. Thus, it shows that one way to reduce students' speaking anxiety is oral presentations. Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009) conducted a study aiming to assist teachers by suggesting some strategies, including the implementation of project work and the creation of a supportive classroom environment to reduce speaking anxiety. Darıyemez (2020), on the other hand, revealed in his study that speaking anxiety decreased as the Inverted Classroom Model was applied correctly in the classroom. The study also showed that the Inverted Classroom Model offers many advantages for students as they can be exposed to language both inside and outside the classroom. Öz (2017) found in his study that it helps to reduce L2 speech anxiety. In addition, students who received awareness training stated that they got higher scores in the midterm exam than other students in the school. Another study conducted by Woodrow (2006) in Australia stated that in-class interactions and the help of teachers are necessary to reduce students' anxiety levels. In addition, speaking anxiety made a significant contribution to the explanation of success in speaking skill, as stated by the researcher. The most common source of L2 speaking anxiety was communicating with native speakers, according to data collected from interviews. It was noted that students felt anxious while speaking an L2 due to a lack of language proficiency and retrieval intervention. In addition, Özdemir and Papi (2021), based on the results of their study, stated that students' belief and motivation systems affect students' emotional conditions and it is necessary to understand these systems well in order to cope with students' emotional conditions. According to Gan (2012), the biggest reason for speaking anxiety is having an insufficient level of vocabulary. Students also stated that they do not have enough opportunities to speak English in the classroom.

In the findings of this study, there was no difference in the themes of communication anxiety, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety according to gender difference. Unlike the results of this study, Çağatay (2015) found that students experienced speaking anxiety at a moderate level. In addition, it was stated that female students' speech anxiety levels were higher than that of males. It has been stated that this gender difference may be due to the characteristics of Turkish culture. Similar results were encountered in the study conducted by Ülker (2021). It was stated that the students participating in the study were moderately anxious when speaking the target language, and female students experienced higher levels of speaking anxiety than male students. The results of the study conducted by Tercan and Dikilitaş (2015) indicate that female students are more anxious, unlike our study. Again, similar to our study findings, the age of starting to learn English does not affect students' anxiety levels.

Similar to the purpose of this study, Tercan and Dikilitaş (2015) investigated whether EFL students' foreign language speaking anxiety differs according to their proficiency, gender, duration of learning experience and start time of learning. The results of the study showed that students felt anxious while speaking due to factors such as unpreparedness, testing, speaking in front of people, error correction, and discussion. The study results also concluded that proficiency and speaking anxiety were significantly linked.

Speech anxiety is a person's intense worry and fear of speaking in front of others. This can affect speaking skills and lead to various negative consequences. Speech anxiety is a condition that has several negative effects on speech production. These effects include speech difficulties, communication complexity, suppression of ideas, social isolation and loneliness, image and reputation concerns, stress and emotional uncertainty, lack of authentic expression, communication barriers, personal growth and restriction of opportunities.

Individuals with speech anxiety may avoid expressing their thoughts clearly, experience difficulties in the communication process, and withdraw from social activities. They may fail in important situations, such as job interviews or leadership positions, and may lack self-confidence. They may also experience limitations in speaking skills, such as communication flexibility, skipping details, ineffective body language, and lack of cooperation.

5.1. Pedagogical Implications

The study findings show that anxiety when speaking a foreign language can greatly hinder language learners' progress. The support of peers and teachers is crucial in this regard. To help learners overcome the negative impacts of anxiety, there are numerous strategies that educators can employ.

First and foremost, it is essential to dispel students' incorrect beliefs about themselves. Teachers can engage in conversations with their students to address unfounded beliefs they hold regarding language and their abilities. Teachers must help students recognize the irrationality of their thoughts. Foss and Reitzell (1988) propose that teachers can encourage students to share their language-related fears. The students can then write down their fears on the board, which fosters the understanding that they are not alone in experiencing anxiety or fear. By openly sharing their insecurities, students can experience a sense of relief. Horwitz (1988) suggests that teachers can also discuss with students the importance of having realistic expectations regarding language learning and the value of attaining some level of language proficiency, even if it could be better fluency.

Creating a stress-free learning environment is crucial for teachers to increase students' motivation. According to research conducted by Liu in 2014, learners experienced lower anxiety levels when their motivation was higher. Additionally, teachers play a significant role in influencing students' moods through their attitudes. A positive teacher-student relationship ensures that students feel relaxed and ready to

learn. To foster this environment, teachers should express their approval toward students. This can be achieved through verbal communication and body language, facial expressions, and gestures. Even the smallest gesture indicating appreciation for a student's correct speech can help reduce anxiety and enhance motivation.

According to age groups, older learners are more self-confident and have higher self-esteem, which reduces anxiety.Also, proficient learners are more self-confident and have higher self-esteem, which reduces anxiety.

Teachers should know their students' strengths, weaknesses, learning styles, and personality traits. They should adapt their teaching methods accordingly, providing diverse activities. Teachers can enhance students' motivation and alleviate anxiety by incorporating interactive and engaging activities such as games and role-plays. Activities should be designed to cater to individual student needs. Additionally, collaborative group work can foster community, making students feel valued in the language learning process and promoting a positive classroom environment. Employing high-quality teaching materials and captivating messages will effectively capture students' attention. Krashen highlighted the significance of delivering compelling messages, as students are more likely to be enthusiastic and attentive when receiving important information from their teacher (Young, 1992).

Considering the findings of the present study, it is vital to consider the readiness of students when assigning teaching tasks, as overwhelming them with tasks beyond their current abilities can negatively impact their motivation and lead to anxiety. Additionally, providing students with prior information about upcoming topics and what will be expected of them will ensure clarity and certainty.

Instead of spontaneously asking students questions and expecting immediate answers, an alternative approach is to provide students with speaking tasks ahead of time and encourage them to prepare beforehand. As students become more familiar with the learning environment and engage in regular speaking practices, they can gradually progress toward delivering impromptu speeches.

Teachers should refrain from directly correcting errors. While error correction is crucial to prevent persistent mistakes, it should not involve explicitly pointing out the student's wrong usage. Instead, the teacher should demonstrate the correct usage through modeling and encourage the student to continue speaking.

Learners should be guided toward discovering their own coping mechanisms to alleviate their anxiety when necessary.

In a nutshell, students must overcome the harmful cycle of anxiety leading to failure, cope with their anxiety. Once they manage to conquer their anxiety and achieve success, they will realize that speaking in English is not as challenging as they thought and will be motivated to participate actively.

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APPENDIX
A)

İngilizce Konuşma Kaygısı Anketi

Bu anket İngilizce konuşurken yaşadığınız kaygı seviyesi hakkında bilgi toplamak için hazırlanmıştır. Lütfen her maddeyi okuduktan sonra size en uygun olan rakamı daire içine alınız. Anketteki soruların doğru veya yanlış cevabı olmadığını unutmayınız. Katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkürler.

'1' : **Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum.** '2' : **Katılmıyorum.** '3' : **Kararsızım.**

'4' : **Katılıyorum.** '5' : **Kesinlikle Katılıyorum.**

Cinsiyetiniz: **Bayan** ☐ ☐ **Erkek**

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Not Sure**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1. I am never quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am afraid of making mistakes in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I get frightened when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English	1	2	3	4	5
5. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English classes	1	2	3	4	5

6. I get embarrassed to volunteer answers in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel nervous while speaking English with native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I don't feel confident when I speak English in classes.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students	1	2	3	4	5
14. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I get nervous when I don't understand every word my English teacher says.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	1	2	3	4	5

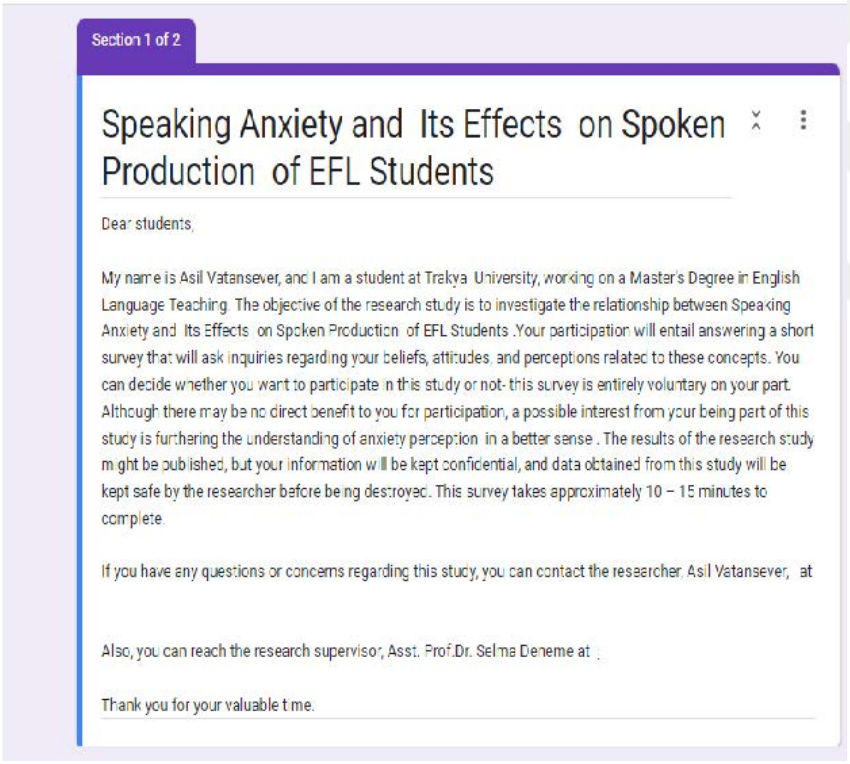
Yabancı Dil Konuşma Kaygısı Anketi (FLASAS) öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısı yaşayıp yaşamadıklarını ve bu kaygının derecesini araştırmak için kullanılacaktır . Veri toplama aracı olarak Horwitz, Horwitz ve Cope (1986) tarafından geliştirilen anket kullanılmıştır

B)

Aşağıdaki bağlantı yoluyla ankete ulaşabilirsiniz

https://forms.gle/tKkcycmvjCHx1sDR7

Eğer herhangi bir sorunuz varsa ya da anketin bulgularına dair bilgi sahibi olmak istiyorsanız bana buradan ulaşabilirsiniz



C) Evrak Tarih Sayısı: 28.03.2022-232452

T.C.
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SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER ARAŞTIRMALARI ETİK KURULU

Oturum Sayısı: 2022/03
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Akademik Danışmanlığını Üniversitemiz Eğitim Fakültesi Öğretim Üyesi Dr.Öğr.Üyesi Selma DENEME'nin yaptığı, Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Asil VATANSEVER tarafından, Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'nda değerlendirilmek üzere gönderilen "İngilizce Öğrencilerinin Konuşma Kaygısı ve Bu Kaygının Konuşma Üretimi Üzerindeki Etkileri" başlıklı araştırma dosyası incelenmiştir. Araştırmanın; gerçekleştirilmesinde etik bilimsel standartlar açısından sakınca bulunmadığına mevcudun oy birliği /~~oy çokluğu~~ ile karar verilmiştir.

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