

NON-NATIVE EFL TEACHERS' FOREIGN LANGUAGE
LISTENING AND SPEAKING ANXIETY
AND
THEIR PERCEIVED COMPETENCIES IN
TEACHING THESE SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

NON-NATIVE EFL TEACHERS' FOREIGN LANGUAGE LISTENING AND SPEAKING ANXIETY, AND THEIR PERCEIVED COMPETENCIES IN TEACHING THESE SKILLS

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Firstly, in this study, foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels of the non-native EFL instructors working at preparatory schools of two state and two private universities in Turkey were discovered. Next, if their L2 learning contexts, English-speaking country experience, the length of their teaching experience and the institution they work at affect their listening and speaking anxiety levels was scrutinized.

Secondly, these EFL instructors' perceived competencies in teaching listening and speaking skills were identified. In addition, the effect of different variables on their perceived competency levels such as their undergraduate departments, their participation in graduate studies and in-service teacher training programs, the length of their teaching experience and also the institutions where they work was analyzed. Besides, the relationship between the listening and speaking anxiety levels of these instructors, and their self-reported competency levels in teaching these skills was explored.

Finally, this study identified the EFL instructors' frequency of addressing listening and speaking skills in listening and speaking tasks in the lessons according to the curriculum of the institution where they work in order to discover its relationship with the instructors' perceived competency levels in teaching these skills.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected through a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, both of which were used in a complementary fashion in this study. In addition, a total of 150 non-native EFL instructors participated in the questionnaire phase of the study and nine instructors from the participant universities were interviewed.

The findings of this study indicated that the participant instructors experience moderate level of foreign language listening and speaking anxiety. Moreover, these instructors' L2 learning contexts, English-speaking country experience and their length of teaching experience significantly influence their foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels. Furthermore, the instructors perceive themselves as competent in terms of teaching listening and speaking skills and their participation in in-service teacher training programs, graduate studies and their length of teaching experience were found to be the contributors of their competence. In addition, a moderate level of negative relationship between foreign language anxiety levels of the instructors, and their self-reported competencies in teaching listening and speaking skills was identified. Finally, a positive relationship was explored between the frequency of the instructors' addressing listening and speaking skills in the classroom considering the curriculum of their institutions and their perceived competency levels in teaching these skills. In this sense, the results demonstrated the effect of the institution and the curriculum on the instructors' perceived competency levels in terms of teaching listening and speaking skills.

Key words: Foreign language listening anxiety, foreign language speaking anxiety, communicative apprehension, EFL teacher competency, fear of negative evaluation

ÖZ

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN YABANCI DİL DİNLEME VE KONUŞMA KAYGI SEVİYESİ VE BU BECERİLERİ ÖĞRETME YETERLİLİKLERİ

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Öncelikle bu çalışmada Türkiye’de bulunan iki devlet ve iki özel üniversitenin hazırlık okullarında çalışan İngilizce okutmanlarının yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma kaygı seviyesi incelenmiştir. Daha sonra, bu okutmanların yabancı dil öğrenme deneyimlerinin, İngilizce konuşulan yabancı bir ülkede yaşamalarının, öğretmenlik deneyimlerinin ve çalıştıkları kurumun kaygı seviyelerine etkisi olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır.

Buna ek olarak, okutmanların yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretme yeterlilikleri belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca, bu okutmanların mezun oldukları bölümün, yüksek lisans çalışmalarının, hizmet içi eğitim programlarına katılımlarının, öğretmenlik deneyimlerinin ve çalıştıkları kurumun bu becerileri öğretme yeterliliklerine etkisi araştırılmıştır.

Son olarak okutmanların derslerde müfredat kapsamında yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini ne kadar sıklıkla öğrettikleri belirlenip, daha sonra bunun okutmanların bu becerileri öğretme yeterliliklerine etkisi olup olmadığı incelenmiştir.

Bu nedenle hem nesnel hem de nitel veriler anket ve mülakat yolu ile toplanmış ve birbirini tamamlayacak şekilde bu çalışmada kullanılmıştır. Toplam

150 İngilizce okutmanı çalışmanın anket kısmına ve katılımcı üniversitelerden dokuz okutman da mülakata katılmıştır.

Araştırma sonuçları ortaya koymuştur ki: bu çalışmaya katılan okutmanlar genel olarak orta seviye de yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma kaygısı duymaktadırlar. Buna ek olarak okutmanların yabancı dil öğrenme deneyimlerinin, İngilizce konuşulan yabancı bir ülkede belli bir süre yaşamalarının ve öğretmenlik deneyimlerinin yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma kaygı seviyesini önemli derecede etkilediği bulunmuştur. Bunun dışında okutmanların bir çoğunun yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretme açısından kendini yeterli hissettiği ve hizmet içi eğitim programlarına, yüksek lisans çalışmalarına katılmalarının ve öğretmenlik deneyimlerinin bu becerilerine önemli katkısı olduğu belirlenmiştir. Ayrıca okutmanların yabancı dil kaygı seviyeleri ile yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretme yeterlilikleri arasında orta seviyede negatif bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Son olarak, öğretmenlerin çalıştıkları kurumun müfredatı kapsamında derslerde yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretme sıklığı ile bu becerileri öğretme yeterlilikleri arasında pozitif bir ilişki keşfedilmiştir. Bu bağlamda sonuçlar okutmanların çalıştığı kurumun ve müfredatının yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretme yeterlilikleri üzerindeki etkisini göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yabancı dil dinleme kaygısı, yabancı dil konuşma kaygısı, iletişim kaygısı, yabancı dil öğretmen yeterlilikleri, negatif eleştiri korkusu

To my family,

To my husband...

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1. 1. Overview of the Chapter

Since this study aims at discovering whether the EFL instructors experience foreign language listening and speaking anxiety, this chapter will, first of all, discuss foreign language anxiety in general. Then, listening and speaking skills in second and foreign language learning will be reviewed briefly. Finally, communicative competence framework in second language learning will be presented, as this present study is concerned with the EFL instructors' perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills to develop the learners' communicative competence in the target language.

1.2. Background to the Study

1.2.1. Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) define foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128). Anxiety can be both helpful and harmful for students in language learning. *Facilitating anxiety*, which is an encouraging type of anxiety, can help language learners in some simple learning tasks. Nevertheless, *debilitating anxiety* can affect learners' performance in a negative way in language learning (Horwitz & Young, 1991). Language learners experience anxiety in certain language learning situations, but this is not their permanent character. Hence, foreign language anxiety is considered as *situational anxiety* rather than *trait anxiety*. Situational anxiety “arises in response to a particular situation or event”, whereas a person who has trait anxiety is “predisposed to be fearful of many things” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 54).

A specific instrument measuring foreign language anxiety levels of learners was designed by Horwitz and her colleagues in 1986, which was called Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The items in this scale were developed based on three concepts in foreign language anxiety: (i) communication apprehension, (ii) test anxiety, and (iii) fear of negative evaluation. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), “communication apprehension is particularly applicable to learning a foreign language when the learner possesses the metacognitive awareness that he cannot have complete comprehension of all messages transmitted in the target language” (cited in Wood, 1999, p. 8). Test anxiety results from fear of showing poor performance and failure in language tests. In addition, fear of negative evaluation is an individual’s apprehension related to other people’s judgments and evaluation of their performance or proficiency in the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; cited in Wood, 1999).

In literature, significant negative correlations between second or foreign language anxiety and students’ performance in speaking were found (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al., 1986; Liu, 2006; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). While most of the foreign language anxiety studies have been conducted on language learners, less research has been carried out with regard to non-native foreign language teachers. Despite the fact that most foreign language teachers are considered as advanced speakers of English, they may experience foreign language anxiety to some extent while they are communicating in the target language with native speakers, their colleagues, teacher-trainers, and administrators. One reason for their foreign language anxiety might result from the fact that the process of language learning is never complete for foreign language teachers, even if they are assumed to be high-level speakers of the target language (Horwitz, 1996). Another reason might be related to their past experience of foreign language learning. The language teacher, for instance, who learned most of his/her foreign language communicative skills in a formal environment, such as at school where much emphasis was on accuracy and grammar, might have less self-confidence while speaking or listening to the target language. Nevertheless, the language teacher who learned the target language

through communicating with native speakers of English abroad or in his/her native country might experience lower foreign language listening and speaking anxiety. For example, Wood (1999) examined pre-service language teachers' language learning experiences enrolled at higher education institutions in North Carolina and discovered that the participant with the lowest level of foreign language anxiety in that study had a high school class where the teacher encouraged him/her to speak the target language frequently, without any fear of mistakes. In other words, the participant's educational background had an influence on his/her level of foreign language anxiety as a prospective English teacher.

Furthermore, non-native foreign language teachers might have some fear of negative evaluation and feel nervous that other speakers of the target language will notice the mistakes they make while speaking. To illustrate, Gregersen (2003) conducted a study on the reactions of anxious and nonanxious foreign language student teachers to their own errors. The results indicated that anxious prospective teachers were disturbed by their mistakes; thus, this inhibited their language performance and also increased their anxiety level, whereas nonanxious student teachers knew how to tolerate their own errors and continued to communicate.

Not only speaking but also listening anxiety might be experienced by non-native foreign language teachers. In a very recent study, the listening anxiety levels of 71 pre-service language teachers in Diyarbakır, Turkey were explored and the findings showed that language teacher candidates had high foreign language listening anxiety (Bekleyen, 2009). As data collection tools, the researcher used Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986), Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) designed by Kim (2005), an interview and the teacher candidates' listening course grades. As a result, a negative correlation was identified between the pre-service language teachers' listening anxiety level and their performance in listening exams.

Lastly, Horwitz (1996) point out the negative effects of foreign language anxiety on the teaching of non-native foreign language teachers. She identified the negative impact of anxiety on the self-confidence levels of the teachers, their

frequent use of the target language in the classroom and their instructional choices such as grammar-based or communicative-based language teaching. According to Wood's (1999) study, as the pre-service teachers' level of anxiety increased, the number of communicative tasks they used in the lessons decreased. However, the researcher could not find any significant relationship between foreign language anxiety level of prospective language teachers and the frequency of target language use in their classrooms.

Consequently, the present study aims to explore if the non-native EFL instructors experience foreign language listening and speaking anxiety, to investigate whether their anxiety levels influence their competencies in teaching listening and speaking skills and also to discover the relationship between the frequency of addressing listening and speaking skills in listening and speaking tasks in the lessons considering the curriculum of the institution they work at and their self-perceived competencies in teaching these skills as foreign language teachers. Hence, in the following part, some aspects related to listening and speaking skills in terms of second language learning will be discussed.

1.2.2. Listening and Speaking Skills in Second Language Learning

As the English language as an international language has gained importance in recent years, listening and speaking skills have begun to be regarded as crucial skills in language teaching programs around the world. More attention has been given to teaching and testing of listening skills "acknowledging that listening skills are a core component of second language proficiency, and also reflecting the assumption that if listening is not tested, teachers will not teach it" (Richards, n.d., p. 1).

In the 1940s, 'oral approach' was developed with the introduction of the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM). By means of intensive oral-aural drills, the aim was to 'train' the language learners' hearing 'habits' through ample and graded input involving various structures (Rost, 2001). Listening was often neglected and language learners were "trapped in the frenzied 'Hear it, repeat it!', 'Hear it, answer

it!', or 'Hear it, translate it!' nightmare" through mechanic drills (Meyer, 1984; cited in Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 139). Then, in the 1960s, Chomsky (1965, cited in Rost, 2001) and his views on how language is structured internally in the mind gained popularity in the second language teaching, and language input was also considered to be necessary to form those language structures in the target language. Before the 1970s, listening was a neglected skill in second or foreign language programs. To illustrate, during Situational and Audio-Lingual Approach to language teaching, listening skill only paid a role in drills and dialogues. Nevertheless, between the 1970s and 1990s, the status of aural comprehension changed and much more importance began to be given to listening skills in second or foreign language instruction (Morley, 2001).

Listening has been regarded as the primary channel for language input and acquisition. As Nida (1957, cited in Peterson, 2001, p.87) comment, "learning to speak a language is very largely a task of learning to hear it". The Total Physical Response (TPR) and Natural Approach, for instance, centralized on delayed oral production and amplified listening and language input (Peterson, 2001). Namely, in these approaches, the students are not forced to produce the language at the initial stages of the language learning, yet they display their comprehension through nonverbal actions, single words or short phrases.

In the early 1970s, the notion of 'communicative competence' was suggested by Hymes (1971, cited in Rost, 2001), and since that time listening skill has been regarded as the primary vehicle for communicative competence; hence, it plays a major role in second language acquisition and learning. Taking the communicative approach into account, some researchers attempt to describe listening skills. For instance, Aitken (1978, cited in Buck, 2001) prepared a taxonomy consisting of listening skills which require language learners to use their linguistic skills and relate them to varied communicative situations. His description of the skills used in listening includes at least the following (p.54):

- Understanding the vocabulary and being able to guess the meanings of unfamiliar or unclear words from their context.
- Understanding the syntactic patterns, the morphological forms characteristic of spoken language, and following the discourse patterns of spoken language.
- Understanding the flow of stressed and unstressed sounds, as well as intonation cues and other cues of oral punctuation.
- Identifying the speaker's purpose.
- Drawing correct conclusions and valid inferences about the social situation, the speaker's intent or the general context.
- Recognizing the speaker's attitude to the listener and the subject of their discussion.
- Identifying the techniques and rhetorical devices the speaker used to convey the message.

Afterwards, Weir (1993) suggested some listening sub-skills essential for direct and inferred meaning comprehension (cited in Buck, 2001). His list of some communicative listening sub-skills with regard to meaning comprehension is described below:

Direct meaning comprehension

- listening for gist
- listening for main idea(s) or important information; and distinguishing that from supporting detail, or examples
- listening for specifics, including recall of important details
- determining a speaker's attitude or intention towards a listener or a topic

Inferred meaning comprehension

- making inferences and deductions
- relating utterances to their social and situational contexts
- recognizing the communicative functions of utterances
- deducing meaning of unfamiliar lexical items from context

Furthermore, Vandergrift (1999) describes listening comprehension in terms of communicative perspective and states that "it is a complex, active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all of the above, and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger socio cultural context of the utterance" (p. 168).

McDonough and Shaw (2003) also suggest some points that ought to be taken into account while listening in the target language. First of all, the type, the length and the topic of the listening text need to be considered. Next, identifying whether the speech is 'transactional' such as a lecture or news broadcast or two-way 'interactional' is necessary as the latter requires the individual to be both listener and speaker. Thirdly, the purpose of listening (to get information, to take part in a conversation, to entertain etc.) is quite important because the listening skills and strategies employed by the listener change accordingly. Finally, the participants (their roles and relationship with each other) and the setting of the listening context need to be considered by the listener.

In addition to having communicative listening skills, it is quite essential for language learners to use two processing skills such as bottom-up and top-down skills simultaneously in listening comprehension. *Bottom-up processing* enables the listener to decode sounds, words, clauses, sentences until meaning is arrived in a listening text (Richards, n.d.). The listener's linguistic competence in a language involves bottom-up processing. On the other hand, in *top-down processing*, the listener uses his/her background knowledge to comprehend the listening text. This background knowledge may be related to the topic, the setting or the speakers and aid the language learner to form some expectations about the spoken discourse. According to Richards (n.d.), "in applying this prior knowledge about things, concepts, people and events to a particular utterance about a specific topic or topic, comprehension can often proceed from the top down. The actual discourse heard is used to confirm expectations and to fill out details" (p.8). Bartlett (1932, cited in McDonough & Shaw, 2003, p. 95) was the first scholar who explained "how the knowledge that we have about the world is organized into interrelated patterns based on our previous knowledge and experience", which is called 'schemata'. According to schema theory, the listener, for example, can probably have some expectations related to the topic and the format of an academic lecture or an interactional conversation.

Finally, Peterson (2001) summarizes the importance of listening comprehension in oral communication saying that “While it is possible to learn to understand without speaking, it is not possible to learn to speak without understanding. ... The need to produce utterances may interfere with the ability to comprehend the language completely” (p.88). Therefore, listening and speaking skills complement each other in daily conversations. For instance, without understanding the incoming message, a listener cannot respond to the speaker.

If we want to improve language learners’ communicative competence, not only listening, but also speaking skill plays a key role in second or foreign language learning. In the last two decades, speaking has gained importance in language teaching, learning and testing. Nevertheless, most of the practices did not focus on production of spoken discourse before the 1970s. Bygate (2001) states three reasons for that situation: The first reason is that Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was used in language classrooms with less focus on communicative skills. The second reason is that the use of tape recorders was not widespread in language classrooms; hence, it was easier for the teachers to focus on the written language than the spoken language. Today, technology enables language teachers to use CDs, DVDs, videos and the Internet for teaching speaking skills in their classrooms. The third reason is ‘exploitation’; that is, apart from GTM other methods such as the Direct Method, the Silent Way and Suggestopedia “exploited oral communication centrally as part of their methodology: not as a discourse skill in its own right, but rather as a special medium for providing language input, memorization practice and habit-formation” (p. 14).

Afterwards, Communicative Approach was introduced to teach grammar with interactional notions and functions such as making requests, apologies and invitations. Moreover, a learner-centred approach was emphasized, which enabled the language learner to choose what to say and how to convey his/her message (Bygate, 2001). In communicative perspective, language learners need to use some oral skills such as turn taking, trying to ‘hold the floor’ to keep the conversation going on, changing the subject, breaking in the other speaker(s)’ speech

appropriately and also using some pauses and fillers, which all aid them to maintain the flow of the communication. Fluency is also one of the oral skills gaining importance in second or foreign language learning. Hasselgren (1998, cited in Luoma, 2004, p. 89) defines fluency as “the ability to contribute to what a listener, proficient in the language, would normally perceive as coherent speech, which can be understood without undue strain, and is carried out at a comfortable pace, not being disjointed or disrupted by excessive hesitation”. Nonetheless, even though some second or foreign language learners speak fluently in the target language, they lack grammatical and lexical accuracy in their speech. As a result, within communicative approach to teaching speaking skills, Tarone (2005, cited in Hinkel, 2006, p. 114) comments that “learners must simultaneously attend to content, morphosyntax and lexis, discourse and information structuring, and the sound system and prosody, as well as appropriate register and pragmalinguistic features.” As a result, more than one skill and competence are essential to gain proficiency in second or foreign language.

1.2.3. Communicative Competence in Second Language Learning

Hymes developed the notion of *communicative competence* by means of criticizing Chomsky and his theory. Chomsky (1965) makes a distinction between competence and performance and defines *competence* as the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of the language whereas *performance* is the actual use of the language (cited in Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Chomsky’s view of linguistic knowledge enables a language learner to understand and construct infinite set of novel sentences; nevertheless, Hymes (1970) stresses the need for “a theory that can deal with a heterogeneous speech community, differential competence [i.e. variation between individuals], the constitutive role of sociocultural features” (cited in Johnson & Johnson, 1999). In other words, Hymes’ communicative competence helps the language learner comprehend and produce both accurate and appropriate sentences in varied social contexts. Widdowson (1978) also supports the idea of communicative competence in language learning and comments that “we do not only learn how to

compose and comprehend correct sentences as isolated linguistic units of random occurrence; but also how to use sentences appropriately to achieve communicative purpose” and adds that “We are not just walking grammars” (p. 2). Afterwards, Canale and Swain (1980) re-examined Hymes’ communicative competence in their paper ‘theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing’ and proposed three aspects of communicative competence which involve grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (cited in Johnson & Johnson, 1999). In the following years, they divided sociolinguistic competence into sociocultural competence and discourse competence.

To begin with, *grammatical (linguistic) competence* refers to the ability to understand and use lexis, morphology, syntax and mechanics accurately in second language development. If we want to improve linguistic competence of language learners, grammar needs to be presented in meaningful and authentic contexts rather than in isolation (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Canale and Swain (1980) identify grammatical competence as “the mastery of L2 phonological and lexicogrammatical rules and rules of sentence formation; that is, to be able to express and interpret literal meaning of utterances (e.g., acquisition of pronunciation, vocabulary, word and sentence meaning, construction of grammatical sentences, correct spelling, etc.)” (cited in Kamiya, n.d., p.70).

In addition to linguistic competence, *sociolinguistic competence* plays a big role in second language learning. This type of competence involves the ability to comprehend and use the language appropriately considering the topic, the setting and the participants in the communication. In addition, sociolinguistic competence is defined by Canale and Swain (1980, cited in Kamiya, n.d., p. 71) as “the mastery of sociocultural rules of appropriate use of L2; that is, how utterances are produced and understood in different sociolinguistic contexts (e.g., understanding of speech act conventions, awareness of norms of stylistic appropriateness, the use of a language to signal social relationships, etc.)”.

Moreover, *discourse competence* enables second language learners to produce and comprehend meaningful utterances in the target language. Byram (1997)

defines discourse as “the ability to use, discover and negotiate strategies for the production and interpretation of monologue or dialogue contexts which follow the conventions of the culture of an interlocutor as intercultural texts for particular purposes” (cited in Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006, p. 17). Canale (1983, cited in Kamiya, n.d., p. 71) added discourse competence into the communicative competence framework and commented that the language learner needs the ability to “use appropriate pronouns, synonyms, conjunctions, substitution, repetition, marking of congruity and continuity, topic-comment sequence, etc.” so as to create cohesion and coherence in any discourse in L2 . Namely, discourse competence enables language learners to produce cohesive and coherent spoken or written texts based on specific purposes and situational contexts (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006).

Furthermore, *strategic competence* somehow helps the language learner overcome his/her linguistic deficiencies and avoid communication breakdowns in speech. To illustrate, when they forget a word in the target language, they can try to describe it in another way, they can rephrase or repeat their utterance to convey their message clearly or they can self-correct their own speech. By using strategies such as *conversational management devices*, language learners can use the second language in an efficient way. For example, “learners can memorize greetings that can help them to start a conversation and pause fillers (such as *um* and *ya know*) that help them to hold the floor while they keep the conversation going” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 79).

Lastly, as the English language has become an international language in the world, more people from varied nations and cultures contact with each other at the airports, in international sports activities, conferences and meetings. In order to avoid communication breakdowns, a second or foreign language speaker needs to consider different aspects of the target culture. Taking this into account, some researchers developed the idea of *intercultural competence* in second language learning. Intercultural competence is related to the language learners’ being aware of both cultural and non-verbal communicative features of the target language. For instance, the language learner needs to have the knowledge of the target culture, dialects and

appropriate body language and expressions so as to communicate in an appropriate way in the second language. To illustrate, in some languages and cultures, long pauses in speech are acceptable. On the contrary, fillers or hesitation markers are used in some languages such as English. Therefore, language learners need to learn how to use these communication features in their speech so as to attain competency in the target language (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006).

1.3. Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

This study has three main purposes. Firstly, whether foreign language listening and speaking anxiety is experienced by non-native EFL instructors working at preparatory schools of universities will be discovered. Moreover, if their foreign language learning background, their English-speaking country experience, the length of their teaching experience and the institution they work at affect their listening and speaking anxiety levels as well as other sources of their anxiety will be scrutinized.

Secondly, these EFL instructors' self-perceived competencies in teaching listening and speaking skills will be identified. In addition, the effect of different variables on their competency levels such as their undergraduate departments, their participation in graduate studies and in-service teacher training programs, the length of their teaching experience and the institution they work at will be analyzed. Besides, the effect of the listening and speaking anxiety levels of these instructors on their self-reported competency levels in teaching these skills will be explored and also other factors affecting their listening and speaking skills will be discussed.

Finally, this study aims at identifying the EFL instructors' frequency of addressing listening and speaking skills in listening and speaking activities in their lessons according to the curriculum of the institution they work at, thus, discovering its relationship with the instructors' perceived competency levels in teaching these skills.

Taking the aforementioned literature review and the research studies into account, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. Do the EFL instructors working at preparatory schools of universities experience foreign language listening and speaking anxiety?
 - a. Do the EFL instructors' listening and speaking anxiety levels change according to (i) their L2 learning contexts, (ii) their English-speaking country experience, (iii) the length of their teaching experience and (iv) the institution they work at?
 - b. What are the other sources of their anxiety?
2. To what extent do the EFL instructors perceive themselves as competent in teaching listening and speaking skills?
 - a. Do the EFL instructors' self-reported competencies change according to (i) their undergraduate departments, (ii) their participation in graduate studies, (iii) their participation in in-service teacher training programs, (iv) the length of their teaching experience and (v) the institution they work at?
 - b. What is the relationship between the listening and speaking anxiety levels of these instructors and their competency levels in teaching these skills?
 - c. What are the other factors that affect their competency in teaching listening and speaking skills?
3. Considering the curriculum of the institution they work at, how often do the EFL instructors address the listening and speaking skills (listed in the questionnaire) in listening and speaking tasks in their lessons?
 - a. What is the relationship between the frequency of the EFL instructors' addressing the listening and speaking skills in the lessons and their self-perceived competencies in teaching these skills?

1.4. Significance of the Study

To begin with, when we take the previous research studies related to foreign language anxiety into account, most of them are concerned with foreign language

learners (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al., 1986; Liu, 2006; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Some of them also explored the sources of learners' foreign language anxiety, the effect of anxiety on foreign language learning and how to reduce anxiety in language classrooms (Balemir, 2009; Çakar, 2009; Ewald, 2007; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Wörde, 1998). Even though some researchers identified foreign language anxiety of non-native pre-service language teachers (Bekleyen, 2009; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Merç, 2010; Wood, 1999), limited number of studies aimed at discovering possible foreign language anxiety experienced by non-native foreign language teachers working at preparatory schools of universities.

Unlike previous studies which analyzed only listening or speaking anxiety levels of pre-service language teachers, this study will focus on both listening and speaking anxiety that might be experienced by the EFL instructors, their sources of anxiety and the effects of it on their teaching listening and speaking skills to their learners. One of the reasons why this study will focus on both listening and speaking anxiety and teaching these two skills is that listening and speaking skills complement each other in communication in the target language. In other words, in order to respond to the individual accurately and appropriately in the second language, a person needs to be equipped with not only oral production but also aural comprehension skills.

In addition, although listening and speaking skills are the most crucial skills in language learning, some language teachers do not give much attention and/or importance to improving their learners' listening and speaking skills. For instance, listening and speaking sections in the course books are skipped entirely by some English teachers; as a result, "teachers often find it easier to present language drills and grammatical presentations than to ask students to participate in lifelike conversations" (Horwitz, 2008, p. 92). Another reason may be the fact that some institutions do not involve some listening and speaking skills in their curriculum. For instance, according to Lazaraton (2001), "other problems may arise if the curriculum does not stress speaking skills or views them solely as an avenue to grammatical accuracy" (p.110). Furthermore, even though the curriculum intends to improve the

learners' listening and speaking skills, these skills might not be tested in some institutions. Therefore, teachers might have difficulty in making their students engaged in listening and speaking activities in their lessons due to the fact that the students might require their teachers to teach them reading and vocabulary skills as well as grammar structures as these points are regularly assessed in the exams. Consequently, the frequency of the EFL instructors' addressing listening and speaking skills during listening and speaking tasks in the lessons might change according to the curriculum of the institution they work at. Hence, another aim of this study is to explore whether having experience of frequent teaching of listening and speaking skills in the lessons influences the EFL instructors' level of perceived competency in teaching these skills, which has not discovered in the research literature before.

Lastly, some previous studies explored EFL teachers' perceived competencies in language teaching in general, yet this study will solely focus on the EFL instructors' self-reported competencies in teaching listening and speaking skills at the tertiary level in an elaborative way. Therefore, this study might be an opportunity for the EFL instructors to question their own listening and speaking skills in real-life communication in the target language and their competence in teaching these skills to their learners. Besides, the results of this study might give some ideas to teacher education programs to revise their curriculum for pre-service teacher training and also to the preparatory schools of the universities to design and implement in-service training programs to develop the instructors' self-confidence in teaching listening and speaking skills.

1.5. Limitation of the Study

First of all, the participants of this study were chosen by means of convenience sampling method. In order to generalize the findings, more instructors and preparatory schools of some universities in Turkey could have been chosen randomly for this study. Secondly, all the instructors in each participant university could not be represented in this study because the teachers took part in the

questionnaire and the interview phase of this research on a voluntary basis. Lastly, all the responses given to the questionnaire and in the interview questions are the instructors' self-perception of their own foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels, their competency in teaching these skills and their frequency of addressing these skills in the lessons considering the curriculum of the institution where they work. Thus, some observations could have been made in the classrooms of the participant institutions in order to determine how often the instructors address listening and speaking skills in the lessons. Moreover, whether the teachers' foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level affects their competency in teaching these skills in the classroom could have also been observed by the researcher so as to make the findings of this study much more reliable. Yet, due to time constraint, two data collection instruments were used by the researcher such as questionnaire and semi-structured interviews in this study. As a result, qualitative and quantitative data complemented each other, which helped to compensate for the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Overview of the Chapter

Firstly, the term anxiety will be defined and types of anxiety will be presented in this chapter. Then, foreign language anxiety and foreign language teaching anxiety will be discussed with relevant studies in the literature. Finally, theoretical concepts related to listening and speaking skills in second language learning will be reviewed.

2.2. Anxiety

Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1971, cited in Scovel, 1991, p. 18) define anxiety as “a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object”. In another definition, anxiety is “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (Spielberger, 1983, cited in Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 27).

Most researchers measure anxiety via observations, physiological tests or self-report of the subjects’ feelings and behaviours. The physiological symptoms of anxiety, for instance, are measured by some tests which correlate the heart rate, blood pressure, amount of respiration and sweating of the subject with his/her emotional state (Scovel, 1991). Moreover, Sarason (1980) lists some characteristics of an individual experiencing anxiety:

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

(cited in Kılıç, 2007, p. 12)

In fact, the individual who feels that s/he does not have the necessary physical or mental ability to achieve a task experiences anxiety and this emotional state influences the person in a physiological or psychological way.

Two classifications are stated in the research literature with regard to the types of anxiety. In the first classification, three perspectives are proposed: trait, state and situation specific anxieties (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). *Trait anxiety* is a kind of personality that an individual becomes anxious in any situation. According to Spielberger (1983), if an individual has an apprehension permanently in any situation, s/he has trait anxiety (cited in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). However, it is argued that “within a large group of people, the situations provoking anxiety will differ, even among individuals showing similar trait anxiety scores” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, p. 88). In addition, a person may experience anxiety at particular moments which is called *state anxiety*, and there is a moderately strong correlation between trait anxiety and state anxiety (Spielberger, 1983, cited in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). State anxiety is an emotional apprehension and usually appears in stressful situations; that is, it is experienced by a person at a particular time. However, state anxiety measures do not ask the participants to relate their anxiety to specific sources. *Situation anxiety*, on the other hand, is more limited to specific contexts (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Furthermore, situation specific anxiety analysis indicates the source of anxiety, since the participants are asked to describe the anxiety provoking situations and relate anxiety to possible sources. Therefore, an advantage of this situation specific approach is that it allows the assessment of foreign language anxiety comprehensively. Nonetheless, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, p.91) comment:

A criticism of this approach is that the *situation* under consideration can be defined very broadly (e.g., shyness), more narrowly (e.g., communication apprehension), or quite specifically (e.g., stage fright). It is the researcher's responsibility to define a situation that is sufficiently specific to be meaningful for the purpose at hand, yet to have reasonable generality to permit generalizations.

The second classification divides anxiety into ‘facilitating’ and ‘debilitating’ anxiety (Oxford, 1999; cited in Merç, 2010). *The facilitating anxiety* gears the learner to ‘fight’ with the new learning task. *The debilitating anxiety*, on the contrary, causes the learner to ‘flee’ from the new learning task that is a kind of avoidance behaviour (Scovel, 1991). If the learner has facilitating anxiety, no matter how difficult the language task is, s/he has willingness to perform. In contrast, the debilitating anxiety has a detrimental effect on the language learners’ performance in second language learning. Based on that theory, Alpert and Haber (1960, cited in Wood, 1999) developed two anxiety scales- the Facilitating and Debilitating Anxiety Scale. The former scale measures the anxiety that helps language learners to enhance their language learning. The latter scale, on the other hand, determines the anxiety that may inhibit performance of the learner in language learning process.

2.3. Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz et al. (1986) state that “research has neither adequately defined foreign language anxiety nor described its effects on foreign language learning” (p.28). As Scovel (1991) summarizes:

The research into the relationship of anxiety to foreign language learning has provided mixed and confusing results, immediately suggesting that anxiety itself is neither a simple nor a well-understood psychological construct and that is perhaps premature to attempt to relate it to the global and comprehensive task of language acquisition. (p.17)

Despite its being a complex phenomenon, the language anxiety is defined by Horwitz and her colleagues (1986) as “ a distinct complex of self perception, beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p.31).

There are two views on the definitions of language anxiety: (1) it may be considered as general anxiety like shy people’s feeling nervous in communicating in the target language, or (2) it may be unique to language learning situation that makes

some people uncomfortable (Horwitz & Young, 1991). This situation specific anxiety may lead to the language learners' feeling pressure to utter mistake-free sentences and their being reluctant to participate in conversations in the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

Moreover, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) have an argument about the development and maintenance of foreign language anxiety:

At the earliest stages of language learning, motivation and language aptitude are the dominant factors in determining success. ... After several experiences with the second language context, the student forms attitudes that are specific to the situation, that is, emotions and attitudes about learning a new language. If these experiences are negative, foreign language anxiety may begin to develop. As negative experiences persist, foreign language anxiety may become a regular occurrence and the student begins to expect to be nervous and perform poorly. (p.19)

Horwitz et al. (1986) describe three types of performance anxieties: (1) communication apprehension, (2) test anxiety, and (3) fear of negative evaluation. According to McCroskey (1977, cited in Horwitz et. al., 1986), as the communication apprehension is related to conversational interactions, the concept plays a vital role in foreign language anxiety. The communication apprehension in foreign language learning is described as having "the personal knowledge that one will almost certainly have difficulty in understanding others and making oneself understood" (Horwitz et. al., 1986, p. 30). Another type of anxiety derives from a fear of failure in tests. The anxious language learner, for instance, has not only test anxiety but also oral communication anxiety while taking oral tests. The third type of anxiety relevant to foreign language learning is fear of negative evaluation. Watson and Friend (1969) define fear of negative evaluation as "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (cited in Horwitz et. al., 1986, p. 31). Foreign language learners' fear of negative evaluation, for instance, might result from their teacher who is the only fluent speaker in the class to evaluate their performance in foreign

language negatively, or they may fear to be less competent than their peers in the language classroom.

In addition, according to MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), foreign language anxiety is “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning” (p.284). To illustrate, presenting themselves to others in the target language may be challenging for adult learners due to their limited command of foreign language. Horwitz et al. (1986) summarize:

Adult language learners’ self perceptions of genuineness in presenting themselves to others may be threatened by the limited range of meaning ... Probably no other field of study implicates self-concept and self-expression to the degree that language study does. (p.128)

Moreover, “the disparity between the ‘true’ self as known to the language learner and the more limited self as can be presented at any given moment in the foreign language seems to make the language learner more self-conscious, nervous and panic” (Horwitz et. al., 1986, p. 31).

2.3.1. Measuring Foreign Language Anxiety

As it is seen in the reviewed literature, three methods are mainly used to measure foreign language anxiety for research purposes. Firstly, through observations, the behaviours of the subjects are measured such as stuttering while speaking or unwillingness to participate in role-play activities. Secondly, by physiological tests, physical reactions of anxious people are discovered such as sweating, trembling or high pulse rate. Thirdly, the subjects reflect their feelings through self-reports such as questionnaires or interviews (Scovel, 1991).

In order to measure foreign language anxiety, self-reports are commonly used. One of the widely accepted tools which measures foreign language learners’ anxiety level is the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. in 1986. Seventy-eight students in beginning language classes at the

University of Texas participated in their study, and the qualitative data was gathered through group meetings and discussions. Those students' concerns and difficulties in language learning helped Horwitz and her colleagues to design a scale which determines foreign language classroom anxiety. The 33-item scale covers all aspects of foreign language anxiety experienced by language learners including communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

In the research literature, before the development of FLCAS by Horwitz et al. (1986), one instrument was specifically designed to measure foreign language anxiety by Gardner, Clement, Smythe and Smythe (1979) (cited in Horwitz et al., 1986). They measured French class anxiety and identified a negative correlation between the results of that scale and the learners' achievement in speaking, aural comprehension, and scores in the Canadian Achievement Test in French.

In the following years, MacIntyre, Gardner (1989) and Aida (1994) conducted studies which supported the theories of Horwitz and her colleagues (1986) on the role of anxiety in second language learning. Horwitz et al. (1986) classified foreign language classroom anxiety into three elements such as communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety as mentioned above. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) found a sound relationship between the communication apprehension component suggested by Horwitz and her colleagues, and the Communicative Anxiety dimension in their studies. It was stated that Communicative Anxiety includes fear of negative evaluation, since "communicative anxiety is also conceptually related to social-evaluative anxiety as each involves apprehension surrounding social perceptions and self-consciousness when speaking or participating in a social context" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, p.51). Nevertheless, that study did not support the idea of test anxiety because of the fact that they figured out no obvious relationship between test anxiety and the Communicative Anxiety, yet test anxiety scale mostly correlated with the General Anxiety factor in their research. In conclusion, the study mentioned above suggests that foreign language anxiety and general anxiety are two distinct concepts and

“foreign language anxiety may be part of a larger construct that could be labelled Communicative Anxiety” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

2.3.2. Studies on Foreign Language Anxiety

“While some scholars claim that having poor language skills is a cause of anxiety, some claim that anxiety is the cause of poor language learning” (Balemir, 2009, p. 13). To illustrate, the study of Liu (2006) is concerned with language anxiety of Chinese undergraduate students at three different proficiency levels. As data collection tools; a survey, observations, reflective journals and interviews were used in that research. The results showed that while speaking English in class, almost all of the students at each level felt anxious. Moreover, the more advanced students were less anxious than the lower proficiency level learners based on the findings.

In another study, even though the language proficiency levels of the learners were advanced, many of the students did report high levels of language anxiety (Ewald, 2007). Twenty students of Spanish in upper level language classrooms participated in the research, and the qualitative data analysis revealed that the teachers played a big role in causing or reducing anxiety in the language classrooms. In addition, Marcos-Llinas and Garau (2009) examined the effects of language anxiety on course achievement in three different language proficiency levels (beginner, intermediate and advanced). They figured out that advanced learners had higher levels of anxiety when compared to their beginning and intermediate counterparts. In contrast to the studies that discovered a negative correlation between the language proficiency and anxiety level of foreign language learners, the students with high levels of anxiety did not get lower grades in their language courses than the ones having low levels of language anxiety in that study. In fact, a sort of positive correlation between foreign language anxiety and the learners’ course grades was reported.

On the other hand, the research by Wörde (1998) found a negative relationship between foreign language anxiety and the language learning process. The data was collected by means of in-depth interviews, the foreign language

classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al. (1986), and the students' final grades in that study. The findings related to the sources of foreign language anxiety suggested that:

Foreign language anxiety has many sources. Some may be associated with the student, the teacher, the methodology, or instructional practice. Anxiety may also originate in low self-esteem, specious beliefs regarding the learning of language, negative experience associated with the foreign language or culture, or the general experience of language learning.

(Wörde, 1998, p. 4)

In terms of sources of foreign language anxiety, Çakar (2009) drew some conclusions based upon her study concerned with the relationship between Turkish EFL students' foreign language anxiety and their past language learning experiences. The subjects of the research were 285 university students at three proficiency levels (pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate) studying in the English preparatory programs at Bilkent and Pamukkale Universities in Turkey. Firstly, the translation of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was administered to the participants in the study. After the quantitative data analysis, the learners who reported high and low anxiety levels were identified and they were asked to take part in the interviews. The qualitative data helped the researcher to explore the students' previous language learning experiences and its influence on their foreign language anxiety levels more comprehensively. Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis showed that the EFL learners' past language learning experiences had an effect on the learners' having high or low anxiety levels. Moreover, the predictors of foreign language anxiety were reported as the students' prior experience of visiting foreign countries, having a native language teacher and studying another language apart from English in their previous education (Çakar, 2009).

In one of the foreign language anxiety studies, the relationship between general foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) and foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) and other variables such as gender, extended abroad experience and

classroom performance were identified (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). The research was conducted on 252 students of English at a Japanese University and two scales (FLCAS and FLRAS) were administered. The findings showed that self-confidence in speaking English, gender and proficiency had an influence on the language learning performance of the learners. As a last thing, overseas experience increased the self-confidence of the students while speaking in the target language (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004).

As seen in the research mentioned above, in addition to studies that focused on general foreign language anxiety, some studies investigated language skill-specific anxiety. For instance, some studies conducted on listening anxiety (Aneiro, 1989; Bekleyen, 2009; Chang, 2008; Kılıç, 2007; Kim, 2000; Vogely, 1998), speaking anxiety (Balemir 2009; Horwitz et al., 1986; Kitano, 2001; Kleinmann, 1977; Steinberg, 1982; Woodrow 2006; Young, 1990; Young, 1991), reading anxiety (Kuru Gönen, 2005; Saito, Garza & Horwitz, 1999; Sellers, 2000), writing anxiety (Cheng, 2002; Yaman, 2010), the effect of listening and reading anxiety on the learners' listening and reading proficiency (Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006) and the relationship between reading anxiety and listening anxiety (Merç,2009).

Even though speaking is considered as the most anxiety provoking skill in foreign or second language learning, reading may also trigger anxiety among language learners. Saito et al. (1999), for instance, focused on foreign language reading anxiety. Their study was conducted on 30 learners of different target languages such as Spanish, Russian and Japanese. In addition, the research aimed at finding out the construct of foreign language reading anxiety, and developing a reliable and valid foreign language reading anxiety scale. According to the results of the study, levels of reading anxiety vary with respect to different target languages, and also there was a negative correlation between the reading anxiety levels of the students and their perceived difficulty in their foreign language and their exam grades as well (Saito et al., 1999).

Not only reading but also writing anxiety may have an influence on the language learning process. To illustrate, Cheng (2002) investigated the levels of the

foreign language writing anxiety of the learners, and its relation to their perceived foreign language writing competency and their writing achievement in the target language. The results revealed that “perceived L2 writing competence predicts L2 writing anxiety better than L2 writing achievement does” (Cheng, 2002).

Other studies on the learners’ foreign language listening and speaking anxiety will be discussed separately in the following section due to the fact that this present research focuses on the EFL instructors’ foreign language listening and speaking anxiety exclusively.

2.3.3. Studies on Foreign Language Listening and Speaking Anxiety

Horwitz et al. (1986) point out that listening and speaking are the most prevailing causes of foreign language anxiety. Free production and discrimination of sound and linguistic structures, for instance, bring about frustration and problems for foreign language learners. Some language learners experience a type of anxiety which stems from only listening situations, which is called foreign language listening anxiety (FLLA) (Bekleyen, 2009).

According to Vogely (1998), listening comprehension anxiety is one of the most debilitating types of anxiety because of the fact that in oral interactions, the individual must first comprehend what is being said. Therefore, listening anxiety may bring about speaking anxiety when the language learner has difficulty in understanding the message in conversations. Besides, when the listening task is too difficult for the language learners or if they are unfamiliar with the topic of the listening task, they experience listening anxiety (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, cited in Vogely, 1998). As Joiner (1986) points out, the listening anxiety stems from “a negative ‘listening self-concept’, that is, a low level of self-confidence in the area of listening” (cited in Vogely, 1998, p. 68).

To illustrate, Aneiro (1989) carried out a study on 451 college students in Puerto Rico. The aim of the study was to discover the relationship between receiver apprehension in the second language and listening comprehension, general language proficiency and gender. The results showed that there was a negative correlation

between the subjects' levels of receiver apprehension and listening comprehension and second language competency as well. Moreover, there was no significant difference between male and female students' receiver apprehension levels, and also it was stated that high exposure to the target language resulted in lower receiver apprehension in the study. Lastly, interpersonal communication in the target language caused the highest levels of receiver apprehension, "followed by receiving information, communication in a group and watching TV respectively" (Kılıç, 2007, p.36).

Another study on listening comprehension anxiety was conducted by Vogely (1998). A hundred and forty university students attending Spanish courses were asked to complete a questionnaire soon after their listening comprehension exams. The questionnaire required the participants to give information about "whether they were experiencing listening anxiety or not; if they did, what made them anxious when participating in a listening comprehension exercise; and what types of settings, exercises, or activities helped to lower their anxiety level" (Vogely, 1998, p. 68). The findings indicated that the characteristics of input like nature of the speech and process-related factors like lack of using appropriate listening strategies led to more listening comprehension anxiety than instructional and personal factors.

Most importantly, Kim (2000) developed the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) specifically to measure the relationship between foreign language listening and anxiety. The research was conducted with 253 EFL university students in Korea. Both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered through some questionnaires and interviews in that study. For the quantitative data, apart from the FLLAS, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSD), the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS), the Trait Anxiety Inventory (TAI), a demographic questionnaire and a TOEFL listening test were used. By means of the instruments mentioned above, Kim (2000) identified the existence of listening anxiety, the sources and effects of it on the listening proficiency of the EFL learners. Most of the students reported that they experienced foreign language listening anxiety in their language classrooms and

real-life communication situations. In addition, a significant correlation between listening anxiety and general foreign language anxiety, and listening proficiency was found. Lastly, two major background factors significantly related to the foreign language listening anxiety were the students' university major and their studying with tutors or at private language institutions.

In Turkish context, Kılıç (2007) used the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale developed by Kim (2000). A hundred and fifty-seven Turkish EFL students studying at Gaziantep University, School of Foreign Languages participated in the study. The administered questionnaire involved three parts: the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale and demographic questions. Kılıç (2007) aimed to discover the effects of three different listening text types on the EFL learners' foreign language listening anxiety levels, the sources of their foreign language listening anxiety, the effects of foreign language listening anxiety, and foreign language classroom anxiety on the students' listening and general English proficiency. "Three types of listening texts (i.e. dialogue, lecture, and radio talk show) of three proficiency levels were administered to the participants and the anxiety levels were measured each time using an anxometer" (Kılıç, 2007). Firstly, the study revealed that different listening text types led to different amounts of listening anxiety. Secondly, negative correlations were identified between foreign language classroom anxiety levels of the learners and their general English proficiency, and also their foreign language listening anxiety levels and listening competency. Thirdly, time of exposure to English influences the general foreign language classroom anxiety levels of the subjects; nevertheless, the levels of the students' foreign language listening anxiety did not change according to age, gender, educational background and exposure time to English. Lastly, some major sources such as pace of listening, intonation, stress, pronunciation and number of unknown vocabulary items were identified as the causes of the listening anxiety experienced by Turkish EFL learners (Kılıç, 2007).

Furthermore, in foreign language learning, the most anxiety provoking language skill is reported as speaking (Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1992). In an

interview with Young (1992, p.163), Krashen commented on why speaking especially causes the language learner to become nervous based on his theory:

We often expect people to perform beyond their acquired competence. In early stages, we force them to break the silent period before they are ready, and in nearly every stage we expect them to use aspects of language that they have not yet subconsciously acquired.

One of the studies related to foreign language speaking anxiety was the investigation of anxiety and speaking from the students' perspectives (Young, 1990). A questionnaire specifically designed for that research involved three sections. In the first part, the subjects rated their language proficiency; in the second section, the students were asked to indicate the speaking activities which made them nervous and uncomfortable; the last part required the learners to report the instructors' characteristics and their ways of reducing anxiety in the classroom. That questionnaire was administered to 135 beginner Spanish university students and 109 high school students. The results showed that "speaking the language is not exclusively the source of anxiety, but speaking in front of the class is" (Young, 1990). Finally, the instructors' correction of errors in a positive way and relaxed manners in the language classroom were reported to be anxiety diminishing factors.

Kitano (2001) also explored whether the foreign language speaking anxiety level changed according to the students' fear of negative evaluation and self-perceived speaking abilities in the target language. Two hundred and twelve students enrolled in Japanese language courses at two universities in the United States took part in the study. The questionnaire administered to the subjects involved four parts: (1) a background questionnaire, (2) the fear of negative evaluation scale, (3) the Japanese class anxiety scale, (4) three types of self ratings of Japanese speaking ability (Kitano, 2001). The findings showed that the higher the students' fear of negative evaluation, the higher the levels of foreign language speaking anxiety they experienced. Moreover, if the learners perceived their oral communication ability in the target language lower than that of their peers and native speakers, their speaking anxiety levels became higher (Kitano, 2001).

Another research study concerning the second language speaking anxiety was conducted on 275 advanced English for academic purposes (EAP) students in Australia by Woodrow (2006). The purpose of the study was to identify the oral communication anxiety experienced by the students in and outside the language classroom, and also explore the reasons for second language anxiety. Therefore, Woodrow (2006) developed the Second Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (SLSAS) and the students took the IELTS oral exam. After the data analysis, a significant negative relationship between speaking anxiety and oral achievement was found. In other words, speaking anxiety negatively influenced the students' second language oral performance. Finally, the semi-structured interview results indicated that speaking English in front of their peers and interacting with native speakers were the fundamental sources of anxiety for the learners.

In a recent study in Turkey, Balemir (2009) examined the sources of communicative anxiety and the relationship between English proficiency and foreign language speaking anxiety level of 234 students at Hacettepe University. The students from various departments participated in the study such as Basic English, Electrical and Electronics Engineering, International Relations and English Linguistics. The instruments used in the research were the adapted version of the Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (FLSAS), the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency and interviews. Based on the data analysis results, Balemir (2009) found out that the students had a moderate level of speaking anxiety, and there was no significant relationship between language proficiency and speaking anxiety levels of the learners. Both the quantitative and qualitative data revealed that fear of negative evaluation, teaching and testing procedures, personal factors, and certain linguistic difficulties were the major sources of foreign language speaking anxiety.

2.4. Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety

Not only foreign language learners, but also non-native EFL teachers might experience foreign language anxiety in their professional, academic or daily lives. No

matter whether they are novice or experienced teachers, according to one of the studies which was conducted on 147 non-native in-service English language teachers, most of the teachers experienced foreign language teaching anxiety while being observed in their lessons, teaching English through English and also teaching speaking and listening skills (Kim & Kim, 2004, cited in Merç, 2010). Foreign language teachers have to plan lessons, motivate their learners, manage classroom behaviour and teach English through English, which is not their native language. Having good communication skills in foreign language as well as being competent in teaching these skills to their students might cause foreign language teachers to experience anxiety. “When the feelings of inadequacy in the target language are frequent and unrelated to a realistic assessment of competence, they parallel the anxiety reactions seen in inexperienced language learners” (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 365).

According to Horwitz (1996), non-native foreign language teachers are considered to be advanced speakers of the target language. However, some language teachers might feel nervous while speaking the target language in class or in real-life communication situations. It is quite normal that most non-native language teachers experience foreign language anxiety due to the fact that “language learning is never complete” for them (Horwitz, 1996, p. 365). That is to say, non-native foreign language teachers can still be regarded as advanced learners of the English language.

As Horwitz (1996) states, “language teachers who pursue an idealized level of proficiency are likely to experience anxiety over their own levels of competency no matter how accomplished they are as second language speakers” (p.367). Furthermore, non-native language teachers might not tolerate small imperfections in their foreign language productions and speaking the target language flawlessly might cause most of their anxiety. Therefore, perfectionism might be the major reason for the language teachers’ having foreign language anxiety and play a big role in criticizing their language performance harshly. When the research conducted on eight EFL student teachers in the education program at the Universidad de Atacama in Chile is considered, anxious pre-service EFL teachers display more perfectionist

tendencies than their non-anxious counterparts (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). In that qualitative study, the non-native EFL student teachers participated in oral interviews and then they were asked to make comments on their videotaped foreign language speaking skills. The high-anxious EFL student teachers were reported as not being completely satisfied with their oral performance. Besides, in spite of having high language proficiency levels, they indicated a high level of concern over their errors. Lastly, fear of negative evaluation, as a result of perfectionism, was also reported as one of the major sources of foreign language anxiety among non-native student teachers of foreign language. All four high-anxious participants in the study compared themselves negatively with their peers and had fear of leaving the wrong social impression on other people.

In the last decade, most of the research has been on language learner anxiety and how to decrease their anxiety by means of using appropriate pedagogical skills in language classrooms. Moreover, language teachers' job is not only to maximize communicative activities but also to minimize the learners' foreign language anxiety at the same time; nonetheless, "it is unfortunate that language teachers have not considered that they themselves may experience foreign language anxiety and undergo analogous negative effects on themselves and their teaching"(Horwitz, 1996, p. 366).

If the language teachers had language classes in which their English teachers placed great importance to accuracy and not fluency in their past foreign language learning experiences, then these teachers understandably may have concerns about speaking the target language in public. Graduating from foreign language departments of universities or having foreign language teaching certificate might not provide high self-confidence to the teachers; thus, they may need to improve their language proficiency as soon as they take a step into their classroom teaching (Horwitz, 1996).

Horwitz (1996) argues that if language teachers have some concerns about their own communicative skills in the target language, how can they be good models of foreign language speakers for their students? She also claims that the teachers'

lack of confidence about their own communicative skills in the target language may influence their choice of pedagogical strategies in the classroom. Namely, these language teachers might have a tendency to use the target language less in the classroom and also avoid employing more communicative-based activities in their lessons.

In some of the studies (Horwitz, 1992; 1993), several groups of non-native teachers (pre-service foreign language teachers, certified practicing and non-practicing Russian teachers, and pre-service English teachers especially from Korea and Taiwan) reported considerable levels of foreign language anxiety (cited in Horwitz, 1996). In addition, the more anxious language teachers in those studies stated that they preferred target language activities requiring less target language use in their lessons. That is to say, they did not prefer discussions, role-play activities and explaining grammar explanations in the target language. As Horwitz (1996) states, “even if this anxiety had no impact on the effectiveness of the language instruction, it would seem to be a substantial detriment to the mental well-being and job satisfaction of foreign language teachers” (p.367).

As a result, most of the studies carried out so far have been related to the effects of anxiety on language learners. Non-native English teachers’ foreign language anxiety and its influence on their teaching competencies, on the other hand, is a neglected area in the literature except some studies conducted on pre-service foreign language teachers.

2.4.1. Studies on Foreign Language Student-Teachers’ Anxiety

To begin with, Kunt and Tm (2010) examined the foreign language anxiety levels of non-native pre-service teachers studying in a foreign language education program in North Cyprus. The researchers used the Turkish version of Horwitz’s FLCAS (1986) and a set of open-ended questions in their study. Through quantitative and qualitative data analysis, different levels of anxiety were identified among those non-native student teachers. Some anxiety-provoking situations for them are forgetting some words and making mistakes while speaking English.

In a very recent work, Merç (2010) conducted a study to find out the level and sources of foreign language anxiety experienced by 405 Turkish EFL student teachers during their teaching practicum. Another aim of the study was to discover the relationship between those EFL student teachers' level of language proficiency and their anxiety level. The researcher used the Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (STAS) developed by Hart (1987; cited in Merç, 2010), the Foreign Language Student Teacher Anxiety Scale (FLSTAS) designed for that study, student teacher diaries as well as semi structured interviews as data collection tools. The results of the study showed that there was a significant decrease in the anxiety levels of the EFL student teachers from the beginning to the end of the teaching practicum. On the other hand, the researcher did not find any significant relationship between language proficiency and anxiety levels of the foreign language student teachers.

Aydın (2008) also investigated the relationship between foreign language anxiety and the sources and levels of fear of negative evaluation. The participants were 112 students at the English Language Teaching Department (ELT) of Balıkesir University. Although the sample group were considered as advanced level of foreign language learners as they took the Foreign Language Examination in order to attend one of the ELT departments in Turkey, the results of the study displayed that those students experienced moderately high levels of foreign language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. In addition, “fear of negative evaluation itself was found to be a strong source of language anxiety” (Aydın, 2008, p.421).

However, instead of investigating general foreign language teacher anxiety, this study is solely concerned with the EFL instructors' foreign language listening and speaking anxiety; therefore, the following section is primarily on the research related to listening and speaking anxiety levels of pre-service teachers.

2.4.2. Studies on Student-Teachers' Foreign Language Listening and Speaking Anxiety

Some language teacher candidates might also have high levels of foreign language listening anxiety (FLLA). To illustrate, Bekleyen (2009) investigated the level of FLLA that foreign language teacher candidates experience, the causes and

effects of FLLA on those prospective teachers and also their coping strategies with FLLA. Furthermore, she examined the relationship between those teacher candidates' level of FLLA and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA), gender and their listening course achievement levels. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected by means of two questionnaires [Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) developed by Kim (2005) and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz et al. (1986)], open-ended interviews and listening achievement tests. The results displayed a positive relationship between FLCA and FLLA levels of the prospective language teachers, and Bekleyen (2009) found a negative correlation between the student teachers' listening course grades and their levels of FLCA and FLLA. The interview data in that study revealed more comprehensible results in terms of the causes of the teacher candidates' high level of foreign language listening anxiety and the effects of it on them. Half of the pre-service student-teachers in that study indicated that their listening anxiety resulted from their educational background which focused on the development of grammar, vocabulary, reading and writing skills; and ignorance of listening and speaking skills by their teachers in their language classrooms.

Another study which examined the foreign language anxiety levels of non-native pre-service teachers was carried out by Wood (1999) in North Carolina, the USA. Six non-native student teachers participated in that case study and the data were collected by means of a questionnaire, open-ended and focused interviews, and direct observations in the classroom. The aim of the research was to find out the effects of L2 learning contexts on foreign language anxiety, the effects of foreign language anxiety on perceived proficiency of student teachers and also their use of the target language in the classroom. The results displayed that the participants had communicative anxiety and fear of negative evaluation because they felt nervous while speaking with other language teachers, with native speakers, in front of peers and in public settings. In the previous year, Wood (1998) conducted interviews with some pre-service foreign language teachers and the qualitative data supported Horwitz's concept of communication apprehension (cited in Wood, 1999). One pre-

service foreign language teacher states “she was afraid that she would say something wrong or make a stupid mistake or not convey the meaning she wanted to convey” (Wood, 1998; cited in Wood, 1999). In addition, some L2 learning contexts of pre-service language teachers which were related to low levels of foreign language anxiety were: “(1) frequent contact with native speakers in the community, (2) emphasis on speaking skills in the formal classroom setting and (3) uninterrupted study of the target language” (Wood, 1999).

As a result, although there are some studies on the anxiety levels of foreign language student teachers, it is an undeniable fact that there is a gap in the research literature in terms of the existence of foreign language anxiety among foreign language in-service teachers, which this study tries to fulfil.

2.5. Theoretical Concepts Related to Listening Skill

2.5.1. Listening Comprehension

Listening is a receptive skill which enables the person to derive meaning from oral messages uttered by speakers. Wolvin and Coakley (1985) define listening as “the process of receiving, attending to, and assigning meaning to aural stimuli” (cited in Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 138).

The first aspect of listening is *perception*, which means differentiating the sound system of the target language from that of their native language. To illustrate, stress patterns can change the meaning of a word or phrase in the English language. Besides, intonation patterns can influence the meaning of a sentence such as implying irony, humour, and so on (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

In addition, Scarcella and Oxford (1992) state four aspects of listening comprehension: (1) understanding isolated words, (2) recognizing phrases, (3) understanding clauses or sentences, and (4) understanding discourse. In the first stage of listening comprehension, the listener catches a few key words and this can help him/her guess the general content of the listening text. Secondly, recognizing some common phrases and expressions can aid the language learner to have self-

confidence in listening comprehension. In the third phase of listening comprehension, the listener understands novel clauses and sentences not heard before. As a last aspect of listening comprehension, the listener does not only focus on isolated words, phrases, clauses or sentences, but centralizes on the overall understanding of an oral communication. The listener, for example, can identify the purpose and the register (formal or informal) of the spoken context if s/he operates in discourse understanding. The listener can use these four aspects of comprehension simultaneously, and also s/he does not need to “stuck at a single stage at any given time; s/he may switch back and forth from one comprehension area to another in a non-hierarchical way” according to the varied features of spoken contexts (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 144).

Peterson (2001) points out that listening comprehension is a multilevel, interactive process of meaning creation. Firstly, listening comprehension involves three levels: *perceptual processing*, *parsing phase* and *utilization stage*. In *perceptual processing*, the listener identifies sound units, syllables and single words. Next, the listener begins to form meaningful units through the words and phrases, which is called *parsing phase*. Finally, in the *utilization stage*, the listener searches the information stored in the long-term memory and tries to match the old information with the new information which leads to the comprehension. Good listeners activate their all levels mentioned above simultaneously while listening to any type of spoken discourse (Peterson, 2001).

Clark and Clark (1977) describe listening comprehension with regard to retention of meaning in memory:

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

(cited in Kılıç, 2007, p. 28)

In terms of listening comprehension, Richards (1987, cited in Nunan, 1989, p. 24-25) distinguishes between conversational listening (listening to casual speech) and academic listening (listening to formal lectures in academic contexts). He states the abilities needed in conversational listening; thus, listeners need to:

- discriminate among the distinctive sounds of the target language
- recognize the stress patterns of words
- recognize the rhythmic structure of English
- recognize the functions of stress and intonation to signal the information structure of utterances
- identify words in stressed and unstressed positions
- recognize reduced forms of words
- recognize typical word order patterns in the target language
- detect key words (i.e. those which identify topics and propositions)
- guess the meanings of words from the contexts in which they occur
- recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse

In academic listening, on the other hand, the listener has the ability to:

- identify purpose and scope of lecture
- identify relationships among units within discourse (for example major idea, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, examples)
- identify role of discourse markers in signalling structure of lecture (for example conjunctions, adverbs, gambits, routines)
- infer relationships (for example cause, effect, conclusion)
- recognize key lexical items relating to subject / topic
- deduce meanings of words from context
- recognize markers of cohesion
- recognize function of intonation to signal information structure (for example pitch, volume, pace, key)
- detect attitude of speaker toward subject matter

Instead of making a distinction between the abilities required in conversational and academic listening, Nunan (1989) suggests that the former list consists of micro-skills that the listener can employ in any listening context whether it is conversational or academic listening. Similarly, the rhetorical and discourse comprehension skills in the latter list are also needed for the listener for not only conversational but also academic listening. That is to say, successful listening involves the combination of all the skills mentioned above.

Moreover, Anderson and Lynch (1988) identify two types of listening: reciprocal and non-reciprocal listening (cited in Nunan, 1989). If the listener has an interaction with the speaker and negotiates meaning in a conversation, it refers to *reciprocal listening* whereas if the information transfer is only one way such as listening to the radio or a lecture, *non-reciprocal listening* occurs between the speaker and the listener (Nunan, 1989). The following skills were suggested for listening comprehension by Anderson and Lynch (1988; cited in Nunan, 1989, p. 23):

- identify spoken signals from the midst of surrounding sounds;
- segment the stream of speech into words;
- grasp the syntax of the utterance(s);
- (in interactive listening) formulate an appropriate response.

All in all, a second or foreign language learner needs to be equipped with certain skills in order to be proficient in aural comprehension.

2.5.2. Listening as a Skill

In the comprehension process, the listener's ability to recognize sounds, syllables and words, relating the content to the schemata and deriving meanings from the spoken contexts all constitute the *skills* of the good listener. The more the language learner practices these skills, the more automatic they become. Proficient listeners use the listening skills in an unconscious manner, whereas they consciously employ some *strategies* which change according to the types of listening texts (Peterson, 2001). In listening courses, considering the proficiency level of the learners, teachers can teach when and how to use strategies. Through gradual practice, the students' listening ability can improve and strategies may turn into unconscious skills (Peterson, 2001).

Some listening skills are also described by McDonough and Shaw (2003). First of all, listening starts with identifying the sound system of the target language (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). For instance, second or foreign language listeners need to recognize stress on individual words, identify word boundaries and contracted

forms. In addition, changes in pitch, tone of voice and intonation imply different meanings in a language. The listener, for example, needs to consider that falling intonation implies the end of a statement whereas the rising intonation means the utterance is not complete or it indicates an enquiry. Secondly, “research on listening has shown that syntax is lost to memory within a very short time, even a few seconds, whereas meaning is retained for much longer” (McDonough & Shaw, 2003, p. 121). Although it involves the recognition of the sound system of the language, processing meaning requires the listener to have higher-order skills of constructing meaning and interpreting the incoming message (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). The features of processing skills in listening are presented below:

Processing sound

Phonological
 Lower-order/automatic skills
 Recognition of sounds, words
 Localized: the immediate text
 Decoding what was said
 Perception

Processing meaning

Semantic
 Higher-order skills of organizing and interpreting
 Comprehension
 Global: the meaning of the whole
 Reconstruction after processing meaning
 Cognition

(McDonough & Shaw, 2003, p. 122)

In addition to syntactic and semantic processing, social context plays a great role in listening comprehension. Social context refers to the setting, the number of listeners or speakers, their roles and the relationship to each other (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). Rost (1990) points out the significance of the social context or ‘pragmatic context’ in ‘interactional speech’ and he criticizes the only focus on the information-processing model of comprehension due to the fact that the listener is considered as “a language processor who performs actions in a fixed order, independently of contextual constraints” (cited in McDonough & Shaw, 2003, p. 123).

In conclusion, White (1998) describes good listeners as the ones who have the ability to “use a combination of subskills simultaneously when processing spoken language: the skill they will need at any particular moment will depend on the kind

of text they are listening to, and their reasons for listening to it” (cited in McDonough & Shaw, 2003, p. 123).

The Bottom-up vs. Top-down Skills in Listening

Even though there are some scholars who support the view of bottom-up skills in aural comprehension, some of the researchers claim that top-down skills are more essential than bottom-up skills as they aid the listener to comprehend the meaning of the spoken discourse and make interpretations.

Bottom-up processing is a kind of aural comprehension process in which the listener focuses on the individual sounds, words and grammatical sentences in a spoken language. Thus, the listener comprehends the meaning of the aural message from bottom to top. Namely, the listener first decodes phonemes and individual words and then structure of the aural text. On the semantic level, the listener identifies the literal meaning of the speech and s/he lastly interprets what the speaker means based on the communicative context (Buck, 2001). Nevertheless, this process is not in a fixed order in listening comprehension. As Buck (2001) points out, “syntactic knowledge might be used to help identify a word; ideas about the topic of conversation might influence processing of the syntax; or knowledge of the context will help interpret the meaning” (p.2).

In *top-down processing*, on the other hand, the listener brings his/her background knowledge about the topic and the world. As a result, s/he makes some predictions about what the following message will be and also make inferences related to the listening context (Morley, 2001). According to Buck (2001), “while we are listening, we almost have some hypotheses about what is likely to come next” and then we “confirm or reject our hypothesis” (p. 3).

The language learners’ background knowledge is quite significant to draw meaning from the incoming speech. This knowledge consists of meaning structures in the listener’s mind, which is called *schemata*. Rumelhart (1980) defines *schemata* as “a data structure for representing generic concepts stored in memory” (cited in Peterson, 2001, p.89). As Carrell and Eisterhold (1983, cited in Peterson, 2001) state,

similar to the reading comprehension, two types of schemata aid the listener to comprehend the listening text: content schemata and formal schemata. *Content schemata* are related to the listener's familiarity with the topic, knowledge of culture and the world. *Formal schemata* involve the language learners' discourse knowledge such as organization of the text and discourse markers.

Richard (1990, cited in Morley, 2001, p.74) supports the idea of combining bottom-up and top-down processes and he commented:

Too often, listening texts require students to adopt a single approach in listening, one which demands a detailed understanding of the content of a discourse and the recognition of every word and structure that occurs in a text. Students should not be required to respond to interactional discourse as if it were being used for a transactional purpose, nor should they be expected to use a bottom-up approach to an aural text if a top-down one is more appropriate.

Proficient listeners also combine bottom-up and top-down processes in listening comprehension. The listeners use their top-down (higher level) processes to relate their world knowledge and expectations to the topic and the type of listening text. In addition, by means of bottom-up (lower level) processes, the listener decodes the sounds, words, phrases and attaches meaning (Peterson, 2001). To illustrate:

Advanced listeners may use their knowledge of lexis and topic to interpret the confusing sounds in the speech stream and to aid in word recognition. On the other hand, they may also use their basic decoding skills to check the progress of the argument and to determine whether the discourse is going in the direction they had predicted.

(Peterson, 2001, p. 88)

In this study, the combination of bottom-up and top-down skills in aural comprehension will be emphasized as well as teaching the listening skill within a communicative competence framework which will be presented in the following part.

2.5.3. Listening Within a Communicative Competence Framework

Learning the listening skill within the communicative competence framework will enable language learners to improve their communicative skills in the second or foreign language (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006). Therefore, in this section, how different components of communicative competence influence development of listening skill will be described.

To begin with, *grammatical (linguistic) competence* involves understanding grammar (morphology and syntax), recognizing words and mechanics in listening such as stress, intonation and pronunciation of words. Without understanding these elements, it is quite difficult for a listener to comprehend the meaning of a listening text (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). In order to decode a spoken text, listeners' grammatical knowledge helps them identify inflections on words and structure of sentences. Moreover, knowledge of phonological system of the language is essential for listeners to comprehend a listening text. According to Lynch and Mendelson (2002, cited in Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006, p. 37), one of the distinct features of listening is "the presence of a rich prosody (stress, intonation, rhythm, loudness and more), which is absent from the written language". In addition to these, having a repertoire of vocabulary or lexicon enables language learners to interpret the meaning of a spoken text.

Not only grammatical competence but also *sociolinguistic competence* plays a major role in listening comprehension. The listener who adopts sociolinguistic competence forms some social and cultural expectations related to the topic or the type of the listening text. Most importantly, sociolinguistic competence helps the listener identify the purpose of the speaker in any communication situation. As Scarcella and Oxford (1992) comment, "sociolinguistic competence includes recognizing the communication situation for what it is (a formal lecture, an introduction among strangers, an informal greeting among friends, and so on) and then listening for what would be expected in such a situation" (p. 142). Furthermore, being aware of participant and politeness issues such as status and social distance is

quite crucial for listeners to comprehend the spoken event in a better way (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006).

In addition, second or foreign language learners also need to learn how to use *discourse competence* in aural comprehension. Oral communication does not include only sentences, but cohesion and coherence are two key elements that hold all the statements together in a meaningful way. Therefore, cohesion and coherence lead to a sort of predictability in a listening passage. As a result, the listener can predict the next incoming message(s) or what the speaker will say next in any oral context by means of discourse competence (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006) also comment that “if listeners have to recognize and interpret what is heard in longer or interactive discourse, they need first to understand which discourse features have been used and why, and then relate them to the communicative goal and particular context of that piece of discourse” (p. 37).

Furthermore, *strategic competence* in listening requires language learners to use guessing strategies which are also regarded as top-down processing. “Guessing plays a major role in *hypothesis testing* and *comprehension monitoring*, dual process that occur every time a non-native English user listens to English” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 142). For instance, the listener predicts what information or idea will be expressed next in a listening context and makes adjustments if his/her guess is wrong and then forms new hypothesis. This helps language learners to monitor their own listening comprehension. Listeners can infer the meaning of the listening text as well as the unknown words by means of guessing from both linguistic and non-linguistic clues. Linguistic clues refer to affixes, cognates and discourse markers that aid the language learner to guess unknown words and expressions. On the other hand, non-linguistic clues such as body language, facial expression, tone of voice and background noise all can help the learner comprehend the listening text better (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

Figure 1 below displays the relationship between listening proficiency and the elements of communicative competence:

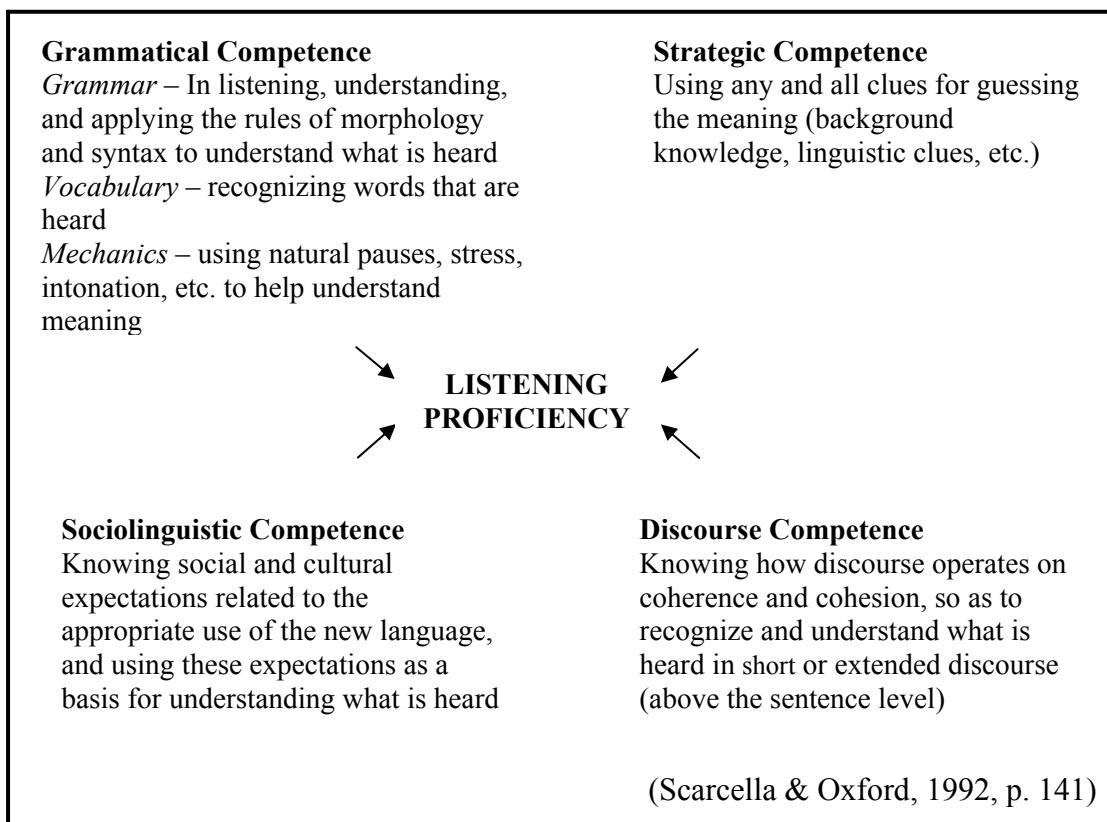


Figure 1 The components underlying listening proficiency

In addition to the components of communicative competence mentioned above, Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006) suggest adding *intercultural competence* in teaching listening within a communicative competence framework. Having knowledge of different cultural and non-verbal communicative factors in the target language has a big influence on listeners' interpretation of spoken texts. "Listeners' background knowledge of those cultural aspects will help them construct its meaning as well as acknowledge differences between their own culture and that of the target language so that possible misunderstandings can be avoided" (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006, p. 39).

2.6. Theoretical Concepts Related to Speaking Skill

2.6.1. Characteristics of Speech

Based on the information-processing model, Levelt (1989) states that speech production consists of four basic processes: conceptualization, formulation, articulation, and self-monitoring (cited in Bygate, 2001). *Conceptualization* is the speaker's planning the content of the message s/he wants to convey and "it draws on background knowledge, knowledge about the topic, about the speech situation and on knowledge of patterns of discourse" (Bygate, 2001, p. 16). During the *formulation* process, the speaker is looking for the right words and phrases as well as their sound patterns and putting them in the correct order to form meanings. Then, the speaker uses his/her articulatory organs like tongue, teeth and glottis to produce sounds in the *articulation* process. Lastly, *self-monitoring* is related to language learners' noticing and self-correcting their own utterances (Bygate, 2001). By means of automaticity, the language learner can perform in all the stages of speaking mentioned above in a simultaneous way.

Nonetheless, the accuracy of individual sounds is not adequate to make speech comprehensible. Hence, intonation, stress and tone of voice factors are more crucial for conveying meaning in speaking (Luoma, 2004). In addition, the speaker's choice of words according to the formality of the speech is an important aspect in speaking. Speakers, for instance, are required to use more written-like language involving complex grammar in formal situations such as giving presentations and lectures. On the other hand, more oral-like language such as short phrases and clauses are used in informal contexts (Luoma, 2004). As Luoma (2004) suggests, speakers also need to use some fixed phrases, fillers and hesitation markers to create time to think about what they will say next. Some expressions such as 'you see', 'kind of', 'sort of', and 'you know' or longer phrases such as 'Now let me see' and 'What a nice thing to say' are used for creating time for the speaker as well as keeping the floor in speech.

Moreover, people talk to each other for different purposes and Brown et al. (1984, cited in Luoma, 2004, p.91) suggests two types of talk: chatting or listener-

related talk and information-related talk. According to Brown et al. (1984, cited in Luoma, 2004, p.91), chatting is “the exchange of amicable conversational turns with another speaker. The primary purpose is to make and maintain social contact, to oil the social wheels, and thus chatting forms a large part of anyone’s social life”. Information-related talk, on the other hand, involves transmitting information from the speaker to the listener such as a professor giving a lecture or a doctor talking to a patient.

As a result, according to the type and the purpose of speech, a good listener needs to employ some speaking skills so as to communicate in the target language in an efficient way.

2.6.2. Speaking as a Skill

As Bygate (1987) comments, while teaching speaking English, it is necessary for language teachers to acknowledge the distinction between *knowledge* and *skill*. For instance, teaching how to assemble sentences and use vocabulary accurately; that is, equipping the students with knowledge about a language is not adequate for language learners to produce a language effectively. Therefore, acquiring an oral skill means adapting one’s speech by means of using appropriate grammar structures and vocabulary according to the social context and the participant(s) in oral interactions. In terms of the difference between knowledge and skill, Bygate (1987) suggests that “while both can be understood and memorized, only a skill can be imitated and practiced” (p. 4). Moreover, oral skills are considered in two ways: *motor-perceptive skills* and *interaction skills*. Motor-perceptive skills help language speakers perceive, recall and articulate accurate sounds and structures. In language classrooms, model dialogues and oral drills are some types of exercises to improve the motor-perceptive skills of language learners. Nevertheless, some problems may arise about ‘transfer of skills’, which means that language learners may have difficulty in transferring the skills they have learned in the classroom to the skills they need to use in real-life target language communication situations. Hence, not only the motor-perceptive skills of the students but also their interaction skills

need to be developed due to the fact that “interaction skills involve making decisions about communication, such as; what to say, how to say it, and whether to develop it, in accordance with one’s intentions, while maintaining the desired relations with others” (Bygate, 1987, p. 6). In terms of interaction skills, Bygate (1987) comments that language learners’ speaking skills in the *management of interaction* and the *negotiation of meaning* need to be improved. He points out that:

Management of interaction involves such things as knowing when and how to take the floor, when to introduce a topic or change the subject, how to invite someone else to speak, how to keep a conversation going, when and how to terminate the conversation so on. Negotiation of meaning refers to the skill of making sure the person you are speaking to has correctly understood you and that you have correctly understood them.

(cited in Nunan, 1989, p. 30)

The first kind of interaction skill, *management of interaction*, is related to speakers’ choice of topic and making decisions about who is going to speak next in conversations; thus, management of interaction includes two aspects: agenda management and turn-taking. “Agenda management essentially covers the participants’ right to choose the topic and the way the topics are developed, and to choose how long the conversation should continue” (Bygate, 1987, p. 36). Furthermore, language learners need to have certain abilities to learn efficient turn-taking skills in foreign language speech. The first thing is getting a turn by means of using appropriate expressions and gestures. Secondly, it is quite important to know when to interrupt because speakers can be regarded as rude if the interruption is at the wrong moment. Thirdly, one needs to learn not to lose his/her turn until conveying the intended message. The fourth ability is the speaker’s noticing the other person’s intention to speak. Finally, it is necessary for efficient speakers to know how to give other individuals a turn and let them speak in conversations (Bygate, 1987).

Another interaction skill is *negotiation of meaning* which is essential for clear communication. Thus, the focus is on mutual understanding rather than individual understanding. In order to ensure understanding, it is necessary for the

speaker to choose expressions taking into account what the listener knows and needs to know. In other words, considering the background knowledge of the listener, the speaker needs to choose an appropriate style of speech. Besides, speakers employ some strategies for negotiation and to keep the conversation going on. In order to avoid communication breakdowns, speakers vary their choice of words, use a metaphor or a paraphrase to clarify or emphasize the meaning of their message in conversations (Bygate, 1987).

In addition to interaction skills, good speakers also need to have *production skills* in second or foreign language. According to Johnson (1981), producing a conversational utterance is quite demanding for the speaker because “apart from being grammatical, the utterance must also be appropriate on very many levels at the same time; it must conform to the speaker’s aim, to the role relationships between the interactants, to the setting, topic, linguistic context, etc.” (cited in Bygate, 1987, p. 49). Time pressure is also considered as the major factor influencing speakers’ production skills, and it is quite challenging for speakers to make up their mind and produce language rapidly. Hence, effective speakers use *facilitation* and *compensation* techniques to cope with the difficulty in oral production. For instance, speakers can facilitate their production “by simplifying structure, by ellipses, and by using formulaic expressions” (Bygate, 1987, p. 15).

Firstly, speakers tend to use less complex structures in their speech. Due to time pressure, it is often difficult for speakers to use subordination, for example, in their speech. In addition to simplifying structure, speakers employ ‘ellipses’, and they produce incomplete sentences and omit some words or phrases in their speech. Speakers can use some utterances like ‘Who?’, ‘the big one’, ‘does what?’ and ‘why me?’ provided that the listener has a background knowledge about the topic. Thirdly, using formulaic expressions such as colloquial or idiomatic phrases help speakers to produce their message in an easier way. Some examples include: ‘I don’t believe a word of it’, ‘Who does he think he is?’, ‘I thought you’d never ask’. Finally, by using some ‘time-creating devices’, speakers gain time to think about what they want to say next. They can use fillers like ‘erm’ and ‘you know’ or paraphrase or repeat their

own or the interlocutor's preceding utterance so as to create time to organize their ideas in their minds (Bygate, 1987).

As Bygate (1987) points out, because of limited time in speaking, self-corrections are quite common and necessary in speech. During talking, speakers realize their own mistakes in terms of meaning or syntax in their speech and go back over their previous statements and make the necessary adjustments in their utterance. Furthermore, in order to help both the speaker and the listener keep the main idea of the whole conversation in their memory, speakers use rephrasing, circumlocutions, repetition and reformulation strategies.

All the features mentioned above are called compensation skills and Bygate (1987) suggests that it is significant for language students to learn how to use both facilitation and compensation features in their target language speech. "All these features may in fact *help* learners to speak, and hence help them to *learn* to speak" and "in addition to helping learners to learn to speak, these features may also help learners to sound *normal* in their use of the foreign language" (Bygate, 1987, p. 20-21).

Apart from production skills, good speakers also need to be equipped with pragmatic skills. Since the introduction of the communicative approach to the second or foreign language learning, a learner's having pragmatic skills in order to communicate efficiently in the target language has gained much importance. According to House (1996, cited in Luoma, 2004, p.91), pragmatic fluency is "a dialogic phenomenon that combines both pragmatic appropriateness of utterances and smooth continuity in ongoing talk". Gambits, for instance, enable speakers to keep the smoothness of transitions in their speech. Gambits are defined as "discourse lubricants, [which] are used to establish, maintain, and end contact ... helping to cement segments of talk into a discourse (House, 1996; cited in Luoma, 2004, p.91). Some expressions like 'yeah', 'listen', and 'I mean' are examples of gambits which yield to naturalness of speech.

To sum up, according to Nunan (1989, p.32), in order to communicate in a successful way in the second language, language learners need to develop:

- the ability to articulate phonological features of the language comprehensibly;
- mastery of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns;
- an acceptable degree of fluency;
- transactional and interpersonal skills;
- skills in taking short and long speaking turns;
- skills in the management of interaction;
- skills in negotiating meaning;
- conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers);
- skills in knowing about and negotiating purposes for conversations;
- using appropriate conversational formulae and fillers.

2.6.3. Speaking Within a Communicative Competence Framework

Speaking skill plays a very important role in developing the communicative competence of language learners. Different components of communicative competence influence the development of speaking skill; that is, communicative ability of language learners in the target language (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006).

Firstly, *grammatical (linguistic) competency* is the ability of the speaker to use grammatical structures, vocabulary and pronunciation accurately and fluently in the target language. Linguistic competence involves some phonological features such as rhythm, stress and intonation, which are major aspects of speakers' pronunciation (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006). Misuse of intonation and stress may result in communication breakdowns among speakers; thus, in addition to learning pronunciation of individual sounds, having knowledge of intonation and stress patterns is fundamental in terms of grammatical competence (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Besides, in order to produce grammatically accurate utterances, speakers need to have knowledge of syntax, morphology and word-order aspects. In addition, having a large repertoire of vocabulary and also choosing appropriate lexicon according to different spoken contexts are some of the important aspects that need to be acquired by foreign language learners.

Moreover, *sociolinguistic competence* helps the speaker know how to vary their speech according to the purpose of the talk, the participants and the setting. As Scarcella & Oxford (1992, p. 154) illustrate, "they are able to use conversation for *interactional* purposes (to establish social relations) and *transactional purposes* (to

convey information or complete tasks)”. In addition, according to formal or informal contexts and also the social distance between the speakers, the language learner who has sociolinguistic competence might be able to vary his/her language. Effective speakers’ language differs, for example, while talking to a friend on the phone and talking to the manager at work.

In addition, *discourse competence* helps speakers to produce cohesive and coherent spoken texts based on the purpose and the situational context of the conversation (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006). Therefore, speakers know how to take short or long speaking turns in conversations and discussions. Besides, effective speakers have the ability in how to begin and terminate a conversation, keep a conversation going on and change a topic. They also have “a large repertoire of discourse markers, expressions that speakers use to express ideas, show relationships of time, indicate cause, contrast, and emphasis” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 155). Lastly, discourse competence involves speakers’ knowledge of the organization of different genres and discourse types (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006).

Furthermore, effective speakers having *strategic competence* manage to monitor their speech. To illustrate, when they have difficulty in understanding the other speaker in interactive contexts, they know how to ask for repetition or clarification in conversations or discussions. In addition, speakers use communicative strategies such as self-correcting their own expressions, circumlocution or using gestures and facial expressions to convey meaning in their speech. They also gain time to think by means of using hesitation markers such as ‘Umm’, ‘Let’s see’, ‘Well’ while communicating in the target language (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Moreover, when the speaker forgets a word or phrase in the target language, s/he tries to find some alternative ways to convey the message:

One thing he can do is to look for some kind of vocabulary item-say a synonym or a more general word. This we might call a *lexical substitution strategy*. Alternatively, he can try to assemble some sort of phrase to explain his concept. This we might call *circumlocution*.

(Bygate, 1987, p. 44)

As a result, “speakers’ knowledge and ability to use communication strategies is of the utmost importance in order to avoid possible breakdowns in communication” (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006, p. 150). Figure 2 below displays the relationship between speaking proficiency and the elements of communicative competence:

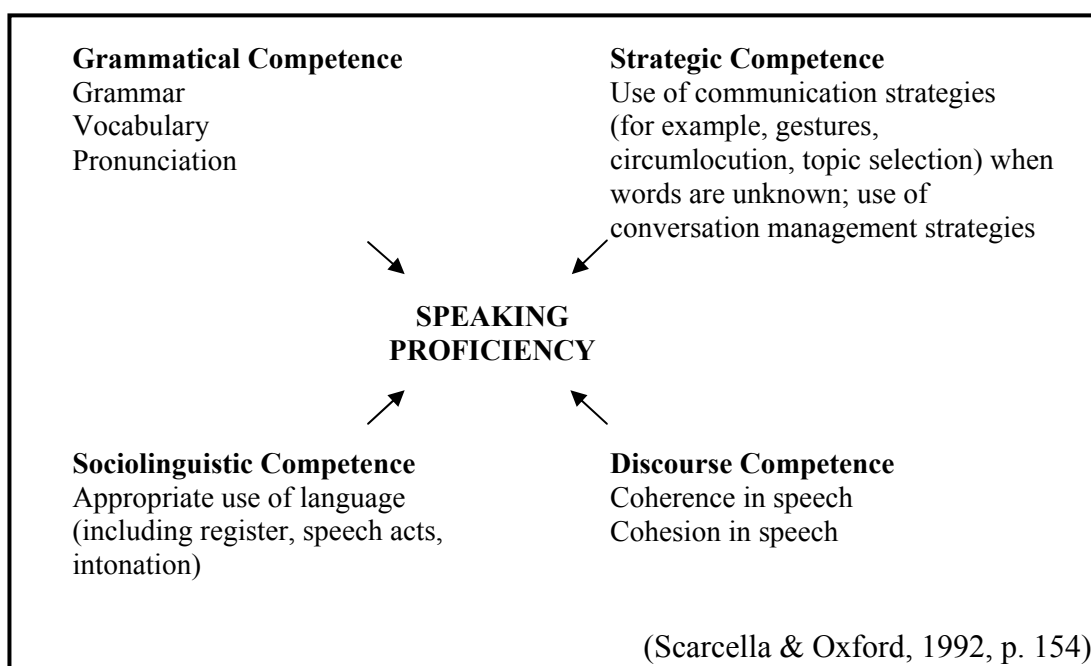


Figure 2 Abilities underlying speaking proficiency

Lastly, *intercultural competence* means having the knowledge of cultural and non-verbal communication features in the target language and communicating accordingly. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000, cited in Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006, p. 150) suggest that speakers have to take cultural factors into account so as to avoid communication breakdowns. To illustrate, short pauses and speakers’ quickly looking for something to say may be a proper behaviour in one culture. On the contrary, short pauses and not letting other participants talk in conversations can be regarded as impolite in another culture. Therefore, when English is considered as an international language, foreign language speakers need to be equipped with strategies

to deal with difference between their local and target culture and learn “to be both global and local speakers of English and to feel at home in both international and national cultures” (Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996; cited in Alptekin, 2002, p.63).

To summarize, efficient second or foreign language speakers have the ability to combine their production, interaction and pragmatic skills; that is, employing all the skills simultaneously while speaking in the target language. Besides, considering not only the linguistic but also the social aspects of communication such as the role of the participants, the formality and the purpose of the speech, language learners need to use their linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic and intercultural competence to convey their message in an accurate and appropriate way.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Overview of the Chapter

In this chapter, the methodology and research design of the study will be discussed. In addition, the details about the participants and settings of the study and the data collection instruments will be presented. Finally, analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data procedures will be mentioned.

3.2. Research Design and Methodology

The aim of the present study was to find out the degree of foreign language listening and speaking anxiety experienced by non-native EFL instructors working at preparatory schools of universities, the sources of their anxiety and the potential effects of it on their competency levels in teaching listening and speaking skills to their learners. Moreover, the relationship between the frequency of teaching foreign language listening and speaking skills in the lessons regarding the curriculum of the institution they have been working at and their perceived competencies in teaching these skills was explored. Hence, this study was conducted to investigate the following research questions:

1. Do the EFL instructors working at preparatory schools of universities experience foreign language listening and speaking anxiety?
 - a. Do the EFL instructors' listening and speaking anxiety levels change according to (i) their L2 learning contexts, (ii) their English-speaking country experience, (iii) the length of their teaching experience and (iv) the institution they work at?
 - b. What are the other sources of their anxiety?

2. To what extent do the EFL instructors perceive themselves as competent in teaching listening and speaking skills?
 - a. Do the EFL instructors' self-reported competencies change according to (i) their undergraduate departments, (ii) their participation in graduate studies, (iii) their participation in in-service teacher training programs, (iv) the length of their teaching experience and (v) the institution they work at?
 - b. What is the relationship between the listening and speaking anxiety levels of these instructors and their competency levels in teaching these skills?
 - c. What are the other factors that affect their competency in teaching listening and speaking skills?
3. Considering the curriculum of the institution they work at, how often do the EFL instructors address the listening and speaking skills (listed in the questionnaire) in listening and speaking tasks in their lessons?
 - a. What is the relationship between the frequency of the EFL instructors' addressing the listening and speaking skills in the lessons and their self-perceived competencies in teaching these skills?

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected through a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, both of which were used in a complementary fashion in this study. For instance, the foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels of EFL instructors, how often they address listening and speaking skills in listening and speaking tasks in the lessons according to the curriculum of their institutions, and their self-reported competencies in teaching these skills were measured by means of the questionnaire. In addition, in order to have an in-depth understanding of the sources of their level of foreign language listening and speaking anxiety, and so as to discover the factors affecting their competency levels in teaching these skills, qualitative data collection procedures

were implemented through open-ended questions in the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

In terms of triangulation, which means “the use of multiple sources of data, multiple observers, and/or multiple methods”, methods triangulation was implemented in this study due to the fact that both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered by means of a questionnaire and an interview (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 1996, p. 435). As Creswell (2003) states, by means of mixed-method approach “the researcher bases the inquiry on the assumption that collecting diverse types of data best provides an understanding of a research problem” (p.21). As a result, mixed methodology was implemented in this study and qualitative results assisted in expanding and interpreting the findings of the quantitative data. Figure 3 below displays the design of the study and how quantitative and qualitative data collection methods complement each other.

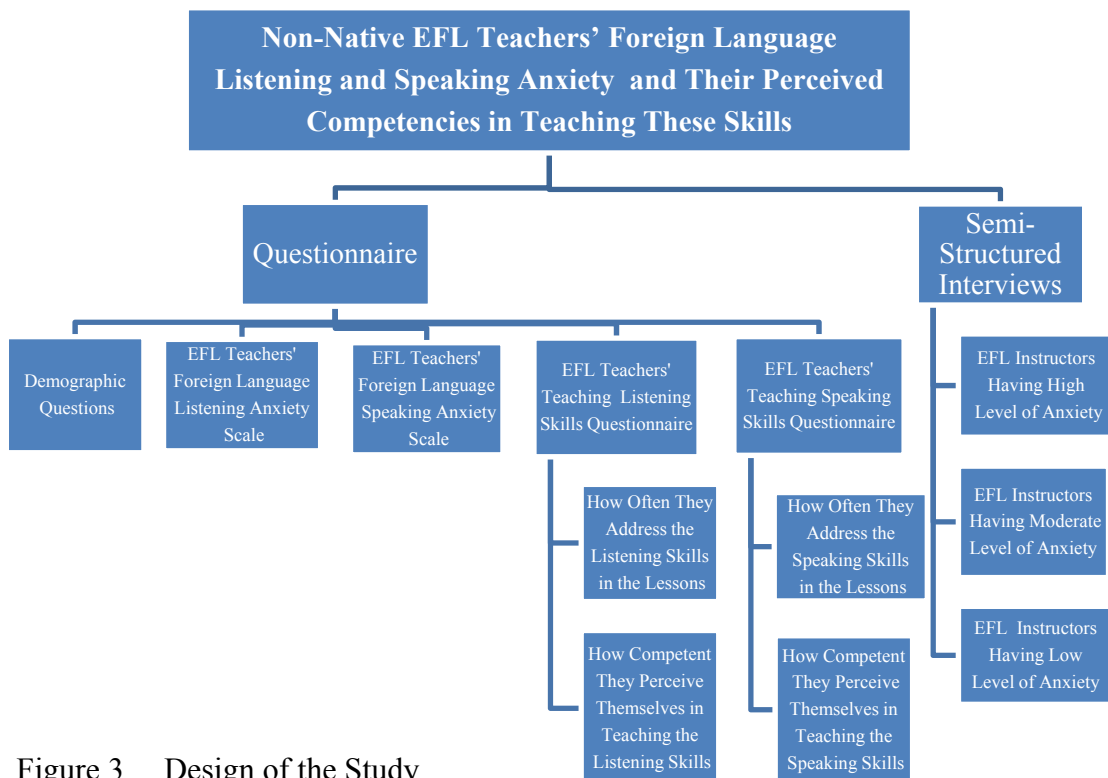


Figure 3 Design of the Study

3.3. Participants and Settings of the Study

The major participants of the study were the non-native EFL instructors working at the preparatory schools of two state universities (Yıldız Teknik University and Gazi University) and two private universities (Atılım University and Başkent University) in Turkey. Native EFL instructors were excluded from this study as they were assumed not to have concerns related with their communicative skills in English. Besides, the instructors who have been teaching solely writing skill at the Preparatory School of Atılım University were not selected as the participants due to the fact that one of the purposes of this study is the instructors' perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. The non-native EFL instructors varying in their length of teaching experience, the type of university they work at (state or private), their L2 learning contexts, undergraduate departments and their participation in graduate studies and in-service teacher training programs took part in the study.

Furthermore, the schools in this study were selected for four reasons. Firstly, the schools vary in terms of being state and private universities. Secondly, the preparatory schools of the universities in this study cover a course book that is compatible with *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEF). Based on the communicative approach, these course books give a lot of importance to listening and speaking skills in social situations. The institutions in this study design their syllabus according to the contents of their course books. Thirdly, listening skills are tested in achievement exams in the Preparatory school of Atılım University, yet not in the proficiency exam. Besides, the students' speaking skills are tested neither in the achievement exams nor in the proficiency exam. In Gazi University, on the other hand, the students' listening and speaking skills are tested in both achievement and proficiency exams, which is similar to Yıldız Teknik University. When Başkent University is considered, the examinations of the preparatory school involve neither listening nor speaking skills. Lastly, despite the fact that some institutions cover some supplementary books or materials for reading and writing skills, none of the institutions in this study cover any supplementary

books or materials focused solely on listening and speaking skills apart from their main course book. Table 1 below displays the course books that have been covered by the institutions recently.

Table 1 Course Books Covered by the Institutions

INSTITUTION	COURSE BOOK
Atılım University	<i>Face2Face</i> (Cambridge University Press)
Başkent University	<i>Success</i> (Pearson Longman)
Gazi University	<i>English Unlimited</i> (Cambridge University Press)
Yıldız Teknik University	<i>Language Leader</i> (Pearson Longman)

In addition, “the actual population (called the target population) to which a researcher would really like to generalize is rarely available. The population to which a researcher is able to generalize, therefore, is the accessible population. The former is the researcher’s ideal choice; the latter, his or her realistic choice” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 97). The ideal target population was the non-native EFL instructors working at preparatory schools of all universities in Turkey. However, the accessible population for the researcher is the EFL instructors who have been working at preparatory schools of two state and two private universities in Turkey. Hence, convenience sampling was used for the present study, which is choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000, p.102).

3.3.1. Participants of the Questionnaire

The respondents of the questionnaire in terms of institutions were distributed among Atılım, Başkent, Gazi and Yıldız Teknik University (Figure 4). In fact, 63, 3 % of the EFL instructors were from private universities and 36, 6 % of them participated from state universities in this study.

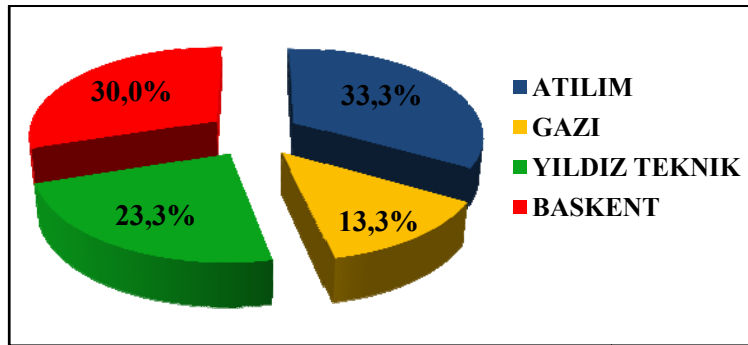


Figure 4 Distribution of the Instructors According to Institutions

The questionnaires were distributed to 254 EFL instructors working at the preparatory schools of the selected universities; however, only 150 teachers returned them and 133 of the instructors responded to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire. The return rate of the questionnaires was high at Atılım University as it was the institution where the researcher has been teaching. The percentage of the EFL instructors represented in this study according to the whole population of the instructors working at each institution is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Percentage of the EFL Instructors Represented in Each Institution

INSTITUTION	THE INSTRUCTORS PARTICIPATED (100 %)
Atılım University	92,5 %
Başkent University	33,3 %
Gazi University	35,7 %
Yıldız Teknik University	33,6 %

Furthermore, work experience showed variation for the EFL instructors. The majority of the respondents belonged to 6 to 10 years experience group (Table 3). In

addition, 29, 3 % of the instructors were novice teachers whereas 70, 7 % of them were experienced teachers in this study.

Table 3 Work Experience Distribution of the EFL Instructors

Work Experience (years)	N	%
1 to 5 years	44	29,3
6 to 10 years	46	30,7
11 to 15 years	36	24,0
16 years and above	24	16,0

Moreover, in the demographic part of the questionnaire, the EFL instructors were asked to indicate their undergraduate departments. The majority of the respondents graduated from English Language Teaching (ELT) department, while a small number of them were the graduates of Departments of American Language and Literature, Linguistics or Translation and Interpretation (Figure 5).

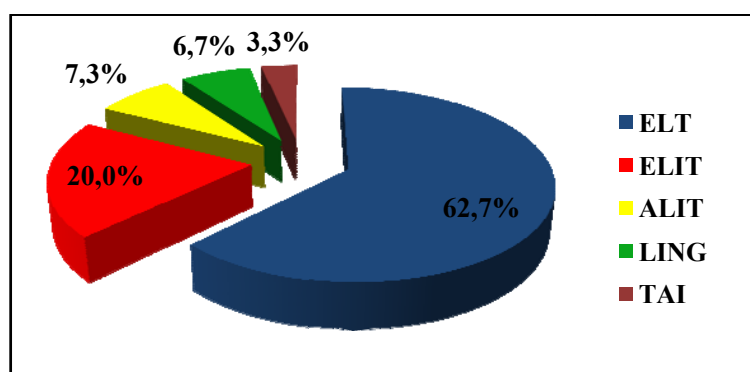


Figure 5 Undergraduate Department Distribution of the Instructors

In addition, the EFL instructors were asked whether they have studied in a graduate program. Fifty-two percent of 150 teachers indicated that they already had an MA or PhD degree, or they were studying in an MA / PhD program, whereas 48 % of the respondents hold only a BA degree. As for the distribution of the EFL instructors in terms of participation in graduate studies according to the institutions, the number of EFL instructors having an academic degree in Atılım University (62 %) was higher than the other institutions in the study (Figure 6).

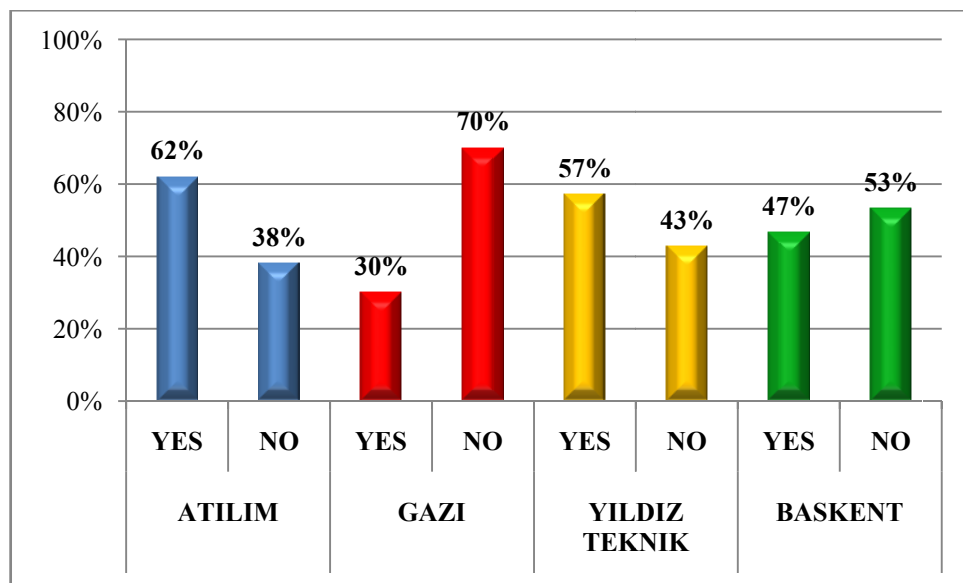


Figure 6 Participation in Graduate Studies Percentages of the EFL Instructors

In terms of the names of the graduate programs in which the EFL instructors have participated, the majority of the respondents indicated that they held or were in the process of getting an MA or Ph.D. degree in ELT studies (Table 4).

Table 4 Graduate Program Distribution of the Instructors

Graduate Program	N	%
ELT	34	22,6
Educ. Sciences	10	6,7
ELIT	10	6,7
Linguistics	7	4,7
TEFL	6	4
Management in Educ.	4	2,7
Educ. Technology	3	2
Human Resources Management in Educ.	2	1,3
British Cultural Studies	2	1,3

The EFL instructors were also asked if they had participated in an in-service teacher training program in the demographic questions part of the questionnaire. All of the instructors in Atılım and Başkent University attended the in-service teacher training programs offered by their institutions. On the other hand, 25 % of the instructors in Gazi University and 31 % of the instructors working at Yıldız Teknik University participated in in-service teacher training programs outside their institutions (Figure 7).

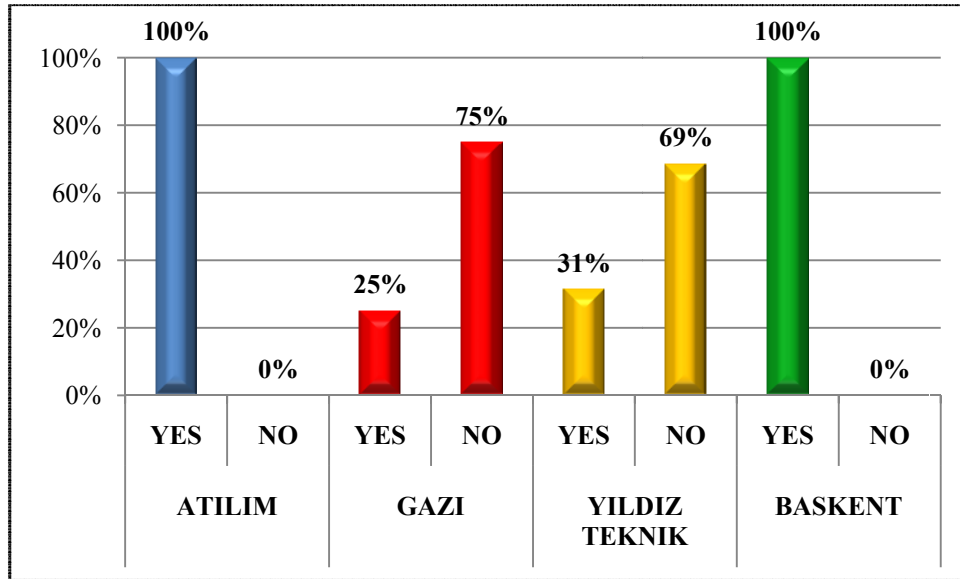


Figure 7 Participation in In-service Teacher Training Program Percentages of the EFL Instructors

Finally, apart from Atılım and Başkent University in-service teacher training programs, the names of the teacher training programs that the instructors attended showed variation, most of which are certificate or diploma based (Table 5).

Table 5 In-service Teacher Training Program Distribution of the Instructors

In-service Teacher Training Program	N
Atılım Unv. In-service Training	50
Başkent Unv. In-service Training	45
CERTELT (British Council)	17
CELTA (Cambridge ESOL)	6
DELTA (Cambridge ESOL)	6
Teacher Trainer Training Course	5
Classroom Management	3
COTE (Bilkent University)	3

Table 5 (continued)

Developing Teaching Skills	2
Advanced Instructors Course	2
Teaching Academic Writing Skills	2
ICELT (Cambridge ESOL)	1

In the first part of the questionnaire it was also asked how or where the instructors learned most of their English listening and speaking skills. The majority of the respondents (44, 7 %) indicated that they learned most of these skills during their university education, while none of the instructors indicated that they learned their English listening and speaking skills at primary school (Table 6).

Table 6 L2 Learning Contexts of the Instructors

L2 Learning Contexts	N	%
Primary school	-	-
Secondary school	16	10,7
High school	32	21,3
University	67	44,7
Studying / working / living in an English-speaking country	20	13,3
Contact with native speakers of English in their country	13	8,7
Other contexts	2	1,3

As for the distribution of the L2 learning contexts of the EFL instructors in terms of formal second language learning environment (at primary, secondary, high school or university) and informal language learning contexts (living in an English

speaking country or contact with native speakers of English in their country), the number of the instructors (76, 7 %) who learned most of their English listening and speaking skills in a formal environment was higher than the ones who learnt these skills in an informal context (23, 3 %).

In addition, the instructors were asked if they had ever studied, worked or lived in an English-speaking country and 28 % of them indicated that they had such kind of experience. When each institution in the study was considered, the instructors' English-speaking country experience was higher in Yıldız Teknik University (34 %) than those working at other universities (Figure 8).

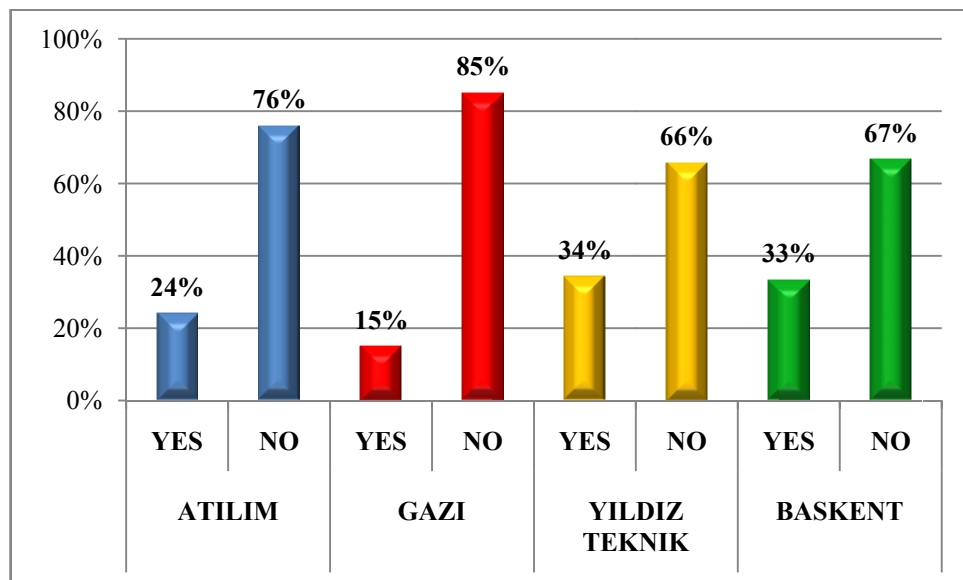


Figure 8 English-speaking Country Experience of the Instructors

Lastly, the respondents indicated how long they lived in an English-speaking country. As displayed in Table 7, the majority of the participants had at most a year (1-12 months) of experience.

Table 7 How Long Instructors Lived in an English-Speaking Country

How Long (months)	N	%
1 to 12 months	37	24,7
13 to 24 months	4	2,7
25 to 36 months	2	1,3
37 months and above	2	1,3

3.3.2. Participants and Settings of the Interview

In the interview phase of the present study, some representative subjects were chosen according to their levels of foreign language listening and speaking anxiety. According to Punch (2005), purposive sampling is used by the researchers who have some focus or purpose in mind and also deliberately seek representative participants. Thus, purposive sampling was implemented to select the participants for the interviews to look for further information that the quantitative data could not reveal in this study. To illustrate, the mean scores of the EFL instructors' anxiety levels according to the questionnaire were analyzed. Taking the results into account, 9 EFL instructors were selected and interviewed by obtaining their permission. The number of the interviewees in each institution is displayed in the Table 8 below.

Table 8 Participants of the Interview

INSTITUTION	N
Atılım University	3
Gazi University	2
Yıldız Teknik University	2
Başkent University	2

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

In order to collect both quantitative and qualitative data, two data collection tools were developed and used in this study; a questionnaire (Appendix A) and a semi-structured interview (Appendix B). The questionnaire involves the following sections: (1) Demographic Questions, (2a) EFL Teachers' Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale, (2b) EFL Teachers' Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale, (3a) EFL Teachers' Teaching Listening Skills Questionnaire and (3b) EFL Teachers' Teaching Speaking Skills Questionnaire. Most of the items in the questionnaire are close-ended questions which offer the participants a range of responses to choose. As Cohen et al. (2000) point out, "the larger the size of the sample, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire may have to be" (p. 247). However, the second and the third sections in the questionnaire include some open-ended items; thus, the participants can have freedom to add their own ideas and explanations. Besides, "it puts the responsibility for and ownership of the data much more firmly into the respondents' hands" (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 255).

Furthermore, the questionnaire was administered in English as the EFL instructors' level of English proficiency was assumed to be high and also they were supposed to be familiar with some ELT theory and terminology, whereas the interviews were conducted in the teachers' native language (Turkish) to let them express their ideas and feelings in a more comfortable way. Their responses were then translated into English in order to report the findings.

3.4.1. Questionnaire

As the research related to non-native in-service EFL teachers' foreign language anxiety is limited in the literature, the researcher needed to develop two scales that measure the EFL instructors' foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels respectively. Thus, foreign language listening and speaking anxiety scales used for language learners and pre-service English language teachers in some studies were adapted for this study. On the other hand, other two scales which measure the teachers' perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills

and their frequency of addressing these skills in the lessons are designed by the researcher taking the reviewed literature into account.

3.4.1.1. Demographic Questions

This part includes seven items to ask the participants to indicate the type of university they work at, the length of their teaching experience, their undergraduate departments, their participation in graduate studies and in-service teacher training programs, how or where they learned most of their English listening and speaking skills, whether they have ever studied, worked or lived in an English-speaking country and how long they stayed there in total.

3.4.1.2. EFL Teachers' Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale

This scale was adapted from the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) developed by Kim (2000). The FLLAS was specifically designed to measure foreign language learners' listening anxiety and consists of 33 questions. Some appropriate questions which might express the EFL teachers' foreign language listening anxiety were selected from the FLLAS and modified by the researcher for the present study. Some reverse items (items 3, 5, 9, 10, and 12) were also integrated into the scale to determine the reliability and consistency of the responses given by the participants. Some participants have a tendency to respond to series of items in a specific direction even if the content of the items is different in the questionnaire, which is called 'response set' (Johnson & Christensen, 2010). In order to prevent response sets, one technique is to reverse the wording in some items. By this way, respondents can become more careful while reading each item on the questionnaire (Johnson & Christensen, 2010). The EFL Teachers' Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale involves 15 items and it is a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1 point) to "strongly agree" (5 points).

3.4.1.3. EFL Teachers' Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale

Although the starting point and the organization of this scale were similar to the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz and her colleagues (1986), it was completely different from the FLCAS in many respects. The FLCAS was developed to measure the foreign language anxiety levels of the learners. Nevertheless, as the intention of this present research was to identify whether the EFL instructors experience foreign language speaking anxiety, a new scale was specifically developed for this study. Wood (1999) modified Horwitz's Teacher Language Anxiety Scale (TLAS) in order to measure pre-service foreign language teachers' anxiety levels. Nonetheless, since this present study aimed at EFL instructors, the researcher adapted the scale of Wood (1999). To illustrate, some items such as "I feel nervous while speaking English in front of my peers" and "I am nervous about using English when my supervisor is observing me" were modified as "I feel nervous while speaking English in front of other language teachers (e.g. in conferences)" and "I am nervous about using English when a teacher trainer is observing me." Some new items and reverse items (items 5, 7, 9, and 11) were also added during the adaptation process by the researcher. Consequently, there are 15 items in this scale. Moreover, it is a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1 point) to "strongly agree" (5 points).

3.4.1.4. EFL Teachers' Teaching Listening and Speaking Skills Questionnaires

In section three, each questionnaire involves 15 items which aim at measuring not only the EFL instructors' frequency of addressing listening and speaking skills in their lessons considering the curriculum of their institutions but also their perceived competencies in teaching these skills. A foreign language learner who has good English communicative skills needs to know how to interact in conversations by using his/her top-down and bottom-up skills simultaneously in both listening and speaking in the target language. Moreover, it is necessary for the foreign language learner to have communicative competence (linguistic, discourse, socio-linguistic and strategic competencies) in order to interact in the target language

accurately and appropriately. By taking the reviewed literature into account, the items were designed by the researcher to reveal the instructors' perceived competency levels in teaching listening and speaking skills at first. However, in the piloting phase of the questionnaire, it was revealed that some instructors do not teach some of these skills in their lessons frequently because of the curriculum of the institution they work at; thus, this might influence their perceived competencies in teaching these skills. Based on the feedback received from the instructors in the piloting stage, two-sided questionnaire style was created by the researcher to collect different data from the same items. The instructors were required to answer two questions in section three: (1) 'Considering the curriculum of your institution, how often do you address the following skills in the lessons?' (2) 'No matter whether your curriculum includes the following skills or not, how competent are you as an English teacher in teaching the following skills?' Besides, the questionnaire involves a 4-point Likert scale in which possible answers ranging from 'usually' to 'never' in one side and 'highly competent' to 'incompetent' in the other side of the questionnaire.

3.4.1.5. Piloting the Questionnaire

Before the actual data collection process, the questionnaire was piloted twice. As the participants of this study were non-native EFL instructors working at preparatory schools of universities, fourteen EFL instructors were selected for the first piloting of the questionnaire. Six of the teachers in the piloting phase have been working at state universities and eight of them have been working as instructors at private universities. In addition, eleven of the teachers studied or have been studying a graduate program in English Language Teaching or Management in Education, whereas three of them have not studied a graduate program. They responded to each item, wrote their comments on the questionnaire sheet and provided individual feedback to the researcher by means of personal interviews. A few instructors stated that they do not frequently teach some of the listening and speaking skills listed in the questionnaire due to the curriculum of the institution they have been working at;

thus, they feel less competent in teaching these skills. Consequently, two-sided questionnaire was designed by the researcher in section three as mentioned above, and also the wording of some items was changed based on the feedback received by the instructors in the piloting group.

After the revision of the questionnaire, it was read through by two teacher education experts, one of whom was a native speaker of English in the Department of Foreign Language Education in Middle East Technical University. As a result, the instrument's content validity was checked, and some small changes in the wording of certain items were made by the researcher considering their comments. Moreover, two separate scales which measure foreign language listening and speaking anxiety were developed.

In the second phase of the piloting stage, the questionnaire was distributed to 52 non-native EFL instructors working at the preparatory schools of some universities in Turkey via e-mail. The piloting was started with some convenient groups of EFL instructors: the instructors (1) who are the acquaintances of the researcher, (2) who are the acquaintances of the researcher's colleagues, and (3) who are the classmates of the researcher studying in the ELT graduate program at Middle East Technical University. Afterwards, those instructors were asked to forward the questionnaire by e-mail to their colleagues. In other words, snowball sampling was implemented in the second piloting process of the study.

After the piloting procedure, Cronbach Alpha values of the scales in the questionnaire were analysed individually by means of SPSS. The EFL Teachers' Listening Anxiety Scale and the EFL Teachers' Speaking Anxiety Scale displayed .81 and .87 alpha item reliability respectively. In addition, the analysis of two-sided Teaching Listening Skills Questionnaire revealed .89 and .90 internal consistency and Teaching Speaking Skills Questionnaire displayed .92 and .91 alpha item reliability which was above the acceptable level (.70) (Johnson & Christensen, 2010).

3.4.1.6. Reliability Analysis of the Questionnaire

After the actual data collection procedure, the reliability coefficients of the parts of the questionnaire were analysed. The reliability statistics of the items were above the acceptable level according to Johnson and Christensen (2010), who claim that “the size of coefficient alpha should generally be, at a minimum, greater than or equal to .70 for research purposes” (p. 142) (Table 9).

Table 9 Reliability Analysis Results of the Questionnaire Parts

	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha Coefficient
Part II - A	15	.888
Part II - B	15	.890
Part III – A - 1	15	.895
Part III – A - 2	15	.936
Part III – B - 1	15	.921
Part III - B - 2	15	.938
Overall	90	.896

3.4.1.7. Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was also conducted, which enabled the researcher to analyse and interpret the results of the quantitative data more easily. As Pallant (2005) states, factor analysis, which is known as a ‘data reduction’ technique, “takes a large set of variables and looks for a way that the data may be ‘reduced’ or summarised using a smaller set of factors or components” (p. 172). As a result of factor analysis, some factors were extracted from the questionnaire parts as seen in Table 10.

Table 10 Factors of the Questionnaire Parts

Part of the Questionnaire	Factors
Part II – A (Foreign Language Listening Anxiety)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Anxiety in understanding new words, accent and information 2. Anxiety in understanding fast speech and native speakers 3. Anxiety in understanding the context and detailed information 4. Anxiety in using guessing strategies
Part II – B (Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Fear of making mistakes 2. Worry over fluency skills 3. Self-criticism of English speaking skills compared to other foreign language speakers 4. Fear of negative (formal) evaluation
Part III – A (Teaching Listening Skills)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Top-down skills 2. Bottom-up skills
Part III – B (Teaching Speaking Skills)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Phonological components 2. Organization of speech / management of interaction skills

3.4.2. Semi-Structured Interviews

A semi-structured interview was conducted with representative participants to obtain more information about their foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels, the factors influencing their anxiety level and competency in teaching these skills. By this way, the participants could “discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live, and express how they regard situations from their own point of view” (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 267). The interviews were conducted in the teachers’ native language, Turkish, as it was considered that they could reflect their feelings and ideas in a more comfortable way, which made the data more reliable. As it was a semi-structured interview, it involved “a series of questions designed to elicit specific answers on the part of respondents” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 456). The researcher began the interview with some general questions and then continued with more specific questions which are related to the instructors’ own experience. All the

interviewees were informed that their names would be anonymized while reporting the data. Nine EFL instructors were interviewed individually, and all the interviews were recorded and translated into English for data analysis. Before the actual interview schedules, the interview questions were piloted with an EFL instructor working at the Preparatory School of Atılım University. Based upon the feedback, there was no problem with the wording of the items; however, as some of the questions were quite long, these items needed repetition and it was necessary for the researcher to give adequate time to the interviewee while answering these questions. Finally, if the interviewee's response included the answer of the up-coming question, the interviewer skipped asking the similar question.

3.5. Data Analysis

The quantitative data gathered through the questionnaire were analyzed via SPSS 15.0 and descriptive statistics, frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were identified. In order to find out whether the instructors' foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels change according to their L2 learning contexts, their English-speaking country experience, the length of their teaching experience and the universities they work at, Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation, independent t-test analysis and one-way ANOVA were used. Moreover, the effects of the EFL instructors' undergraduate departments, their participation in graduate studies and in-service teacher training programs, the length of their teaching experience and the institution they work at on their perceived competency levels in teaching listening and speaking skills were revealed by means of one-way ANOVA, Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation and independent t-tests again. Pearson's product moment correlation was also used so as to identify if there is a relationship between the EFL instructors' foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels and their competency levels in teaching these skills as well as the effect of their frequency of teaching listening and speaking skills on their perceived competency in teaching these skills. In order to analyze the qualitative data, the answers to the open-ended questions and the recorded interviews

were transcribed and content analysis was carried out to be able to reach the qualitative results. For instance, all the responses were listed under each open-ended item and then coded according to their frequencies. Lastly, transcribed interviews were organized under some themes taking the research questions of this study into account.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Overview of the Chapter

The results of the data analysis are presented in this chapter. First, the quantitative data analysis based on the questionnaire is discussed. Second, qualitative data results according to the open-ended items in the questionnaire are presented. Lastly, the data gathered through interviews are analyzed.

4.2. Quantitative Data Results

In this section, first of all foreign language listening anxiety scale results are presented. Secondly, the results of the foreign language speaking anxiety scale are displayed. Thirdly, the competency levels of the EFL instructors in teaching listening and speaking skills are discussed. Finally, the frequency of the EFL instructors' addressing listening and speaking skills in the lessons are reported.

4.2.1. Results of the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale

The aim of the first scale in the questionnaire is to explore whether the EFL instructors working at the preparatory schools of four universities in this study experience foreign language listening anxiety. A Likert type five-point scale was used and the possible answers vary as “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “neither agree nor disagree”, “agree” and “strongly agree”, which are represented as 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 respectively for SPSS data analysis. All negatively phrased items in the scale (items 3, 5, 9, 10, and 12) were reverse coded.

The overall foreign language listening anxiety level of the participants was 2.42 with a standard deviation of .60. The scores of 150 participants ranged from 1.00 to 4.30.

As the scores are categorized into high, moderate and low anxiety levels, each space spans 1.3. Hence, “mean values from 1.00 to 2.30 were defined as low anxiety, values ranging from 2.31 to 3.60 were defined as moderate anxiety, and values from 3.61 to 5.00 were defined as high anxiety” as displayed in Table 11 (Çakar, 2009). Based upon the overall mean score of the EFL instructors, the foreign language listening anxiety level of the instructors of four universities is described as moderate anxiety.

Table 11 Distribution of the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale Values and Their Descriptions

The Levels of Anxiety

<u>Levels</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Low Anxiety	1.00 – 2.30
Moderate Anxiety	2.31 – 3.60
High Anxiety	3.61 – 5.00

(Çakar, 2009, p. 50)

In addition, the factor analysis demonstrated four dimensions in this 15-item scale. The items (2, 4, 6, 8 and 15) that load highly on the first factor which is related to anxiety *in understanding new words, accent and information* have the mean score of 2.32. The items (1, 3, 5, 10 and 14) that are under the theme of the second factor which is about *anxiety in understanding fast speech and native speakers* have the mean of 2.39. The third factor includes items (7, 11 and 13) related to *anxiety in understanding the context and detailed information* with a mean of 2.84. Lastly, the fourth factor on *anxiety in using guessing strategies* involves items (9 and 12) with a mean score of 2.09. Figure 9 below displays means for each factor of foreign language listening anxiety scale.

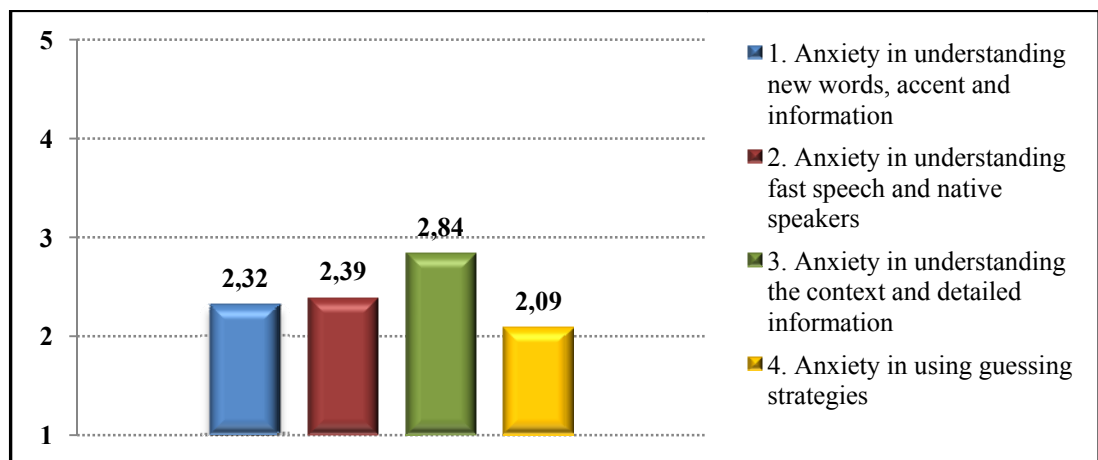


Figure 9 Mean Scores of Factors in Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale

The results of the mean scores according to the factor analysis showed that the instructors reported a moderate level of foreign language listening anxiety in all of the factors except the fourth one. The fourth factor which is related to *anxiety in using guessing strategies* had the lowest mean score and the instructors indicated low level of listening anxiety, whereas they reported a higher moderate level of *anxiety in understanding the context and detailed information* compared to the other three factors.

When responses to specific items are considered, all percentages and frequencies (with means and standard deviations) for each item can be seen in Table 12. However, six items that display the three highest mean scores for moderate level of listening anxiety, and the three lowest mean scores for low level of anxiety of the instructors are worth mentioning. To begin with, one of the situations that causes a moderate level of foreign language listening anxiety for the EFL instructors is item 7 with a mean of 2.93. According to this item, 39.4 % of the instructors (more than one third of them) worry that they will miss important ideas when they let their mind drift even a little bit while listening to English. In addition, item 11 received a mean score of 2.84 and 29.4 % of the EFL instructors reported that they get nervous when they do not understand some idioms and colloquial language while listening to English.

Lastly, item 13 with a mean score of 2.75 indicated that 24 % of the instructors (about one fourth of them) get nervous when they have inadequate background knowledge of some topics when listening to some texts in English.

Table 12 Frequencies, Percentages and Mean Scores of Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale

ITEMS	SA		A		N		D		SD		Mean	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	M	SD
1. When a person speaks English very fast, I worry that I might not understand all of it.	2	1.3	42	28	28	18.7	58	38.7	20	13.3	2.65	1.06
2. I get annoyed when I come across words that I do not understand while listening to English.	1	0.7	19	12.7	25	16.7	77	51.3	28	18.7	2.25	.92
*3. I feel confident while listening to native speakers of English.	5	3.3	6	4	19	12.7	73	48.7	47	31.3	1.99	.95
4. When someone pronounces words differently from the way I pronounce them in English, I find it difficult to understand.	4	2.7	26	17.3	46	30.7	52	34.7	22	14.7	2.58	1.06
*5. I feel comfortable while listening to a native speaker of English on the phone.	4	2.7	24	16	30	20	64	42.7	28	18.7	2.41	1.05
6. Listening to new information in English makes me uneasy.	3	2	16	10.7	25	16.7	81	54	25	16.7	2.27	.93
7. When I let my mind drift even a little bit while listening to English, I worry that I will miss important ideas.	4	2.7	55	36.7	27	18	55	36.7	9	6	2.93	1.04
8. I get nervous when I do not understand every word a native speaker of English says.	0	0	10	6.7	17	11.3	98	65.3	25	16.7	2.08	.73
*9. I feel comfortable about guessing the parts that I miss while listening to English.	0	0	8	5.3	21	14	88	58.7	33	22	2.02	.75

Table 12 (continued)

*10. I do not feel nervous when I listen to a person speaking English very fast.	0	0	29	19.3	30	20	67	44.7	24	16	2.42	.97
11. I get nervous when I do not understand some idioms and colloquial language while listening to English.	1	0.7	43	28.7	47	31.3	49	32.5	10	6.7	2.84	.94
*12. When I do not understand all the words in a listening text in English, I do not get worried.	3	2	16	10.7	17	11.3	81	54	33	22	2.16	.95
13. I get nervous when I have inadequate background knowledge of some topics when listening to some texts in English	2	1.3	34	22.7	51	34	51	34	12	8	2.75	.94
14. I am nervous when listening to an English speaker on the phone.	2	1.3	28	18.7	30	20	68	45.3	22	14.7	2.46	1.00
15. I get worried when I do not understand English news and/or English films without subtitles.	5	3.3	26	17.3	23	15.3	70	46.7	26	17.3	2.42	1.07

* The statements marked with an asterisk have been reversed before computation.

On the contrary, the three lowest mean scores for foreign language listening anxiety were found for items 3, 8 and 9. Firstly, reverse item 3 with a mean score of 1.99 revealed that 80 % of the instructors feel confident while listening to native speakers of English. Similarly, reverse item 9 with a mean of 2.02 showed that 80.7 % of the instructors feel comfortable about guessing the parts that they miss while listening to English. Finally, when item 8 is considered with a mean of 2.08, 82 % of the participants do not get nervous when they do not understand every word a native speaker of English says.

Factors that Affect Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Level of the EFL Instructors

In this section, the results which display the effect of some independent variables such as the instructors' L2 learning contexts, their English speaking country experience, the length of their teaching experience and the institution where the instructors work on their foreign language listening anxiety levels are presented.

a. The Effect of the Institution

The foreign language listening anxiety levels of the instructors according to their institutions they work at are presented in Table 13 below. The scores of Atılım University instructors ranged from 1.30 to 3.70, with a mean of 2.38 and a standard deviation of .58. Moreover, for Gazi University the scores ranged from 1.50 to 3.70, with a mean of 2.48 and a standard deviation of .56. The mean score of Yıldız Teknik University is also 2.48 with a standard deviation of .67 and the scores ranged from 1.10 to 4.30. Lastly, for Başkent University the scores ranged from 1.00 to 3.80, with a mean of 2.39 and a standard deviation of .59.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see if the EFL instructors' level of listening anxiety changes according to the institutions. However, the results showed that there was not a significant difference among four universities.

Table 13 Descriptive Statistics of Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Level of EFL Instructors According to Each Institution

UNIVERSITY	N	Max	Min	Mean	SD
ATILIM	50	3.70	1.30	2.38	.58
GAZİ	20	3.70	1.50	2.48	.56
YILDIZ TEKNİK	35	4.30	1.10	2.48	.67
BAŞKENT	45	3.80	1.00	2.39	.59
ALL UNIVERSITIES	150	4.30	1.00	2.42	.60

b. The Effect of L2 Learning Contexts

In order to explore the effect of the EFL instructors' L2 learning contexts on their foreign language listening anxiety level, the data was transformed into two categories such as learning most of their English communicative skills in a formal language learning context (at primary, secondary, high school and university) and in informal language learning context (studying/working or living in an English-speaking country and contact with native speakers of English in their own country). An independent samples t-test was run to look at the effect of formal and informal language learning contexts on the EFL instructors' foreign language listening anxiety level (Table 14). The results showed that the instructors who learned most of their English communicative skills in an informal context experience less listening anxiety (M= 2.22, SD= .61) than the ones who learned most of their English communicative skills in a formal context (M= 2.46, SD= .58). This difference is significant $t(146) = 1.998, p = .048, p < .05$; and it represents a small effect size $r = .02$.

Table 14 Independent Samples T-Test Results for the Formal and Informal L2 Learning Contexts

L2 Learning Context	N	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
Formal	115	2.46	.58	1.998	.048
Informal	33	2.22	.61		

c. The Effect of English Speaking Country Experience, the Length of Stay in an English Speaking Country and the Length of Teaching Experience

If the mean scores are considered, the instructors who had an experience of English speaking country have slightly less listening anxiety (M= 2.36) than the ones who have not been in an English speaking country (M= 2.44) Nevertheless, the difference was not significant according to the independent samples t-test results.

Finally, a Pearson Correlation analysis was conducted to discover the relationship between the instructors' length of stay in an English speaking country

and their listening anxiety level, but there was no statistically significant relationship between them. There was also no significant relationship between their length of teaching experience and foreign language listening anxiety level.

4.2.2. Results of the Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale

The purpose of the second scale in the questionnaire is to identify whether the EFL instructors working at the preparatory schools of four universities experience foreign language speaking anxiety. A Likert type five-point scale was used and the possible answers vary as “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “neither agree nor disagree”, “agree” and “strongly agree”, which are represented as 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 respectively for SPSS data interpretation. All negatively phrased items in the scale (items 5, 7, 9 and 11) were reverse coded.

Since the scores are categorized into high, moderate and low anxiety levels, the distribution of the foreign language listening anxiety scale values is taken into account as mentioned above. Therefore, the mean scores between 1.00 and 2.30 represent low, 2.31 and 3.60 describe moderate and 3.61 and 5.00 display high foreign language speaking anxiety level.

The overall foreign language speaking anxiety level of the participants was 2.50 with a standard deviation of .64. If the mean values described above are taken into account, the EFL instructors working at four universities experience moderate level of foreign language speaking anxiety. The mean scores of the instructors' foreign language speaking anxiety also ranged from 1.00 to 4.30.

Furthermore, the factor analysis revealed four components in this 15-item scale. The items (1, 7, 9, 11, 13 and 15) that load highly on the first factor have the mean score of 2.42, which represents *fear of making mistakes* while speaking. The items (2, 3, 4, 6, and 8) that are related to *worry over fluency skills* in the second factor have the mean of 2.69. The third factor includes items (5 and 10) about *self-criticism of English speaking skills compared to other foreign language speakers* with a mean of 2.24. Finally, the fourth factor on *fear of negative (formal) evaluation*

involves items (12 and 14) with a mean score of 2.52. Figure 10 below displays mean scores for each factor of foreign language speaking anxiety scale.

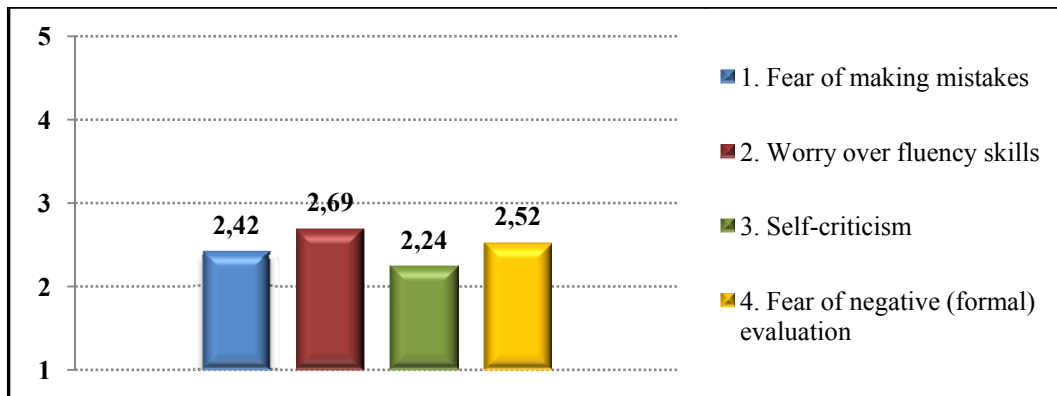


Figure 10 Mean Scores of Factors in Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale

According to the results of the mean scores of the factor analysis, the instructors indicated a moderate level of foreign language speaking anxiety in all of the factors except the third one. The third factor which is related to *self-criticism of English speaking skills compared to other foreign language speakers* had the lowest mean score, which is an indicator of low level of foreign language speaking anxiety. On the other hand, the EFL instructors experience higher moderate level of anxiety in their *fluency skills* while speaking compared to the other three factors.

In terms of the responses given to each item in the foreign language speaking anxiety scale, all percentages and frequencies (with means and standard deviations) can be seen in Table 15 below. Nevertheless, the items that display the three highest mean scores for a moderate level of speaking anxiety should be mentioned. First, one of the worries about foreign language speaking skills for the EFL instructors is item 8 with a mean of 3.04. According to this item, 40.7 % of the instructors (more than one third) believe that they have difficulty in using some idioms and colloquial language while speaking English. Second, item 3 received a mean score of 2.85 and 34.6 % of the EFL instructors indicated that they feel nervous while speaking English in front of other language teachers (e.g. in conferences).

Lastly, item 2 with a mean score of 2.81 displayed that 32.7 % of the instructors think that they are not fluent enough as an English speaker.

Table 15 Frequencies, Percentages and Mean Scores of Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale

ITEMS	SA		A		N		D		SD		Mean	
	f	%f	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	M	SD
1. I am afraid that native speakers will notice the mistakes I make while speaking English.	2	1.3	39	26	30	20	66	44	13	8.7	2.67	.99
2. I feel that I am not fluent enough as an English speaker.	10	6.7	39	26	28	18.7	59	39.3	14	9.3	2.81	1.12
3. I feel nervous while speaking English in front of other language teachers (e.g. in conferences).	11	7.3	41	27.3	30	20	51	34	17	11.3	2.85	1.16
4. When speaking English, I can get so nervous that I forget the things I know.	3	2	12	8	27	18	78	52	30	20	2.20	.91
*5. I feel comfortable when speaking English with non-native speakers of English.	2	1.3	14	9.3	24	16	71	47.3	39	26	2.12	.95
6. It embarrasses me to speak English in front of my colleagues (e.g. in meetings).	6	4	32	21.3	27	18	58	38.7	27	18	2.54	1.13
*7. I feel comfortable while talking to native speakers of English.	0	0	14	9.3	29	19.3	77	51.3	30	20	2.18	.85
8. I have difficulty in using some idioms and colloquial language while speaking English.	4	2.7	58	38	38	25.3	44	29.3	7	4.7	3.04	.98
*9. I do not worry about making grammatical or pronunciation mistakes when I speak English.	2	1.3	32	21.3	36	24	55	36.7	25	16.7	2.54	1.04

Table 15 (continued)

10. I feel that other foreign language teachers speak English better than I do.	4	2.7	9	6	51	34	59	39.3	27	18	2.36	.93
*11. I try to speak English with native speakers whenever I can.	3	2	21	14	50	33	44	29.3	32	21.3	2.46	1.04
12. I am nervous about using English when a teacher trainer is observing me.	7	4.7	21	14	30	20	65	43.3	27	18	2.44	1.08
13. When I speak English, I am too worried about using the correct grammar and pronunciation.	1	0.7	18	12	31	21.3	69	46	30	20	2.27	.94
14. I would be nervous about using English if my administrator were observing me.	8	5.3	24	16	42	28	53	35.3	23	15.3	2.60	1.09
15. I feel nervous when talking to an English speaker on the phone.	2	1.3	30	20	27	18	65	43.3	26	17.3	2.44	1.03

* The statements marked with an asterisk have been reversed before computation

On the other hand, the situations that make the EFL instructors the least anxious about speaking English are as follows. To begin with, 73.3 % of the participants feel comfortable when speaking English with non-native speakers of English (reverse item 5) with a mean of 2.12. Next, reverse item 7 received the second lowest mean score (M= 2.18), which indicates that 71.3 % of the instructors feel comfortable while talking to native speakers of English. Finally, 72 % of them disagreed or strongly disagreed with item 4 “When speaking English, I can get so nervous that I forget the things I know” with a mean of 2.20. Table 15 above presents the three lowest mean scores for low level of anxiety of the participants.

Factors that Affect Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Level of the EFL Instructors

The results of the data analysis that show the effect of the EFL instructors' L2 learning contexts, foreign language country experience, length of teaching experience and the institution where they work on their foreign language speaking anxiety levels are explained in this section.

a. The Effect of the Institution

When the foreign language speaking anxiety level of the instructors at each university is considered (Table 16), the mean scores of Atılım University instructors ranged from 1.10 to 3.90, with a mean of 2.50 and a standard deviation of .69. In addition, for Gazi University the scores ranged from 1.70 to 3.70, with a mean of 2.48 and a standard deviation of .61. Furthermore, the mean score of Yıldız Teknik University is 2.52 with a standard deviation of .60 and the scores ranged from 1.40 to 3.90. Lastly, for Başkent University the scores ranged from 1.30 to 4.10, with a mean of 2.52 and a standard deviation of .60. Although a one-way ANOVA was conducted to see whether the EFL instructors' level of speaking anxiety changes according to the universities, the results showed that there was not a significant difference among four universities.

Table 16 Descriptive Statistics of Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Level of EFL Instructors According to Each Institution

UNIVERSITY	N	Max	Min	Mean	SD
ATILIM	50	3.90	1.10	2.50	.69
GAZİ	20	3.70	1.70	2.48	.61
YILDIZ TEKNİK	35	3.90	1.40	2.52	.60
BAŞKENT	45	4.10	1.30	2.52	.60
ALL UNIVERSITIES	150	4.10	1.10	2.50	.64

b. The Effect of L2 Learning Contexts

One of the aims of this study was to discover the effect of the EFL instructors' L2 learning contexts on their foreign language speaking anxiety level. Hence, an independent samples t-test was conducted to identify the effect of formal and informal language learning contexts on the EFL instructors' foreign language speaking anxiety level. The results show that there is no significant difference between these two variables. However, when the mean scores are considered, the speaking anxiety level of the instructors ($M= 2.54$) who learned most of their English communicative skills in a formal context such as at school seems to be higher than their counterparts who learned them in an informal context ($M= 2.33$) such as staying in an English-speaking country or contact with native speakers of English.

c. The Effect of English Speaking Country Experience, the Length of Stay in an English Speaking Country and the Length of Teaching Experience

First, the effect of English speaking country experience on the foreign language speaking anxiety level of the instructors was identified by means of an independent-samples t-test, yet no significant difference was found between them. Nonetheless, when the mean scores are considered, the instructors who have lived in an English-speaking country ($M= 2.43$) experience slightly less speaking anxiety than the ones who have never lived in an English-speaking country before ($M= 2.53$).

Secondly, a Pearson Correlation analysis was conducted to explore the relationship between the instructors' length of stay in an English speaking country and their speaking anxiety level. As a result, a small negative correlation was observed between the two variables ($r= -.187, p<.05$) (Table 17). That is, the longer an EFL instructor stayed in a target language country, the less foreign language speaking anxiety s/he experiences or vice versa.

Table 17 Correlation of Length of Stay in an English-Speaking Country and Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Level of the Instructors

		Length of Stay	Speaking Anxiety
Length of Stay	Pearson Correlation	1	-,187(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,022
	N	150	150
Speaking Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	-,187(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,022	
	N	150	150

Moreover, the relationship between the EFL instructors' length of teaching experience and their foreign language speaking anxiety level was investigated by means of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient; nevertheless, no significant relationship between them was found.

Finally, in order to see the difference between the foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level of the EFL instructors, a paired samples t-test was conducted. As a result, the instructors' level of speaking anxiety (M= 2.50, SD= .64) is significantly higher than their listening anxiety level (M= 2.42, SD= .60); $t(149) = -2.033$, $p = .044$, $p < .05$ (Table 18). The eta squared statistic (.02) also indicated a small effect size.

Table 18 Paired-Samples T-Test Results for Listening Anxiety vs Speaking Anxiety

	N	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
Listening Anxiety	150	2.42	.60	-2.033	.044
Speaking Anxiety	150	2.50	.64		

4.2.3. Results of the EFL Instructors' Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening Skills

In the third part of the questionnaire, one of the purposes is to identify the EFL instructors' perceived competency in teaching listening skills. A Likert type four-point scale was used in this part and the possible answers vary as "incompetent", "somewhat competent", "competent", and "highly competent", which are represented as 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively.

As the scores are categorized into four levels such as incompetent, somewhat competent, competent and highly competent, each space spans 0.75. Thus, mean values from 1.00 to 1.75 were defined as 'incompetent', values ranging from 1.76 to 2.50 were defined as 'somewhat competent', values from 2.51 to 3.25 were defined as 'competent' and the mean scores from 3.26 to 4.00 were considered as 'highly competent' (Table 19).

Table 19 Distribution of the Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening Skills Scale Values and Their Descriptions

The Levels of Perceived Competency

<u>Levels</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Incompetent	1.00 – 1.75
Somewhat Competent	1.76 - 2.50
Competent	2.51 – 3.25
Highly Competent	3.26 – 4.00

The overall scores of the participants' perceived competency in teaching listening skills ranged from 1.70 to 4.00. The mean score of 150 instructors is 3.25 with a standard deviation of .50. When the overall mean score of the EFL instructors' perceived competency is taken into account, the instructors perceive themselves as *competent* in teaching listening skills.

In addition, the factor analysis demonstrated two components in this 15-item scale. The items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6) that load highly on the first factor which is related to teaching *bottom-up skills* in listening have the mean score of 3.21. Besides, the items (7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15) that are about *top-down skills* in listening have the mean of 3.27. The means for each factor in the scale related to teaching listening skills is presented in Figure 11 below.

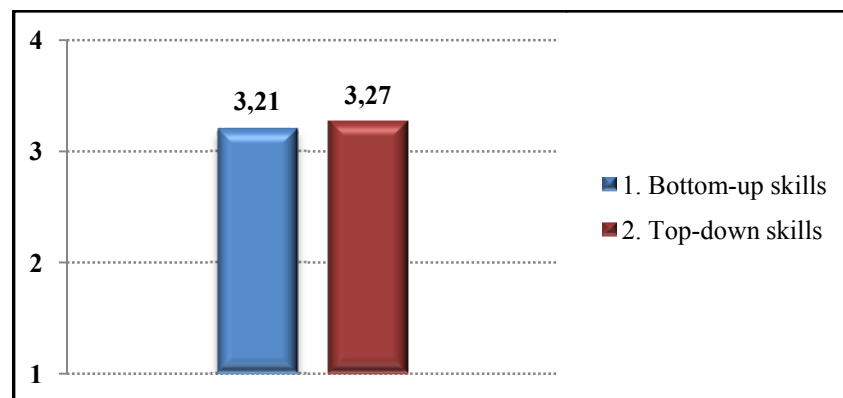


Figure 11 Mean Scores of Factors in Teaching Listening Skills Scale

According to the results displayed above, the EFL instructors perceive themselves as competent in teaching bottom-up skills and even more competent in teaching top-down skills in listening. All percentages and frequencies (with means and standard deviations) for each item can be seen in Table 20. When the items are analyzed one by one, none of the items received a degree of somewhat competence or incompetence.

Table 20 Frequencies, Percentages and Mean Scores of Competency in Teaching Listening Skills Scale

ITEMS	HC		C		SC		IC		Mean	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	M	SD
1. teaching how to <u>distinguish</u> phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in a listening text (i.e., leave / live, sheep / ship, hut / hat, etc.)	45	30	74	49.3	30	20	1	0.7	3.08	.72
2. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> contractions, reduced or weak forms of words in a listening text (i.e., 'She's', 'I'll', 'gonna', schwa /ə/, etc)	58	38.7	68	45.3	24	16	0	0	3.22	.70
3. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in a listening text (i.e., Hów óften do you gó to a púb?)	30	20	61	40.7	49	32.7	10	6.7	2.74	.85
4. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in a listening text (i.e., 'Firstly', 'Finally', 'Moreover', etc.)	78	52	66	44	6	4	0	0	3.48	.57
5. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> sentence fillers or hesitation markers in speech (i.e., 'well', 'I mean', 'you know', etc.)	70	46.7	63	42	17	11.3	0	0	3.35	.67
6. teaching how to identify key words or phrases to comprehend a listening text better	72	48	64	47.7	13	8.7	1	0.7	3.38	.67
7. teaching how to <u>distinguish</u> registers of speech accurately (formal or informal speech)	54	36	69	46	25	16.7	2	1.3	3.16	.74
8. teaching how to identify the gist of the listening text without necessarily understanding every word	73	48.7	62	41.3	15	10	0	0	3.38	.66
9. teaching how to distinguish a main idea(s) from supporting details or examples in a listening text	63	42	74	49.3	12	8	1	0.7	3.32	.65

Table 20 (continued)

10. teaching how to <u>identify</u> a speaker's opinion or attitude towards a listener or a topic in a listening text	55	36.7	80	53.3	14	9.3	1	0.7	3.26	.64
11. teaching how to make inferences and draw conclusions about a listening text	67	44.7	64	42.7	16	10.7	3	2	3.30	.73
12. teaching how to identify specific information in a listening text	71	47.3	70	46.7	8	5.3	1	0.7	3.40	.62
13. teaching how to predict what information or idea will be expressed next in a listening text	53	35.3	74	49.3	23	15.3	0	0	3.20	.68
14. teaching how to guess unknown words from context in a listening text	53	35.3	79	52.7	15	10	3	2	3.21	.70
15. teaching how to use the world knowledge (knowledge of the topic, speakers or the setting) to comprehend a listening text better	54	36	77	51.3	19	12.7	0	0	3.23	.65

First of all, the participants in this study reported high level of competency in teaching how to recognize organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in a listening text such as 'firstly', 'finally' and 'moreover' in item 4 with a mean score of 3.48, and 96 % of the instructors marked that they are competent or highly competent in this item. The second highest mean score (M= 3.40) was found for item 12. That is, 94 % of the participants perceive themselves as competent or highly competent in teaching how to identify specific information in a listening text. Lastly, two items (item 6 and 8) received the third highest mean score (M= 3.38). To illustrate, 95.7 % of the instructors reported competency or high competency in teaching how to identify key words or phrases to comprehend a listening text better, 90 % of them perceive themselves as competent in teaching how to identify the gist of the listening text without necessarily understanding every word.

However, item 3 received the lowest score with a mean of 2.74, which indicates that 39.4 % of the instructors reported incompetence or somewhat competence in teaching how to recognize stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in a listening text. Another item (item 1) which had one of the lowest mean scores (M= 3.08) is related to teaching how to distinguish phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in a listening text and 20.7 % of the participants (one fifth of them) perceived themselves as incompetent or somewhat competent in teaching this point. Finally, 18 % of the instructors indicated that they feel incompetent or somewhat competent in teaching how to distinguish registers of speech (formal or informal) accurately with a mean of 3.16 in item 7.

Factors that Affect the EFL Instructors' Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening Skills

In this section, the results which are related to the factors that have an influence on the participants' perceived competency in teaching listening skills are presented.

a. The Effect of the Institution

According to the mean scores of the instructors working at the preparatory school of each university in terms of their perceived competency in teaching listening skills (Table 21), the mean scores of Atılım University instructors ranged from 1.70 to 4.00, with a mean of 3.16 and a standard deviation of .50. Next, for Gazi University the scores ranged from 2.50 to 4.00, with a mean of 3.49 and a standard deviation of .40. In addition, the mean score of Yıldız Teknik University is 3.16 with a standard deviation of .47 and the scores ranged from 2.20 to 4.00. Finally, for Başkent University the scores ranged from 2.00 to 4.00, with a mean of 3.31 and a standard deviation of .53. However, a one-way ANOVA results showed that there was not a significant difference among four universities in terms of the EFL instructors' self-reported competency in teaching listening skills.

Table 21 Descriptive Statistics of the EFL Instructors' Perception of Their Competence in Teaching Listening Skills According to Each Institution

UNIVERSITY	N	Max	Min	Mean	SD
ATILIM	50	4.00	1.70	3.16	.50
GAZİ	20	4.00	2.50	3.49	.40
YILDIZ TEKNİK	35	4.00	2.20	3.16	.47
BAŞKENT	45	4.00	2.00	3.31	.53
ALL UNIVERSITIES	150	4.00	1.70	3.25	.50

b. The Effect of the EFL Instructors' Undergraduate Departments, Graduate Studies, Length of Teaching Experience, Participation in In-Service Teacher Training Programs

First of all, in order to see the effect of the EFL instructors' undergraduate departments at university on their perceived teaching listening skills competency level, a one-way ANOVA was conducted, yet no statistically significant difference was found between the variables. Secondly, by means of an independent-sample t-test, the effect of the instructors' participation in graduate studies and in-service teacher training programs on their teaching listening skills competency level was investigated; but again no significant difference was found. Lastly, Pearson product-moment Correlation was computed to discover the relationship between the instructors' length of teaching experience and their perceived competency in teaching listening skills. Nonetheless, no significant relationship between them was revealed, either.

c. The Relationship between Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Level of the EFL Instructors and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening Skills

In order to see whether there is a relationship between foreign language listening anxiety level of the instructors and their perceived competency in teaching listening skills to their learners, a Pearson Correlation analysis was conducted, and it revealed a moderate negative correlation between the two variables ($r = -.309$,

p<.001) (Table 22). In fact, the higher foreign language listening anxiety an instructor experiences, the less competency level s/he reports in terms of teaching listening skills or vice versa.

Table 22 Correlation between Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Level of the EFL Instructors and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening Skills

		Listening Anxiety	Competency in Teaching List. Skills
Listening Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	1	-,309(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	150	150
Competency in Teaching List. Skills	Pearson Correlation	-,309(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	150	150

4.2.4. Results of the EFL Instructors' Perceived Competency in Teaching Speaking Skills

Another aim of this study was to investigate the EFL instructors' self-perceived competency in teaching speaking skills. Thus, a Likert type four-point scale was used in the third part of the questionnaire and the possible answers vary as "incompetent", "somewhat competent", "competent", and "highly competent", which are represented as 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively for SPSS data analysis.

Like the scale related to the EFL instructors' perceived competency in teaching listening skills as mentioned above, the scores are categorized into four levels such as incompetent, somewhat competent, competent and highly competent in this scale. Hence, mean values from 1.00 to 1.75 were defined as 'incompetent', values ranging from 1.76 to 2.50 were defined as 'somewhat competent', values from 2.51 to 3.25 were defined as 'competent' and the mean scores from 3.26 to 4.00 were considered as 'highly competent' while interpreting the data results.

When the overall mean score ($M= 3.12$) of 150 participants is considered, the majority of them perceive themselves as *competent* in teaching speaking skills. In addition, the scores range from 1.00 to 4.00 with a standard deviation of .53.

Furthermore, the factor analysis extracted two components in this 15-item scale. The items (1, 2, 3, 4 and 9) that are under the theme of teaching *phonological components* in speaking have the mean score of 2.92. In addition, the items (5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15) that are related to *organization of speech and management of interaction skills* in speaking have the mean of 3.23. The results show that the EFL instructors perceive themselves as competent in teaching phonological components in speaking and more competent in teaching organization of speech and management of interaction skills in speaking. The means for each factor in the scale related to teaching speaking skills can be seen in Figure 12 below.

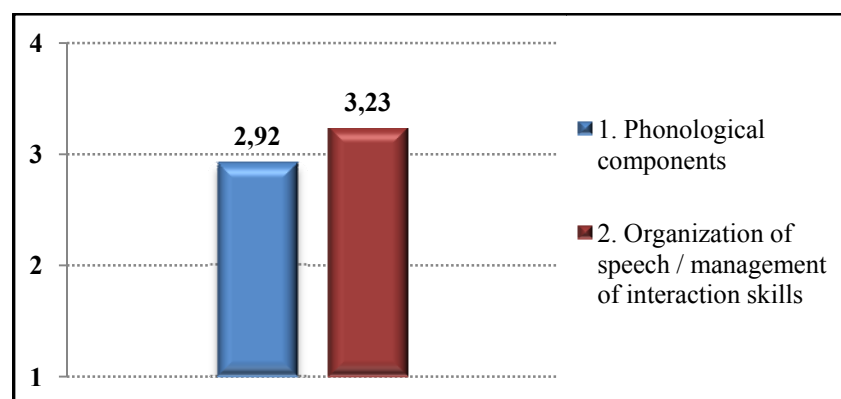


Figure 12 Mean Scores of Factors in Teaching Speaking Skills Scale

When each item is analyzed, none of the item displayed a degree of somewhat competence or incompetence (see Table 23). Therefore, the three highest and three lowest mean scores will be discussed.

Table 23 Frequencies, Percentages and Mean Scores of Competency in Teaching Speaking Skills Scale

ITEMS	HC		C		SC		IC		Mean	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	M	SD
1. teaching how to <u>use</u> phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in speech (i.e., leave / live, sheep / ship, hut / hat, etc.)	43	28.7	81	54	23	15.3	3	2	3.09	.71
2. teaching how to <u>use</u> stress patterns of words accurately in speech (i.e.: multinational, office, etc.)	28	18.7	63	42	53	35.3	6	4	2.75	.80
3. teaching how to <u>use</u> contractions, reduced or weak forms of words in speech (i.e., 'She's', 'I'll', 'gonna', schwa /ə/, etc)	55	36.7	69	46	24	16	2	1.3	3.18	.74
4. teaching how to <u>use</u> stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences accurately in speech (i.e., Hów óften do you gó to a púb?)	27	18	69	46	44	29.3	10	6.7	2.75	.82
5. teaching how to <u>use</u> sentence fillers or hesitation markers in speech (i.e., 'well', 'I mean', 'you know', etc.)	65	43.3	69	46	14	9.3	2	1.3	3.31	.69
6. teaching how to <u>use</u> organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in speech (i.e., 'Firstly', 'Finally', 'Moreover', etc.)	80	53.3	59	39.3	7	4.7	4	2.7	3.43	.70
7. teaching how to <u>use</u> registers of speech accurately (formal or informal speech)	51	34	76	50.7	20	13.3	3	2	3.16	.72
8. teaching how to <u>use</u> colloquial language, idiomatic expressions or phrases in informal speech	38	25.3	77	51.3	30	20	5	3.3	2.98	.76
9. teaching how to <u>use</u> linking between words in speech in order to speak fluently (i.e., They live in Miami ⇨ They /livin/ Miami)	29	19.3	77	51.3	38	25.3	6	4	2.86	.76
10. teaching how to introduce a topic and change the subject in conversations or discussions	54	36	77	51.3	15	10	4	2.7	3.20	.72
11. teaching how to express one's attitude or intention towards a listener or a topic in conversations or discussions	49	32.7	81	54	17	11.3	3	2	3.17	.70

Table 23 (continued)

12. teaching how to invite someone else to speak in conversations or discussions	47	31.3	87	58	15	10	1	0.7	3.20	.63
13. teaching how to take turns in conversations or discussions	52	34.7	79	52.7	17	11.3	2	1.3	3.20	.68
14. teaching how to ask for repetition or clarification in conversations or discussions (i.e., 'Sorry, I missed that.', 'Could you repeat that again, please? etc.)	70	46.7	69	46	9	6	2	1.3	3.38	.66
15. teaching how to <u>use</u> communicative strategies in speech (i.e., self-correct one's own expression or when one forgets an English word or expression, finding an alternative way such as saying its synonym or paraphrasing)	58	38.7	78	52	11	7.3	3	2	3.27	.68

To begin with, the first highest mean score ($M= 3.43$) is related to teaching how to use organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in speech such as 'firstly', 'finally' and 'moreover' and 92.6 % of the instructors perceive themselves as competent or highly competent in item 6. Next, 92.7 % of the EFL instructors reported competency in teaching how to ask for repetition or clarification in conversations or discussions in item 14 with a mean of 3.38. Finally, item 15 was found to have one of the highest mean scores ($M= 3.27$), and 90.7 % of the participants reported competency in teaching how to use communicative strategies in speech such as self-correcting one's own expression or when one forgets an English word or expression, finding an alternative way such as saying its synonym or paraphrasing.

On the contrary, two items (item 2 and 4) received the lowest mean score ($M= 2.75$). To illustrate, 39.3 % of the instructors marked incompetency or somewhat competency in teaching how to use stress patterns of words accurately in speech. Similarly, 36 % of them perceived themselves as less competent or

incompetent in teaching how to use stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences accurately in speech. In addition, item 9 was found to have the second lowest mean score (M= 2.86), which shows that 29.3 % of the participants indicated they have a lower level of competence in teaching how to use linking between words in speech in order to speak fluently. The last lowest mean score (M= 2.98) was related to item 8. That is, 23.3 % of the EFL instructors (about one fourth of them) perceive themselves as less competent in teaching how to use colloquial language, idiomatic expressions or phrases in informal speech.

Factors that Affect the EFL Instructors' Perceived Competency in Teaching Speaking Skills

The results which display the effect of independent variables such as the teachers' undergraduate departments, graduate studies, length of teaching experience, participation in in-service teacher training programs and their institutions on their self-reported competency in teaching speaking skills are presented in this section.

a. The Effect of the Institution

Based upon the mean scores of the instructors working at each university (see Table 24), in terms of perceived competency in teaching speaking skills, the mean scores of Atılım University instructors ranged from 1.80 to 4.00, with a mean of 3.11 and a standard deviation of .49. Similarly, the mean score for Başkent University was 3.11 with a standard deviation of .61, but the scores ranged from 1.00 to 4.00. Besides, the scores for Gazi University ranged from 2.60 to 4.00, with a mean of 3.34 and a standard deviation of .38. Finally, the mean score of Yıldız Teknik University is 3.04 with a standard deviation of .53 and the scores ranged from 1.40 to 4.00. Nevertheless, a one-way ANOVA results revealed that there was no significant difference among four universities in terms of the EFL instructors' self-reported competency in teaching speaking skills.

Table 24 Descriptive Statistics of the EFL Instructors' Perception of Their Competence in Teaching Speaking Skills According to Each Institution

UNIVERSITY	N	Max	Min	Mean	SD
ATILIM	50	4.00	1.80	3.11	.49
GAZİ	20	4.00	2.60	3.34	.38
YILDIZ TEKNİK	35	4.00	1.40	3.04	.53
BAŞKENT	45	4.00	1.00	3.11	.61
ALL UNIVERSITIES	150	4.00	1.00	3.12	.53

b. The Effect of the EFL Instructors' Undergraduate Departments, Graduate Studies, Length of Teaching Experience, Participation in In-Service Teacher Training Programs

Firstly, a one-way ANOVA was conducted so as to see the effect of the EFL instructors' undergraduate departments on their perceived competency in teaching speaking skills. However, no statistically significant difference was found between the variables. Secondly, through an independent-sample t-test, the effect of the instructors' participation in graduate studies and in-service teacher training programs on their teaching speaking skills competency level was explored; yet again no significant difference was found. Finally, a Pearson product-moment Correlation was conducted to discover the relationship between the instructors' length of teaching experience and their perceived competency in teaching speaking skills, the results of which discovered no significant relationship between them, either.

c. The Relationship between Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Level of the EFL Instructors and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching Speaking Skills

A Pearson Correlation analysis was conducted to investigate if there is a relationship between foreign language speaking anxiety level of the instructors and their perceived competency in teaching speaking skills to their learners, and the results showed that there was a moderate negative correlation between the two variables ($r = -.298$, $p < .001$) (Table 25). That is, if an EFL instructor experiences

lower levels of foreign language speaking anxiety, his/her perceived competency in teaching speaking skills is higher or vice versa.

Table 25 Correlation between Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Level of the EFL Instructors and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching Speaking Skills

		Speaking Anxiety	Competency in Teaching Speak. Skills
Speaking Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	1	-,298(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	150	150
Competency In Teaching Speak. Skills	Pearson Correlation	-,298(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	150	150

In order to identify the difference between the EFL instructors' perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills, a paired-samples t-test was also conducted. The results revealed that the instructors perceive themselves as less competent in teaching speaking skills (M= 3.12, SD= .53) than teaching listening skills (M= 3.25, SD= .50); $t(149) = 4.097, p < .0005$ (Table 26). The eta squared statistic (.10) indicated a moderate effect size.

Table 26 Paired-Samples T-Test Results for Competency in Teaching Listening Skills vs. Teaching Speaking Skills

	N	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
Competency in Teaching Listening Skills	150	3.25	.50	4.097	.000
Competency in Teaching Speaking Skills	150	3.12	.53		

4.2.5. Results of the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills in the Lessons

Another aim of this study is to identify how often the EFL instructors address the listening skills listed in the third part of the questionnaire in their lessons taking the curriculum of the institution they work at into account. A Likert type four-point scale was used in this part and the possible answers vary as “never”, “seldom”, “sometimes”, and “usually”, and the data were entered on the SPSS program as 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively.

According to the overall scores of 150 participants, their frequency of addressing listening skills during listening tasks in the lessons ranged from 1.00 to 4.00. Moreover, the mean score is 2.93 with a standard deviation of .56.

As the scores are categorized into four levels such as ‘never’, ‘seldom’, ‘sometimes’ and ‘usually’, each space spans 0.75. Thus, mean values from 1.00 to 1.75 were defined as ‘never’, values ranging from 1.76 to 2.50 were defined as ‘seldom’, values from 2.51 to 3.25 were defined as ‘sometimes’ and the mean scores from 3.26 to 4.00 were considered as ‘usually’ (Table 27).

Table 27 Distribution of the Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills Scale Values and Their Descriptions

The Frequency of Addressing Skills in the Lessons

<u>Levels</u>	<u>Scores</u>
Never	1.00 – 1.75
Seldom	1.76 - 2.50
Sometimes	2.51 – 3.25
Usually	3.26 – 4.00

The overall mean score above displays that the EFL instructors *sometimes* address the listening skills in the questionnaire during listening tasks in their lessons considering the curriculum of the institution they work at. Besides, two components were extracted in this scale through factor analysis. The items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6) which are related to teaching *bottom-up skills* in listening receive the mean score of

2.85. Besides, the items (7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15) that are under the theme of teaching *top-down skills* in listening have the mean of 2.99. The means for each factor in the scale related to frequency of addressing listening skills is presented in Figure 13 below.

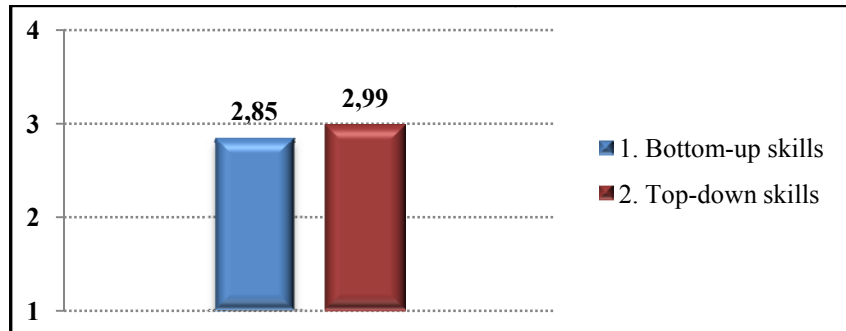


Figure 13 Mean Scores of Factors in Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills Scale

As seen in the results above, the EFL instructors occasionally emphasize the bottom-up and top-down listening skills listed in the questionnaire in their lessons. On average, they address top-down listening skills more often than bottom-up skills in their lessons. When each item in the scale was analyzed, for most of the items, the instructors marked that they sometimes address these listening skills in the lessons. However, in the following parts, the three highest and two lowest mean scores are discussed in detail as seen in Table 28 below.

Table 28 Frequencies, Percentages and Mean Scores of Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills Scale

ITEMS	A		SM		SL		N		Mean	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	M	SD
1. teaching how to <u>distinguish</u> phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in a listening text (i.e., leave / live, sheep / ship, hut / hat, etc.)	21	14	46	30.7	64	42.7	19	12.7	2.46	.88
2. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> contractions, reduced or weak forms of words in a listening text (i.e., 'She's', 'I'll', 'gonna', schwa /ə/, etc)	41	27.3	51	34	45	30	13	8.7	2.80	.94
3. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in a listening text (i.e., Hów óften do you gó to a púb?)	28	18.7	39	26	58	38.7	25	16.7	2.46	.98
4. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in a listening text (i.e., 'Firstly', 'Finally', 'Moreover', etc.)	80	53.3	45	30	18	12	7	4.7	3.32	.86
5. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> sentence fillers or hesitation markers in speech (i.e., 'well', 'I mean', 'you know', etc.)	35	23.3	69	46	38	25.3	8	5.3	2.87	.82
6. teaching how to identify key words or phrases to comprehend a listening text better	64	42.7	54	36	29	19.3	3	2	3.19	.81
7. teaching how to <u>distinguish</u> registers of speech accurately (formal or informal speech)	33	22	64	42.7	44	29.3	9	6	2.80	.84
8. teaching how to identify the gist of the listening text without necessarily understanding every word	83	55.3	37	24.7	28	18.7	2	1.3	3.34	.82
9. teaching how to distinguish a main idea(s) from supporting details or examples in a listening text	68	45.3	47	31.3	28	18.7	7	4.7	3.17	.89

Table 28 (continued)

10. teaching how to <u>identify</u> a speaker's opinion or attitude towards a listener or a topic in a listening text	39	26	62	41.3	39	26	10	6.7	2.86	.87
11. teaching how to make inferences and draw conclusions about a listening text	50	33.3	54	36	39	26	7	4.7	2.98	.88
12. teaching how to identify specific information in a listening text	76	50.7	50	33.3	20	13.3	4	2.7	3.32	.80
13. teaching how to predict what information or idea will be expressed next in a listening text	40	26.7	52	34.7	47	31.3	11	7.3	2.80	.91
14. teaching how to guess unknown words from context in a listening text	40	26.7	47	31.3	48	32	15	10	2.74	.96
15. teaching how to use the world knowledge (knowledge of the topic, speakers or the setting) to comprehend a listening text better	42	28	64	42.7	37	24.7	7	4.7	2.94	.84

First of all, 55.3 % of the instructors indicated in item 8 that they usually teach how to identify the gist of the listening text without necessarily understanding every word with a mean of 3.34. Another highest mean score (M= 3.32) was found for items 4 and 12. To illustrate, 53.3 % of the participants reported that they frequently teach how to recognize organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers such as 'firstly', 'finally', and 'in addition' in a listening text. Besides, 50.7 % of them marked that they usually teach how to identify specific information in a listening text in their lessons.

On the other hand, two items (item 1 and 3) received the lowest mean score (M= 2.46) in the scale. For instance, 42.7 % of the instructors indicated that they seldom teach how to distinguish phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in a listening text and 38.7 % of them also marked that they rarely teach how to recognize stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in a listening text.

The Results of the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills According to Each Institution

According to the mean scores of the instructors working at the preparatory school of each university in terms of their frequency of addressing listening skills in listening tasks considering the curriculum of the institution they work at (Table 29), the mean scores of Atılım University ranged from 1.70 to 4.00, with a mean of 2.73 and a standard deviation of .54. In addition, the mean score of Yıldız Teknik University is 3.09 with a standard deviation of .44 and the scores ranged from 2.10 to 3.90. Furthermore, for Gazi University the scores ranged from 2.70 to 4.00, with a mean of 3.37 and a standard deviation of .32. Lastly, for Başkent University the scores ranged from 1.00 to 3.90, with a mean of 2.84 and a standard deviation of .61.

Table 29 Descriptive Statistics of the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills in the Lessons

UNIVERSITY	N	Max	Min	Mean	SD
ATILIM	50	4.00	1.70	2.73	.54
GAZİ	20	4.00	2.70	3.37	.32
YILDIZ TEKNİK	35	3.90	2.10	3.09	.44
BAŞKENT	45	3.90	1.00	2.84	.61
ALL UNIVERSITIES	150	4.00	1.00	2.93	.56

On average, the instructors working at Gazi University seem to address listening skills in the lessons more often than their counterparts in other universities. Therefore, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to see whether there is any significant difference among four universities in terms of the EFL instructors' frequency of addressing listening skills in the lessons. The results of the ANOVA analysis (Table 30) showed that there was a significant difference among four universities ($F= 8.558$, $p= .000$, $p<.05$).

Table 30 One-way ANOVA Results for Differences among Institutions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7,066	3	2,355	8,558	,000
Within Groups	40,182	146	,275		
Total	47,248	149			

In addition, in order to see the differences among four universities in detail, Scheffe's multiple comparison test was selected and run as a post hoc test. The mean score for Atılım University (M= 2.73, SD= .54) was significantly lower than Gazi University (M= 3.37, SD= .32) and Yıldız Teknik University (M= 3.09, SD= .44). In addition, Gazi University (M= 3.37, SD= .32) differed significantly from Başkent University (M= 2.84, SD= .61) (see Appendix C).

The Relationship between the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills in the Lessons and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills

In order to see whether there is a relationship between 150 EFL instructors' frequency of addressing listening skills in the lessons and their perceived competency in teaching listening skills to their learners, a Pearson Correlation analysis was conducted, and it revealed a small positive correlation between the two variables ($r = .245$, $p < .01$) (Table 31). This means that the more frequently an EFL instructor teaches listening skills in the lessons, the more competent s/he feels in terms of teaching these skills or vice versa.

Table 31 Correlation between the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing the Listening Skills in the Lessons and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills

		Frequency of Addressing List. Skills	Competency in Teaching List. Skills
Frequency of Addressing List. Skills	Pearson Correlation	1	,245(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,003
	N	150	150
Competency in Teaching List. Skills	Pearson Correlation	,245(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,003	
	N	150	150

When each institution was analyzed one by one in terms of the relationship between the instructors' frequency of addressing listening skills in the lessons and their perceived competency in teaching these skills, statistically no significant relationship was found between these two variables for Atılım University and Başkent University. On the contrary, there was a significant large positive correlation between the instructors' frequency of addressing listening skills in the lessons and their competency in teaching these skills for Gazi University ($r = .547$, $p < .05$). Finally, a positive moderate correlation between these two variables was also observed for Yıldız Teknik University ($r = .401$, $p < .05$) (Table 32). In fact, as the instructors in these institutions address the listening skills in listening tasks more frequently in the lessons, they have higher perceived competency in teaching these skills or vice versa.

Table 32 Correlation between the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills in the Lessons and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills for Gazi Univ. and Yıldız Teknik Univ.

		Frequency of Addressing List. Skills	Competency in Teaching List. Skills
GAZİ UNV.			
Frequency of Addressing List. Skills	Pearson Correlation	1	,547(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,013
	N	20	20
Competency in Teaching List. Skills	Pearson Correlation	,547(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,013	
	N	20	20
YILDIZ TEKNİK UNV.			
Frequency of Addressing List. Skills	Pearson Correlation	1	,401(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,017
	N	35	35
Competency in Teaching List. Skills	Pearson Correlation	,401(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,017	
	N	35	35

4.2.6. Results of the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills in the Lessons

In the third section of the questionnaire, one of the parts is related to how often the EFL instructors address the speaking skills listed in the questionnaire during speaking tasks considering the curriculum of their institution. A Likert type four-point scale was used in this part and the possible answers vary as “never”, “seldom”, “sometimes”, and “usually”, which were represented as 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

When the overall score of all the participants is considered, their frequency of addressing speaking skills in the lessons ranged from 1.00 to 4.00. Besides, the mean score is 2.75 with a standard deviation of .60.

Due to the fact that the scores are categorized into four levels such as ‘never’, ‘seldom’, ‘sometimes’ and ‘usually’, the similar range of mean values were used like the scale which is about the frequency of the EFL instructors' addressing

listening skills mentioned above. Hence, in terms of data interpretation, mean values from 1.00 to 1.75 were defined as ‘never’, values ranging from 1.76 to 2.50 were defined as ‘seldom’, values from 2.51 to 3.25 were defined as ‘sometimes’ and the mean scores from 3.26 to 4.00 were labeled as ‘usually’. The overall mean score above indicated that 150 EFL instructors *sometimes* address the speaking skills mentioned in the questionnaire during speaking tasks in the lessons.

Furthermore, the mean scores of two components extracted by means of factor analysis were calculated for this scale. The items (1, 2, 3, 4 and 9) which are related to teaching *phonological components* in speaking had the mean score of 2.55. In addition, the items (5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15) that are under the theme of teaching *organization of speech and management of interaction skills* in speaking received the mean of 2.85. According to the results, the EFL instructors occasionally emphasize phonological components, organization of speech and management of interaction skills in speaking listed in the questionnaire in the lessons. Generally, they address organization of speech and management of interaction skills more often than phonological components in speaking in their lessons. The means for each factor in the scale related to frequency of addressing speaking skills is displayed in Figure 14 below.

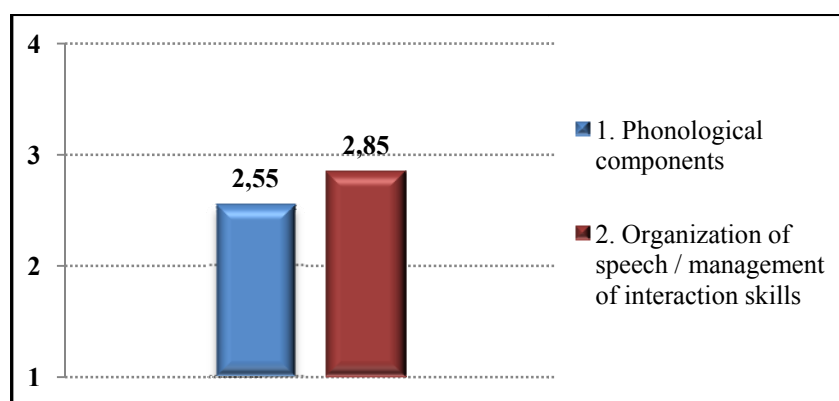


Figure 14 Mean Scores of Factors in Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills Scale

When the items are analyzed one by one, for most of the items, the instructors reported that they sometimes address these speaking skills in the lessons except for three items for which they marked ‘seldom’. Hence, the three highest and three lowest mean scores are presented in detail as seen in Table 33 below.

Table 33 Frequencies, Percentages and Mean Scores of Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills Scale

ITEMS	A		SM		SL		N		Mean	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	M	SD
1. teaching how to <u>use</u> phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in speech (i.e., leave / live, sheep / ship, hut / hat, etc.)	31	20.7	46	30.7	63	42	10	6.7	2.65	.88
2. teaching how to <u>use</u> stress patterns of words accurately in speech (i.e.: multinational, office, etc.)	20	13.3	53	35.3	58	38.7	19	12.7	2.49	.88
3. teaching how to <u>use</u> contractions, reduced or weak forms of words in speech (i.e., ‘She’s’, ‘I’ll’, ‘gonna’, schwa /ə/, etc)	42	28	52	34.7	45	30	11	7.3	2.83	.92
4. teaching how to <u>use</u> stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences accurately in speech (i.e., Hów óften do you gó to a púb?)	25	16.7	37	24.7	65	43.3	23	15.3	2.42	.94
5. teaching how to <u>use</u> sentence fillers or hesitation markers in speech (i.e., ‘well’, ‘I mean’, ‘you know’, etc.)	41	27.3	56	37.3	42	28	11	7.3	2.84	.91
6. teaching how to <u>use</u> organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in speech (i.e., ‘Firstly’, ‘Finally’, ‘Moreover’, etc.)	70	46.7	55	36.7	18	12	7	4.7	3.25	.84

Table 33 (continued)

7. teaching how to <u>use</u> registers of speech accurately (formal or informal speech)	29	19.3	64	42.7	49	32.7	8	5.3	2.76	.82
8. teaching how to <u>use</u> colloquial language, idiomatic expressions or phrases in informal speech	24	16	61	40.7	60	40	5	3.3	2.69	.77
9. teaching how to <u>use</u> linking between words in speech in order to speak fluently (i.e., They live in Miami \Rightarrow They /lɪvɪn/ Miami)	21	14	35	23.3	70	46.7	24	16	2.35	.91
10. teaching how to introduce a topic and change the subject in conversations or discussions	36	24	67	44.7	37	24.7	10	6.7	2.86	.85
11. teaching how to express one's attitude or intention towards a listener or a topic in conversations or discussions	19	12.7	79	52.7	40	26.7	12	8	2.70	.79
12. teaching how to invite someone else to speak in conversations or discussions	32	21.3	52	34.7	50	33.3	16	10.7	2.66	.93
13. teaching how to take turns in conversations or discussions	38	25.3	59	39.3	43	28.7	10	6.7	2.83	.88
14. teaching how to ask for repetition or clarification in conversations or discussions (i.e., 'Sorry, I missed that.', 'Could you repeat that again, please?' etc.)	52	34.7	64	42.7	30	20	4	2.7	3.09	.80
15. teaching how to <u>use</u> communicative strategies in speech (i.e., self-correct one's own expression or when one forgets an English word or expression, finding an alternative way such as saying its synonym or paraphrasing)	42	28	56	37.3	37	24.7	15	10	2.83	.95

To begin with, one of the highest scores ($M= 3.25$) was found for item 6, which is about teaching how to use organizational markers, cohesive devices and linkers in speech such as 'firstly', 'secondly', and 'moreover' and 46.7 % of the

instructors indicated that they usually address this skill in the lessons. In addition, for item 14, which is related to teaching how to ask for repetition or clarification in conversations or discussions, 34.7 % of the participants marked ‘usually’ with a mean of 3.09. Lastly, 24 % of the instructors reported that they usually teach how to introduce a topic and change the subject in conversations and discussions in item 10 with a mean score of 2.86.

Nevertheless, for item 9 which is about teaching how to use linking between words in speech in order to speak fluently, 46.7 % of the instructors marked that they rarely address this skill in the lessons with a mean score of 2.35. Besides, 43.3 % of the participants reported that they seldom teach how to use stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in speech in item 4 with a mean of 2.42. Similarly, item 2 received one of the lowest scores (M= 2.49) and 38.7 % of the instructors indicated they rarely teach how to use stress patterns of words accurately in speech in their lessons.

In order to identify whether there is any difference between the instructors’ addressing listening skills and speaking skills in the lessons, a paired-samples t-test was run. The results displayed that the instructors address listening skills (M= 2.93, SD= .56) more than speaking skills (M= 2.75, SD= .60) in the lessons; $t(149) = 5.710$, $p < .0005$ (Table 34) and the eta squared statistic (.17) indicated a large effect size.

Table 34 Paired-Samples T-Test Results for Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills vs. Speaking Skills in the Lessons

	N	Mean	SD	t	Sig.
Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills	150	2.93	.56	5.710	.000
Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills	150	2.75	.60		

The Results of the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills According to Each Institution

Based upon the mean scores of the instructors working at each university in terms of their frequency of addressing speaking skills in the lessons (Table 35), the mean scores of Atılım University ranged from 1.60 to 4.00, with a mean of 2.69 and a standard deviation of .54. Moreover, for Gazi University the scores ranged from 2.50 to 4.00, with a mean of 3.18 and a standard deviation of .36. In addition, the mean score of Yıldız Teknik University is 2.73 with a standard deviation of .50 and the scores ranged from 1.50 to 3.60. Finally, for Başkent University the scores ranged from 1.00 to 4.00, with a mean of 2.65 and a standard deviation of .73.

Table 35 Descriptive Statistics of the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills in the Lessons

UNIVERSITY	N	Max	Min	Mean	SD
ATILIM	50	4.00	1.60	2.69	.54
GAZİ	20	4.00	2.50	3.18	.36
YILDIZ TEKNİK	35	3.60	1.50	2.73	.50
BAŞKENT	45	4.00	1.00	2.65	.73
ALL UNIVERSITIES	150	4.00	1.00	2.75	.60

On average, the highest score was found for Gazi University. In order to explore if there is any significant difference among four universities in terms of the EFL instructors' frequency of addressing speaking skills in the lessons, a one-way ANOVA was run. The results of the ANOVA analysis (Table 36) revealed that there was a significant difference among four universities ($F= 8.558$, $p= .000$, $p<.05$).

Table 36 One-way ANOVA Results for Differences among Institutions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7,066	3	2,355	8,558	.000
Within Groups	40,182	146	,275		
Total	47,248	149			

In addition, in order to see the differences among four universities in detail, as a post hoc test, Scheffe's multiple comparison test was selected and run. The mean score for Atılım University (M= 2.73, SD= .54) was significantly lower than Gazi University (M= 3.37, SD= .32) and Yıldız Teknik University (M= 3.09, SD= .44). Gazi University (M= 3.37, SD= .32) also differed significantly from Başkent University (M= 2.84, SD= .61) (see Appendix D)

The Relationship between the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills in the Lessons and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills

In order to identify if there is a statistically significant relationship between all the participants' frequency of addressing speaking skills in the lessons and their perceived competency in teaching speaking skills, a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was run and a small positive correlation was found between the two variables ($r = .189$, $p < .05$) (Table 37). That is, if the EFL instructors address the speaking skills more often in the lessons, they feel more competent in teaching these skills or vice versa in this study.

Table 37 Correlation between the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills in the Lessons and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills

		Frequency of Addressing Speak. Skills	Competency in Teaching Speak. Skills
Frequency of Addressing Speak. Skills	Pearson Correlation	1	,189(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,021
	N	150	150
Competency in Teaching Speak. Skills	Pearson Correlation	,189(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,021	
	N	150	150

According to data analysis of each institution in detail in terms of the relationship between the instructors' frequency of addressing speaking skills in the

lessons and their perceived competency in teaching these skills, statistically no significant relationship was found between these two variables for Atılım University and Başkent University. Nonetheless, there was a significant large positive correlation between the instructors' frequency of addressing speaking skills in the lessons and their competency in teaching these skills for Gazi University ($r = .536$, $p < .05$). Lastly, a positive moderate level of correlation between these two variables was also found for Yıldız Teknik University ($r = .337$, $p < .05$) (Table 38). These findings display that the instructors' self-reported competency in teaching speaking skills in Gazi University and Yıldız Teknik University is higher as they address these skills more frequently in the lessons or vice versa.

Table 38 Correlation between the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills in the Lessons and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills for Gazi Univ. and Yıldız Teknik Univ.

		Frequency of Addressing Speak. Skills	Competency in Teaching Speak. Skills
GAZİ UNV.			
Frequency of Addressing Speak. Skills	Pearson Correlation	1	,536(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,015
	N	20	20
Competency in Teaching Speak. Skills	Pearson Correlation	,536(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,015	
	N	20	20
YILDIZ TEKNİK UNV.			
Frequency of Addressing Speak. Skills	Pearson Correlation	1	,337(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,048
	N	35	35
Competency in Teaching Speak. Skills	Pearson Correlation	,337(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,048	
	N	35	35

The Relationship between the EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Listening and Speaking Anxiety Levels; Competency in Teaching Listening and Speaking Skills; and Frequency of Addressing These Skills in the Lessons

Apart from the data analysis conducted so as to find answers to the research questions in this study, another relationship was discovered statistically between some variables through a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient as follows. First, there was a strong positive correlation between the EFL instructors' foreign language listening anxiety and speaking anxiety levels ($r = .674$, $p < .001$), which means that if an EFL teacher's foreign language listening anxiety level is higher, his/her speaking anxiety level is also higher or vice versa. Another large positive correlation was found between the instructors' competency in teaching listening and speaking skills ($r = .745$, $p < .001$). That is, the more competent an instructor feels in terms of teaching listening skills, the higher perceived competency s/he has in terms of teaching speaking skills or vice versa. The last strong positive correlation was discovered between the instructors' frequency of addressing listening and speaking skills in the lessons ($r = .785$, $p < .001$) (Table 39), which shows that if the instructors frequently teach listening skills in the lessons, they also address speaking skills more often in the lessons or vice versa.

Table 39 Correlation between the EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Listening and Speaking Anxiety; Competence in Teaching Listening and Speaking Skills; and Frequency of Addressing These Skills in the Lesson

		Listening Anxiety	Speaking Anxiety
Listening Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	1	,674(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	150	150
Speaking Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	,674(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	150	150
		Competency in Teaching List. Skills	Competency in Teaching Speak. Skills
Competency in Teaching List. Skills	Pearson Correlation	1	,745(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	150	150
Competency in Teaching Speak. Skills	Pearson Correlation	,745(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	150	150
		Frequency of Addressing List. Skills	Frequency of Addressing Speak. Skills
Frequency of Addressing List. Skills	Pearson Correlation	1	,785(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	150	150
Frequency of Addressing Speak. Skills	Pearson Correlation	,785(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	150	150

4.2.7. Summary of the Significant Quantitative Data Results

First of all, data analysis revealed that the EFL instructors working at the preparatory schools of four universities experience moderate level of foreign language listening anxiety. In addition, the participants' level of listening anxiety does not change according to their English-speaking country experience, length of teaching experience and the institution they work at. However, the results showed

that the EFL instructors' L2 learning contexts (formal or informal) influence their level of foreign language listening anxiety.

Second, in terms of the participants' foreign language speaking anxiety level, the data analysis displayed a moderate level of anxiety. Moreover, the EFL instructors' speaking anxiety is significantly higher than their listening anxiety level. Besides, a small negative correlation was found between the participants' speaking anxiety level and their length of stay in an English speaking country. Nonetheless, their English-speaking country experience, L2 learning contexts, the institution where they work and their length of teaching experience do not have any effect on their foreign language speaking anxiety levels statistically.

Third, on average, 150 instructors in this study perceive themselves as competent in teaching listening skills. Furthermore, their competency level does not change according to their undergraduate departments, graduate studies, their participation in-service teacher training programs, length of teaching experience and the institution where they work. Nevertheless, there is a moderate negative correlation between the instructors' foreign language listening anxiety and perceived competency in teaching listening skills.

Fourth, the EFL instructors reported that they generally feel competent in teaching speaking skills. Yet, they perceive themselves as more competent in teaching listening skills than speaking skills. In addition, the participants' undergraduate departments, graduate studies, length of teaching experience, participation in in-service teacher training programs and the institution where they work do not influence their speaking anxiety statistically. On the other hand, a moderate negative correlation was discovered between the instructors' foreign language speaking anxiety and competency in teaching speaking skills.

Furthermore, in terms of the EFL instructors' frequency of addressing listening skills in the lessons considering the curriculum of the institution where they work, the results revealed, on average, they sometimes emphasize the listening skills listed in the questionnaire. Moreover, their frequency of addressing listening skills in the lessons varies according to the universities. Besides, there is a small positive

correlation between the instructors' frequency of addressing listening skills and their perceived competency in teaching these skills.

Moreover, based upon the data analysis results, the EFL instructors occasionally address the speaking skills mentioned in the questionnaire in their lessons, taking their curriculum into account. In addition, their frequency of addressing speaking skills in the lessons changes according to the institutions. The data results also show that the participants address listening skills more than speaking skills in the lessons. Lastly, a small positive correlation was found between the instructors' self-reported competency in teaching speaking skills and their frequency of addressing these skills in the lessons.

Finally, a large positive correlation was identified between the EFL instructors' foreign language listening and speaking anxiety; their perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills; and their frequency of addressing listening and speaking skills in the lessons.

4.3. Qualitative Data Results

4.3.1. Results of the Open-Ended Items in the Questionnaire

The second and third parts of the questionnaire included four open-ended items to explore the sources of an EFL instructor's feeling anxious or non-anxious while communicating in English and also the factors that affect an EFL instructor's perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. The responses are presented without changing the inaccurate structures and the word choice of the instructors.

In the first open-ended question, the participants were asked to indicate what might be the reasons for an EFL instructor's feeling confident while communicating in English. The responses with their frequency are displayed below in Table 40.

Table 40 Responses Given to Open-Ended Item I

What can be the reasons for an EFL instructor's feeling <u>confident</u> while communicating in English?	Frequency
1. Personality (self-confident, out-going, easy going etc.)	37
2. Fluency in L2	26
3. Having a lot of speaking practice in daily life	24
4. Educational background	17
5. Knowing the language well (proficiency)	15
6. Good command of English & communicative competence	14
7. English-speaking country experience	13
8. Contact with native speakers	11
9. Knowledge of vocabulary	10
10. Knowledge of structure	9
11. Teaching experience	8
12. Having no fear of making mistakes	8
13. Background knowledge about the subject being discussed	7
14. Learning the L2 at an early age	6
15. Good pronunciation skills	4
16. Exposure to songs, TV programmes, films and books in English	3
17. Native-like pronunciation skills	3
18. Being exposed to L2 regularly	3
19. The university s/he graduated from	1

As it is seen in the analysis of the responses, most of the EFL instructors (N= 37) out of 133 teachers, who responded to the open-ended items in this study, indicated that personality is the most important reason for feeling confident while communicating in English. In their responses, most of them mentioned that if an English instructor is a self-confident and an extrovert person, s/he experiences less anxiety while speaking or listening to English.

The second most frequent response was the ability of speaking English fluently. Twenty-six of the instructors pointed out that speaking English fast and without hesitation leads them to feel confident. Furthermore, in order to improve fluency in the second language, 24 of the participants reported the significance of having a lot of speaking practice. Hence, having an opportunity to practice speaking English in their daily lives enables the instructors to feel much more comfortable in

communication. In addition, according to some EFL instructors (N= 17), educational background; that is, how and to what extent they learned English in their educational lives affected their confidence while communicating in English. For instance, six of the respondents indicated that learning the second language at an early age and the university the instructors graduated from (N= 1) affected their confidence level while listening to or speaking English. Moreover, some instructors (N= 15) pointed out the importance of English proficiency. In terms of proficiency, having good command of English or communicative competence (N= 14), knowledge of vocabulary (N= 10) and knowledge of structure (N= 9) helped them to experience less anxiety.

Another factor that influences their confidence in speaking and listening skills is having English-speaking country experience (N= 13). Some of them indicated that having lived, worked or studied in an English-speaking country increased the confidence level of EFL instructors. To illustrate, some of them have an opportunity to contact with native speakers abroad and 11 of the respondents mentioned the importance of contact with native speakers not only in an English-speaking country but also in their own country so as to gain confidence in their English listening and speaking skills.

In addition, teaching experience was another reason that some respondents reported in the questionnaire (N= 8). Some instructors stated that using the target language actively while teaching English in the lessons aids to improve their communicative skills in English:

Experience in teaching gives confidence. I feel I am better at communication after years of teaching. (Participant 14)

Besides, eight EFL instructors mentioned that having no fear of making mistakes while speaking English makes the teachers feel more comfortable. In fact, some teachers do not have any concerns about making grammar or pronunciation mistakes, which lead to their feeling less nervous while communicating in English:

No need to worry about grammar mistakes unless they interfere with the real meaning. (Participant 121)

Believing that it is OK to make mistakes even though you are teaching English. (Participant 48)

I feel free to make mistakes. I do not feel much responsible as it is not my mother tongue. (Participant 96)

On the other hand, pronunciation is an important factor for some instructors. Some of them (N= 4) believe that having good pronunciation skills, even having native-like pronunciation (N= 3) helps the instructors feel more comfortable. Also, having background knowledge about the topic being discussed gives confidence to some of the instructors while speaking or listening to English (N= 7). Finally, three of the instructors pointed out the importance of being exposed to L2 regularly such as listening to songs, watching TV programmes and films and reading books in English (N=3).

In the second open ended item, the researcher aimed at identifying the reasons for EFL instructors' feeling anxious while communicating in English. Even though most of the responses are similar to the ones given to the previous open-ended item, their frequency shows variance as seen in Table 41 below.

Table 41 Responses Given to Open-Ended Item II

If an EFL instructor feels <u>uncomfortable</u> while communicating in English, what can be the causes of his/her anxiety?	Frequency
1. Fear of making grammar and/or pronunciation mistakes	40
2. Personality (lack of self-confidence, being shy, self-conscious etc.)	37
3. Having no practice in speaking English in daily life	34
4. Lack of fluency in L2	11
5. Vocabulary knowledge (not being able to find the words at the moment of speaking)	11
6. Lack of knowledge of colloquial language and idiomatic expressions	7
7. Inadequate knowledge of English	7
8. Feeling nervous in front of colleagues	7
9. Not having good command of English	4
10. Lack of contact with native speakers	4

Table 41 (continued)

11. An EFL instructor has no right to make any mistakes as s/he has to be a perfect model	4
12. Pressure of being corrected by a teacher trainer / administrator	3
13. The person s/he is talking to (the speaker's accent, nationality, being native or non-native and superior to you etc.)	3
14. Being a non-native English speaker	3
15. Being a perfectionist person	3
16. Lack of speaking & pronunciation lessons in their past education	3
17. Speaking English in front of people (stage fear)	3
18. Talking to an English-speaker on the phone	2
19. Giving too much importance to the opinions of others (the possibility of being criticized by others)	1
20. Having no background knowledge about the topic being discussed	1
21. Not being able to understand what the native speaker of English says	1
22. Learning L2 by means of Grammar Translation Method	1
23. Excessive monitoring of the language while speaking	1

Majority of the instructors (N= 40) out of 133 indicated fear of making grammar and/or pronunciation mistakes as the primary reason for their feeling anxious while communicating in English. To illustrate, some of the instructors (N= 4) reported that an EFL instructor has no right to make any mistakes as s/he has to be a perfect model for students. In addition, three respondents believe that being a perfectionist individual is one of the factors that lead to anxiety for an EFL teacher while speaking or listening to English.

The second most common response given to the second open-ended item was personality factors (N= 37). For instance, if an EFL instructor has lack of self-confidence and a shy personality, s/he feels uncomfortable while communicating in English. One of the reasons why an EFL instructor has lack of self-confidence might depend on their lack of opportunity to practice speaking English in their daily lives (N= 34) which brings about lack of fluency (N=11) or poor command of English (4) as stated by some EFL instructors in this study.

Another reason for an EFL instructor's feeling nervous as communicating in English was reported as vocabulary knowledge by 11 teachers. Some of them, for example, stated that they are not able to find the English word(s) at the moment of speaking. Eleven of the respondents also indicated that lack of knowledge of colloquial language and some idiomatic expressions cause them feel uncomfortable as they are speaking or listening to English:

Sometimes when we do not know exact words, we tend to explain in different ways and it may be hard to come up with exact definitions and it does not sound natural. (Participant 73)

All in all, inadequate knowledge of English as the examples mentioned above leads to foreign language listening or speaking anxiety among some instructors (N= 7).

Furthermore, fear of negative evaluation brings about foreign language anxiety among EFL instructors while communicating in English. To illustrate, speaking English in front of colleagues (N= 7), feeling pressure of being corrected by a teacher trainer or administrator (N= 3) or speaking English in front of people generally (N= 3) cause some instructors to feel nervous:

Mispronouncing a word / words and realizing that immediately makes the instructor feel anxious. (Participant 7)

In other words, some of the instructors give too much importance to the opinions of other people and feel anxious due to the possibility of being criticized by others (N= 1). Moreover, the person an EFL instructor is talking to and the topic being discussed are some factors that influence his/her anxiety (N= 3). For instance, the speaker's accent, nationality, being native or non-native and also the role of the participants are some examples reported by the instructors in the study.

In addition, 4 of the instructors indicated that lack of contact with native speakers either at work or in their daily lives increases the feeling of foreign

language listening or speaking anxiety. Therefore, some instructors (N= 2) feel nervous when talking to an English-speaker on the phone or when they have difficulty in understanding what the native speaker of English says (N= 1). Besides, three of the respondents pointed out that an instructor's being aware of the fact that s/he is a non-native English speaker might lead to his/her feeling nervous as communicating in English.

Finally, three of the EFL teachers mentioned that lack of speaking or pronunciation lessons in their past education might lead to their feeling uncomfortable while speaking English today. Another reason might be their learning L2 through the Grammar-Translation Method (N= 1), which might yield to the EFL instructor's excessive monitoring of the language while speaking English (N= 1).

By means of the third open-ended question, the aim of the researcher was to identify the factors that affect EFL instructors' perceived competency in teaching the listening and speaking skills to their learners. The responses given by the instructors with their frequency are presented in Table 42 below.

Table 42 Responses Given to Open-Ended Item III

What might be the reasons for an EFL instructor's feeling competent in teaching the listening and speaking skills?	Frequency
1. Teaching experience	49
2. Having good listening and speaking skills in English	25
3. English speaking country experience	15
4. Having attended teacher training programs on how to teach listening & speaking skills	13
5. Special interest in how to teach these skills	10
6. Motivated & enthusiastic students	8
7. Preparation before the lesson	8
8. Curriculum (time allocated to teach these skills)	6
9. Good materials (course book)	6
10. Being aware of the importance of listening & speaking skills in English (his/her teaching approach)	5
11. Watching English films	4
12. Educational background (taking phonology / phonetics courses)	4
13. Good knowledge of idioms & daily language	2
14. Learning how to teach listening & speaking skills during undergraduate education	2
15. Testing listening and speaking skills	1
16. Knowing the students' needs	1

As it is seen in the analysis of the responses, the majority of the instructors (N= 49) out of 133 indicated the importance of teaching experience. In fact, after years of teaching, they gain confidence in how to teach these skills to their students more effectively. Teaching experience also helps the instructors know their students' needs (N= 1) and improve their learners' listening and speaking skills accordingly.

The second most frequent factor stated by 25 instructors was an EFL teacher's having good listening and speaking skills in English. In other words, if an EFL teacher is proficient in listening and speaking skills in English, it means that s/he feels more competent in teaching these skills to the learners:

If an instructor feels competent in speaking and listening in English, this may have a positive reflection in a class as an instructor may feel comfortable with teaching speaking and listening skills. (Participant 66)

If the instructor is good at English, s/he might enjoy teaching listening and speaking more than grammar. Enjoying while teaching is important. (Participant 97)

If an EFL instructor has a native-like English accent; and if s/he can easily form sentences and give answers in speaking tasks, s/he feels competent and relaxed as well. (Participant 59)

Furthermore, having English-speaking country experience might improve an EFL instructor's competency in teaching listening and speaking skills (N= 15). To sum up, if an EFL instructor is competent or confident in speaking and listening to English, s/he might feel more competent in teaching these skills.

Another reason for EFL instructor's feeling competent in teaching listening and speaking skills was their having attended teacher training programs (N= 13). While some instructors have an opportunity to attend the teacher training programs which are offered by the institution they work at, some of them preferred to attend some training courses outside their institutions on a voluntary basis. Hence, the instructors who have special interest in how to teach these skills might have willingness to improve their teaching skills; as a result, they might feel more competent in teaching listening and speaking skills (N= 10):

I believe if an instructor has done any studies or read books, attended conferences related to these skills, s/he may feel more confident in teaching these skills. (Participant 132)

His/her teaching philosophy that emphasizes these skills no matter what the curriculum is. (Participant 27)

In addition, if an EFL instructor is aware of the importance of listening and speaking skills in L2 (N=5), s/he might emphasize these skills more in the lessons; thus, his/her competency in teaching these skills might develop. Lastly, 8 of the instructors mentioned that preparing the listening and speaking tasks before the lessons improves their competency in teaching these skills:

Having studied the listening text before doing it in class or having gathered some information to lead the students about a speaking topic in class might improve competency. (Participant 142)

Moreover, students play a big role in EFL teachers' perceived competency level. For example, eight of the instructors stated the importance of motivated and enthusiastic students. The more willing the students are to learn listening and speaking skills in English, the more competent and confident EFL teachers perceive themselves. The students might become more motivated if listening and speaking skills are tested in the exams. One of the instructors, for instance, indicated the importance of testing listening and speaking skills, which also increases an EFL instructor's perceived competency. Besides, six of the instructors indicated that good materials or course books help them to improve their competence in teaching listening and speaking skills:

The course materials (mainly the course book) should have user-friendly, easy-to-implement activities. (Participant 25)

Six of the instructors also stated that if adequate time is given to teach listening and speaking skills in the curriculum, EFL instructors' competency level in teaching these skills might increase as they teach these skills more often.

In addition, watching English films can make some instructors feel efficient while teaching listening and speaking skills (N= 4). Furthermore, two of the instructors believe that good knowledge of idioms and daily language in English might develop an EFL instructor's competency in teaching these skills.

Finally, four of the instructors reported that their taking phonology and phonetics courses in their education helped them gain competence in teaching listening and speaking skills. Some teachers (N= 2) also stated that learning how to teach listening and speaking skills during their undergraduate education is a big factor in their competence in teaching these skills.

In the last open-ended item, the participants were asked to report why an EFL instructor perceives himself/herself as incompetent in teaching listening and speaking skills. The responses were almost the same with the ones given to the previous open-ended item, yet their frequency differs as seen in the Table 43 below.

Table 43 Responses Given to Open-Ended Item IV

What might be the reasons for an EFL instructor's feeling <u>incompetent</u> in teaching the listening and speaking skills?	Frequency
1. Lack of teaching experience	40
2. Unwillingness of students (lack of motivation)	21
3. Curriculum (time allocated to teaching these skills, pacing problems, objectives etc.)	19
4. Not having good listening and speaking skills (daily language) in English	14
5. Lack of training in how to teach listening & speaking skills	14
6. Lack of self-confidence	8
7. No preparation before the lessons	7
8. Poor quality of materials (course books)	6
9. Lack of fluency	5
10. Weak level of students	5
11. Listening & speaking skills are not tested	3
12. Lack of phonetic / pronunciation knowledge	3
13. Students' tendency to speak Turkish in the lessons	3
14. The instructor's negative attitude towards these skills (unwillingness to teach listening & speaking skills)	2
15. Not having English-speaking country experience	1
16. Not willing to improve yourself in how to teach these skills	1

The majority of the instructors (N= 40) out of 133 reported that lack of teaching experience might lead to an EFL teacher's feeling incompetent in teaching listening and speaking skills. In other words, novice English teachers might feel less competent in teaching these skills than experienced teachers.

The student factor also plays a big role in EFL instructors' perceiving themselves as efficient in teaching listening and speaking skills. If the learners are unwilling to improve these skills (N= 21) or have a tendency to speak Turkish in the lessons (N= 3), EFL teachers might feel incompetent in teaching these skills. Weak level of students also affects the teachers' competency in a negative way (N= 5).

The students' lack of motivation might emerge from the curriculum. According to 19 EFL instructors, if there are not any objectives related to teaching listening and speaking skills clearly stated in the curriculum, the time allocated to teaching these skills is not adequate and these skills are not tested in the exams (N= 3), then it is inevitable for the instructors to have difficulty in motivating their students. Consequently, they feel incompetent in teaching these skills:

Exams not testing listening and speaking skills leads [sic] to students' reluctance to participate in such activities. Thus, in turn, discourages [sic] teachers from focusing on these two skills. (Participant 31)

Unfortunately, we give much more importance to grammar than speaking and listening. (Participant 5)

The instructor does not have enough time to spare teaching or practicing listening and speaking skills due to the curriculum (syllabus) (Participant 72)

In addition, six of the instructors reported the effect of poor quality of materials or course books on their competency in teaching these skills in an effective way.

Apart from the students and the curriculum, the other following factors are related to the EFL teachers' self-criticism. Fourteen of the instructors indicated that an EFL teacher's not having good listening and speaking skills might lead to his/her feeling incompetent in teaching these skills to the learners. To illustrate, an EFL

teacher's lack of fluency (N= 5), lack of phonetic or pronunciation knowledge (N= 3) and lack of English-speaking country experience all might cause him/her to feel less competent in teaching these skills.

Furthermore, according to 14 instructors, lack of training in how to teach listening and speaking skills might be another factor that affect an EFL instructor's feeling incompetent in teaching these skills. Some English teachers might have negative attitude towards listening and speaking skills; thus, they might be unwilling to teach these skills (N= 2). Consequently, only one of them stated that they might not be eager to improve themselves in how to teach these skills, which brings about incompetency in teaching these skills. Besides, an EFL instructor's lack of self confidence might lead to his/her feeling less competent in teaching listening and speaking skills (N= 8). For instance, some of the instructors might not feel confident enough for unexpected things that can occur during listening and speaking activities in the lessons. Some of them also might think that teaching listening and speaking skills is challenging for the teacher:

The rules are not always as clear-cut as in grammar teaching. Listening and speaking are acquired over time and with a lot of practice.
(Participant 103)

Wrong presumptions that it is usually more difficult to teach skills of listening and speaking. (Participant 124)

Finally, if the instructor does not make any preparation before the lessons which include listening or speaking tasks (N= 7), s/he might come across some difficulties in the classroom; hence, s/he might feel less competent in teaching listening and speaking skills.

4.3.2. Results of the Semi-Structured Interviews

The data for this part were collected through semi-structured interviews with nine EFL instructors, three with high anxiety level, two with moderate level of anxiety and four with low level of anxiety according to their foreign language

listening and speaking anxiety mean scores. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the participants in this study were the instructors from the preparatory schools of Atılım University, Gazi University, Başkent University and Yıldız Teknik University. Table 44 below displays the interviewees' background data.

The interviews were conducted in Turkish, the instructors' native language. Nonetheless, the data were transcribed and translated into English by the researcher. The results are presented with supportive examples under some themes according to the research questions of this study. Finally, missing words and ungrammatical language of the interviewees were left as they were.

The Effect of the EFL Instructors' L2 Learning Contexts on Their Foreign Language Listening and Speaking Anxiety Level

The first interview question asked the participants to indicate how or where most of the non-native EFL teachers in Turkey learn their English language skills, especially listening and speaking skills. Next, they were asked to talk about the effect of L2 learning context on the EFL teachers' English listening and speaking skills. All of the instructors reported that the EFL teachers in Turkey learn most of their English language skills in preparatory schools or during their university education.

As an English teacher, I think I learned most of my language skills at university. The education at university, the courses we took, the content of the courses, the presentation we gave and the discussions helped us both learn the subject and practice our English. (Interviewee 1)

Table 44 The Interviewees' Background Data

	Instructor 1	Instructor 2	Instructor 3	Instructor 4	Instructor 5
	High	High	High	Moderate	Moderate
Anxiety Level	Listening: 3.70 Speaking: 3.50	Listening: 3.60 Speaking: 3.70	Listening: 3.80 Speaking: 2.90	Listening: 3.10 Speaking: 2.90	Listening: 2.50 Speaking: 2.00
Current Institution	Atılım Univ.	Yıldız Teknik Univ.	Başkent Univ.	Atılım Univ.	Gazi Univ.
Teaching Experience (years)	4	7	15	4	5
Undergraduate Department	ELT	ELT	Translation & Interpretation	ELIT	ELT
Graduate Studies (MA/PhD)	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
In-service Teacher Training Program	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
L2 Learning Context	At university	At university	At university	Studying/ working or living in an Eng. speaking country	Studying / working or living in an Eng. speaking country
English-Speaking Country Experience	No	No	No	Yes	Yes

Table 44 (continued)

	Instructor 6	Instructor 7	Instructor 8	Instructor 9
	Low	Low	Low	Low
Anxiety Level	Listening: 1.70 Speaking: 1.10	Listening: 1.60 Speaking: 1.60	Listening: 2.00 Speaking: 2.10	Listening: 2.10 Speaking: 1.80
Current Institution	Atılım Univ.	Yıldız Teknik Univ.	Başkent Univ.	Gazi Univ.
Teaching Experience (years)	6	5	7	3
Undergraduate Department	ELT	ELIT	ELT	ELT
Graduate Studies (MA/PhD)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
In-service Teacher Training Program	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
L2 Learning Context	Studying / working or living in an Eng. speaking country	Studying / working or living in an Eng. speaking country	At secondary school	Studying / working or living in an Eng. speaking country
English-Speaking Country Experience	Yes	Yes	No	Yes

In terms of learning English listening and speaking skills, five of the participants indicated the importance of English-speaking country experience such as living, working or studying English in a language school. On the other hand, four of the EFL instructors mentioned that majority of the EFL teachers in Turkey learned their listening and speaking skills at university such as listening to lectures or participating in discussions.

The most important reason is the English-speaking country experience. Staying there, living there for a while, having to speak English or going to a language school there improve especially their speaking skills and they also improve their listening skills very well. (Interviewee 4)

When we think about EFL teachers, I can say that their participation in the courses at university. I find the secondary education in Turkey inadequate; we did not do any listening and speaking activities at high school. We can improve our language skills at preparatory school or in department courses at university, but it depends on the individual in the department courses. If the person participates in the lessons, his/her speaking skill can improve. In terms of listening, as their course teachers at university speak English all the time in the lessons, they can improve [...] in this way. (Interviewee 8)

When their own English language learning experience is considered, three instructors who have high level of anxiety indicated that they learned most of their listening and speaking skills during their university education.

I learned my English language skills at high school. However, we didn't do any listening and speaking activities in the lessons. In short, I couldn't improve my listening and speaking skills until I began studying at university. Yet, at university, in the lessons at preparatory school, I spoke English all the time in the lessons. Therefore, I developed my skills there. [...]. Nevertheless, there was a big problem in our university. There were no pronunciation lessons in the preparatory school and no pronunciation courses in the ELT department. This is one of the factors that affect my listening and speaking skills in a negative way. (Interviewee 2)

On the other hand, two instructors who have moderate anxiety level and three instructors having low anxiety level mentioned that their English-speaking country experience is a significant factor that influences their confidence in their current English listening and speaking skills. Yet, one instructor who has low anxiety level indicated that she did not have any opportunity to improve her listening and speaking skills in an English-speaking country. Nevertheless, her secondary school English teacher played a big role in her listening and speaking skills development.

I went to the USA in summer when I was in the third grade at university. I used to feel anxious in the lessons at university while I was speaking English in order to form accurate sentences. However, when I was abroad, I realized that it was not such a big deal. Since then, I have noticed that it isn't necessary for me to

form grammatically correct sentences. I realized the importance of fluency rather than accuracy when I was abroad. (Interviewee 9)

I started learning English when I was at secondary school. My English teacher was a very enthusiastic woman. She was the one who inspired me and the reason for my becoming an English teacher. She told us the importance of English in our lives all the time. She taught listening and speaking saying that these skills weren't important for only exams at school, but we should use these skills in our daily life such as while talking to tourists. [...]. I remember no grammar-based teaching; she focused on listening and speaking in the lessons. (Interviewee 8)

To sum up, the interviewees stated that their L2 learning contexts such as learning English at university or secondary school or having an English-speaking country experience affect their English listening and speaking skills.

The EFL Instructors' Strengths and Weaknesses in Their Listening and Speaking Skills

Another question in the interview required the instructors to discuss their strengths and weaknesses in their English listening and speaking skills. In terms of listening skills, three instructors who experience high anxiety level think that they feel confident while listening to academic texts like lectures or they have no difficulty in comprehending the listening texts in the course book they have been covering in the classroom or understanding the gist of a listening text. On the contrary, they feel anxious while listening to a native speaker, authentic texts, different accents or watching a foreign film or a television channel.

I can understand the listening texts in the course books including advanced level in the classroom. [...]. Yet, while I'm watching a foreign film or English television channels, when I don't understand them, my anxiety level increases. In addition, while listening to authentic texts or native speakers, I can understand them generally, but I sometimes feel nervous that I can't understand them at all. (Interviewee 2)

When they consider their speaking skills, the instructors indicated that they feel comfortable while speaking English in front of their students in the classroom. However, they feel anxious about their pronunciation and fluency skills or they feel

uncomfortable while speaking English in front of their colleagues in meetings, other language teachers in conferences and their administrators.

While speaking English in the classroom or teaching something to my students, I feel comfortable thinking that my English level as a teacher is better than my students. Nonetheless, if I have to speak English in front of my colleagues, administrators or in conferences, I sometimes experience anxiety because I have difficulty in finding the appropriate word, which results from our education which focused on reading and comprehension skills, not having any opportunity to practice listening and speaking skills. (Interviewee 1)

Furthermore, the instructors having moderate level of anxiety feel comfortable while watching television serials and films in English or listening to native speakers, whereas they have difficulty in understanding some accents, English idioms and colloquial language.

I can understand a native speaker easily. I can communicate with him/her because my English-speaking country experience has an effect on my understanding his/her culture and body language. Generally, I'm successful at conveying my message. [...] My weakness is related to vocabulary such as idioms and daily language. We can't have exposure to any daily language very often, so I have difficulty in understanding them. (Interviewee 5)

In terms of speaking skills, these instructors feel confident in their fluency skills or conveying their message easily, whereas they have some problems with using idioms or colloquial language appropriately or their pronunciation skills.

When we consider the instructors who have low level of anxiety, they feel confident in identifying the main idea of a listening text or they are good at note-taking or inference skills. Two of them also reported that they are successful at comprehending daily language and fast speech. On the contrary, all of them mentioned their weakness in understanding some accents. In terms of speaking, they have self-confidence in their fluency or pronunciation skills or using daily language, whereas they want to improve their intonation skills or pronunciation of less frequent words in English.

I feel comfortable about getting the gist of a listening text if I have background knowledge about the topic. [...] If someone is talking by using daily language or on the phone, I find myself successful. Nonetheless, the thing that I need to improve is identifying different accents. I can't understand a Scotchman or an Irishman easily, but American accent. I am good at understanding fast speech because I focus on only getting the main idea. (Interviewee 6)

In terms of speaking, I can communicate with a native speaker quite easily as I don't feel nervous that I can't be understood. [...] because I haven't had any bad experience while talking to native speakers before, which gives me confidence. Nevertheless, I feel anxious about the fact that the native speaker will notice my grammar mistakes. I make more grammar mistakes while speaking than writing, but I don't feel anxious about it. (Interviewee 7)

The EFL Instructors' Experience of Foreign Language Listening or Speaking Anxiety

One of the questions in the interview asked the instructors to indicate whether they have ever experienced anxiety while speaking or listening to English. Some instructors who have felt nervous illustrated their experience, whereas some of them who feel comfortable about their English listening and speaking skills explained the reasons for their confidence. Three of the instructors who have high anxiety level according to the questionnaire scores have experienced anxiety in some circumstances such as while talking or listening to a native speaker, speaking English in conferences, watching English television serials or listening to English songs.

I generally feel less confident while talking to native speakers or talking in conferences or similarly while listening to a native speaker, I feel nervous. The reasons are [...] I think I may not be understood while talking or even though s/he understands me, I feel that s/he may form a negative judgment about me. (Interviewee 1)

In addition, two of the instructors having moderate level of anxiety indicated that they have experienced anxiety while communicating with native speakers or listening to some lectures in English.

I used to feel nervous before I went abroad because I hadn't talked to a native speaker in my life [...] The only environment we had an opportunity to speak English was with Turkish people or in the lessons everybody had to speak

English at university. No problems occurred because everyone could understand each other as we used to talk Turkish-English [...] Therefore, when I was abroad, I felt anxious at first as I didn't understand [...] For instance, while I was going abroad, I ordered a glass of water on the plane and the flight attendant didn't understand me at first, I felt nervous, of course. On my first days in the US, I didn't understand anything. (Interviewee 5)

Moreover, even the instructors (N=2) experience anxiety in some circumstances despite the fact that they have low level of anxiety according to the questionnaire scores. For instance, they feel nervous while listening to an English speaker on the phone, talking to their administrators or having to listen to a text only once in a test. On the contrary, two of the instructors having low level of anxiety explained their confidence in their listening and speaking skills.

I feel nervous while talking to administrators who are professionals in the field of English language teaching. [...] I feel more anxious while listening to English in an exam. When I listen to a text only once in an exam, I feel nervous [...]. I am good at talking on the phone, I feel confident, but there is always a risk while talking on the phone. As I am talking to Chinese or Japanese speakers or any other English speaker, this makes me nervous. I have no problems while speaking English, but I always think whether I missed a point or not. (Interviewee 6)

I used to feel anxious, but I don't feel nervous anymore now. This results from my English-speaking country experience and I noticed that making mistakes is normal. I don't think I have to speak English both accurately and fluently and it isn't a problem for me. I know I am not a native speaker; hence, I don't have a problem. (Participant 7)

The Reasons for the EFL Instructors' Experience of Anxiety While Communicating with Native-Speakers, In Front of Their Administrators, Teacher Trainers or Other Language Teachers

The instructors were also asked why some EFL instructors feel anxious while listening and talking to native speakers of English or what could make them feel confident. Some reasons mentioned by the instructors are their anxiety in choice of vocabulary, worry over their fluency skills, fear of negative evaluation, fear of making mistakes (grammar and pronunciation), not having any opportunity to contact with native speakers (at work) and thinking that an English teacher has no right to make any mistakes.

On the contrary, if an EFL instructor feels comfortable while communicating with native speakers of English, this may result from his/her having a lot of opportunity to practice English with native speakers, having lived abroad, using some strategies to ask for clarification while speaking and having a lot of practice in listening and speaking skills in his/her past education. One of the instructors in the interview commented on the reasons for the EFL instructors' confidence or anxiety related to listening and speaking skills:

I think most of the non-native English teachers feel anxious [...] whether I will make any grammar mistakes, if I make a grammar mistake, what will s/he think about me? ; if I have pronunciation mistakes, what will s/he think about me? [...] whether I speak slowly [...] Moreover, they feel nervous because of lack of self-confidence and experience. There are some teachers who don't feel anxious. These teachers must have been abroad or had contact with native speakers a lot, so they might have gained self-confidence. (Interviewee 4)

Furthermore, according to the participants of the interview, some EFL instructors might feel nervous while speaking English in front of their colleagues in meetings, other language teachers in conferences or while being observed by teacher trainers and administrators due to some reasons such as their personality (lack of self-confidence, being shy, perfectionist etc.), fear of making mistakes, fear of negative evaluation, being observed by a native teacher trainer and having difficulty in talking in front of professionals in ELT field. One of the interviewees expressed her feelings why she is unwilling to speak English in front of her colleagues in the meetings at work:

We tend to be perfectionist and expect other people to be perfect. I sometimes hear some things in the meetings and I become irritated by them. For example, when one of our colleagues speaks English in a meeting, s/he can make some pronunciation mistakes or s/he can have an accent. The other colleagues in the meeting begin criticizing or mocking his/her speaking. I hear such kind of things. We tell our students not to criticize their peer's speaking, but we as teachers do the same thing. This discourages me if I want to speak in the meetings. (Interviewee 3)

On the other hand, the interviewees reported that some EFL teachers feel comfortable in front of their colleagues, other language teachers, administrators or

teacher trainers while speaking English because of their personality (self-confident, outgoing etc.) and not having fear of making mistakes.

The Effect of the EFL Instructors' Teaching Experience on Their Listening and Speaking Anxiety Level

When the instructors were asked whether the length of teaching experience affects an EFL instructor's listening and speaking anxiety level, eight of them reported that the more experienced the teacher becomes, the less foreign language listening and speaking anxiety s/he experiences. While they are teaching listening and speaking skills to their students, they have an opportunity to develop their own English listening and speaking skills.

I didn't start teaching English as soon as I came back from the USA. After a while, my English becomes rusty. After I started teaching English, I really improved my English listening and speaking skills again. We have to speak English in the lessons as teachers. Besides, in the listening lessons; we somehow practice our own listening skills [...] Teaching helps me practice my own listening and speaking skills. (Interviewee 4)

However, one of the interviewees claimed that the length of teaching experience does not have any influence on an EFL teacher's listening and speaking anxiety level and it changes according to the instructor's own willingness to improve his/her listening and speaking skills:

It changes according to the person. If the teacher graduates from the university and has high English proficiency and starts teaching English, s/he may not have a problem. On the other hand, s/he might have high level of English proficiency, but s/he might teach low level of students. If the teacher doesn't improve his/her skills, his/her English can get worse even after three or five years of teaching. [...] It isn't related to the length of teaching experience, I think it depends on the teacher. His/her English listening and speaking skills might get worse even after years of teaching. (Interviewee 2)

Other Factors that Affect the EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Listening and Speaking Anxiety Level

The interviewees indicated some other factors that influence an EFL instructor's foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level, which are not mentioned above such as the listening text's being too fast, long or not interesting, his/her fear of being criticized by his/her students, not being able to concentrate while listening and teaching low-level of students. One of the instructors expressed his opinion on this subject in the interview:

An instructor may feel nervous about the fact that his/her students will notice his/her mistakes while speaking English. We can make some mistakes such as saying 'he have' or 'she go' although we are English teachers in the classroom. (Interviewee 6)

The Relationship between the EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Listening and Speaking Anxiety Level and Their Competency in Teaching These Skills

The interviewees were asked to indicate their opinions about whether an EFL instructor's foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level influences his/her competency level in teaching these skills. Three of the instructors having high level of anxiety according to the questionnaire scores in this study mentioned that there is a relationship between the EFL instructors' anxiety level and his/her perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. To illustrate, two of those instructors claimed that there is a negative relationship between anxiety and competency; that is, if the instructor experiences high level of anxiety in listening and speaking skills, s/he might not feel confident in teaching these skills to the learners; hence, s/he might prefer to focus on teaching grammar and reading skill more than listening and speaking skills in the lessons. Another example given by one of the instructors was that the instructors who do not feel confident in their pronunciation, intonation, word or sentence stress skills might skip these parts in the course books in the lessons:

If an EFL instructor's foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level is high, s/he feels less confident while teaching listening and speaking skills in the classroom. S/he might avoid doing these activities. S/he tends to teach more grammar and reading comprehension skills which s/he has more confidence. As a result, this affects the students' developing their listening and speaking skills. (Interviewee 1)

In terms of teaching listening skills, for example, if I want to make the students watch a film in the lesson, I need to watch the film in advance in order to feel confident in the classroom when the students ask me some questions. [...] I sometimes need to skip some parts. To illustrate, it is difficult for me to identify word stress, so I feel nervous whether the student will ask me questions about word stress. (Interviewee 2)

In contrast, one of the instructors having high anxiety level indicated that an EFL teacher's having higher foreign language listening and speaking anxiety might affect his/her perceived competency in teaching these skills in a positive way. For instance, this teacher might develop empathy skills and can understand his/her students' problems while learning listening and speaking skills as s/he used to experience or still experiences the same kind of anxiety. Consequently, they can encourage their learners to improve their listening and speaking skills in a more efficient way. The same idea was also supported by one of the instructors having moderate level of anxiety in the interview:

This effect might be in a positive way. If the instructor has high level of anxiety, s/he can prepare the tasks which s/he might have a problem in the classroom before the listening and speaking lessons. This might motivate the students [...]. Consequently, this can improve his/her own skills beside his/her students'. (Interviewee 5)

On the other hand, another instructor who had moderate anxiety level indicated that there is a negative relationship between anxiety and the competency level of the instructors. To illustrate, the instructors having high level of foreign language anxiety might not enjoy doing listening and speaking activities in the lessons. Even if s/he does these activities, s/he might feel nervous while teaching these skills because the students might ask some questions related to the listening text, or they can criticize the instructor when s/he makes a mistake while speaking

English in the lesson. However, the interviewee also reported that if the instructor is confident about his/her own listening and speaking skills, s/he can feel comfortable while teaching these skills, and the students are able to sense their teacher's confidence.

In addition, four of the instructors having low level of anxiety mentioned a negative relationship between foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level and the competency in teaching these skills. For instance, they commented that if an EFL instructor has confidence in his/her own listening and speaking skills, s/he can teach these skills to the learners in a more comfortable way and allow his/her students to make mistakes:

If I don't know the pronunciation of a new word in the course book, I usually tell my students that I've just learned the pronunciation of it at the same time with them. That is, my anxiety doesn't deter me from my feeling competent in teaching it. [...]. I let my students feel comfortable about making mistakes while speaking. There are also some areas that I have self-confidence and while teaching these points, I usually feel competent. (Interviewee 8)

As my speaking anxiety level is low, I am not afraid of making mistakes. Hence, my students try to speak fluently in my classroom even though they make a lot of mistakes. I let them make some mistakes because I give much more importance to fluency than accuracy. [...] However, as my listening anxiety level is low, I didn't use to stop the CD-player while the students were listening to a text, but I pause the CD-player in some parts of the listening text now, I ask some questions to the students so as to make them comprehend the text much better because I've noticed that the students are nervous while listening. [...] I don't need to look at the tape scripts of the listening texts in the course book before the lessons. If I have difficulty in identifying some details and the students ask me questions about these details, then I tell the students that if they get the gist, no problem. (Interviewee 6)

On the contrary, they also indicated that if the instructor has listening or speaking anxiety, s/he might skip listening and speaking tasks in the lessons by telling the students that these parts are not important or the instructor might switch between his/her native language and the foreign language frequently while speaking in the lessons.

The Effect of the EFL Instructors' Undergraduate Departments, Participation in Graduate Studies, In-service Teacher Training Programs, Teaching Experience and the Institution Where They Work on Their Competency in Teaching Listening and Speaking Skills

To begin with, four out of nine instructors in the interview phase of the study claimed that the EFL instructors' competency in teaching listening and speaking skills changes according to their undergraduate programs. They also commented that the instructors graduating from ELT departments are more equipped with certain techniques and strategies in terms of teaching listening and speaking skills than the instructors from other departments. Five of the interviewees, on the other hand, indicated that the EFL instructors' undergraduate departments do not affect their competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. They believe the effect of teaching experience and training programs on teaching these skills:

The undergraduate department definitely affects the competency level of an EFL instructor in teaching. I think a teacher having graduated from a linguistic department, in his/her first year in teaching, even though s/he knows the structure of the foreign language very well, I think s/he might have some weaknesses in terms of teaching some strategies and skills. On the other hand, an ELT graduate or even English Language and Literature graduate who has had pedagogical formation training can be more effective in teaching these skills. For example, an instructor who is an American Language and Literature graduate can teach inference or other reading skills more effectively, but not the same thing for teaching listening and speaking skills. I think an ELT graduate teacher knows how to teach strategies and sub skills of listening and speaking much more effectively. (Interviewee 2)

All the interviewees reported the importance of teaching experience and teacher training programs while teaching listening and speaking skills. In other words, they commented that the more experience the teacher gets, the more competent s/he becomes in teaching these skills. In addition, according to all the instructors in the interview, by means of teacher training programs, an EFL instructor can learn some strategies or various activities related to teaching listening and speaking skills in a more efficient way.

In addition, in terms of the effect of the EFL instructors' graduate studies on teaching listening and speaking skills, seven of the instructors reported the

importance of graduate studies, especially in ELT or TEFL field because they assume that EFL teachers gain knowledge of teaching these skills both in theory and practice. However, two of the instructors indicated that graduate studies in ELT or TEFL field do not influence an EFL instructor's competency in teaching listening and speaking skills since they think that apart from theory, the EFL teachers do not learn anything useful for the students that they can use in the classroom in practice:

EFL instructors' competency levels change according to their graduate studies in ELT because they learn how to teach and test listening and speaking skills in an effective way. [...] Participation in teacher training programs plays a big role. If there is practical component in these programs, they are very useful. Teaching experience also affects, [...] but if a teacher hasn't attended any graduate studies or training programs in spite of his/her five-year experience, then the competency level doesn't change according to the length of the teaching experience. Yet, if the teacher improves his/her teaching skills by doing the things mentioned above, then teaching experience has an effect on the competency level. (Interviewee 5)

Finally, all the interviewees reported that the institution they work at influences their competence in teaching listening and speaking skills. According to nine of the instructors, if the listening and speaking skills are emphasized in the curriculum of the institution where they work and both listening and speaking skills are tested in quizzes, achievement and proficiency exams, they believe that they will feel more competent in teaching these skills. In other words, provided they become obliged to teach listening and speaking skills in the lessons considering the curriculum, they commented that they will improve their teaching skills and gain more experience, which will yield to their high perceived competency:

I think the institution is the most important factor. If the institution has the opinion of improving the students' listening and speaking skills by means of only practice and if we don't teach any sub skills, top-down or bottom-up strategies in listening and management of interaction skills in speaking, we can't improve the students' listening and speaking skills. [...] This also affects the teacher's competency in teaching these skills as we don't address any sub skills or strategies in the lessons because they aren't tested in the exams. (Interviewee 6)

Other Factors that Affect the EFL Instructors' Competency in Teaching Listening and Speaking Skills

When the interviewees were asked to report the other factors that influence the EFL instructors' competency in teaching listening and speaking skills apart from the factors mentioned above, they stated some of them such as the students' motivation, enthusiasm and proficiency levels; an EFL teacher's watching TV serials, listening to songs in English, having knowledge of colloquial language, experience of teaching different level of students and sharing some ideas with his/her colleagues (in terms of teaching listening and speaking skills); and lack of technological equipment in the classrooms (lack of projectors, computers etc.). One of the instructors commented on the student factor affecting an EFL teacher's competency in teaching listening and speaking skills in the interview:

The proficiency level of the learners is also very important. If the level of the students is high, the teacher becomes more enthusiastic to teach listening and speaking skills. On the other hand, if the level of the learners is low, the teacher sometimes needs to switch to Turkish when the students don't understand some points related to the listening text or some speaking tasks don't work with low level students. Thus, the teacher can feel less competent in teaching these skills. (Interviewee 4)

The Relationship between the Frequency of the EFL Instructors' Addressing Listening and Speaking Skills in the Lessons and Their Self-Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills

Another question in the interview required the participants to express their opinions about whether an EFL instructor's frequency of addressing listening and speaking skills in the lessons according to the curriculum of the institution s/he works influences his/her competence in teaching these skills. All the interviewees commented a positive relationship between their frequency of teaching listening and speaking skills and their perceived competency in teaching these skills. To illustrate, the more an EFL instructor teaches these skills in the lessons, the more confident s/he feels. On the contrary, some instructors indicated that if the listening and speaking skills are not emphasized in the curriculum of their institution, it depends on the teacher whether s/he gives importance to listening and speaking skills in the lessons.

Furthermore, if listening and speaking skills are not tested in the exams, some instructors also reported that they need to give importance to teaching grammar, vocabulary, reading skills in the lessons and they need to skip listening and speaking parts in the course book:

In most of the course books, all the skills are generally integrated. According to our syllabus, we cover the units one by one in our course book, but it depends on the instructor. If listening and speaking skills aren't tested and also if the teacher feels uncomfortable with his/her own listening and speaking skills, all of these can affect his/her frequency of addressing these skills in the lessons. [...] If the instructor teaches these skills, s/he feels more competent. In addition, as the instructor's competency level increases, s/he feels more confident and s/he emphasizes these skills more often in the lessons. (Interviewee 1)

We cover a course book and in this course book, for instance, there are some parts related to hesitation devices or fillers, which is a sub skill of speaking. [...]. My colleagues and I skip these parts such as stress and intonation because these skills aren't emphasized in our curriculum. I can't remember teaching rising or falling intonation in the lessons. I know the subject, but I don't know how to teach these skills since they aren't in our curriculum; thus, I am not ready and I can have difficulty in teaching these skills when I have to. The same thing can be said for the listening. By means of the teacher training program that I have participated outside this institution, I have learned how to teach top-down and bottom-up skills and I have tried teaching them in the lessons. The more I teach them, the more competent I feel. Yet, these skills aren't emphasized in our curriculum; hence, most of my colleagues don't feel competent in teaching these skills. (Interviewee 6)

Therefore, as the instructors stated, due to not addressing these skills in the lessons frequently, an EFL instructor might feel less competent in teaching listening and speaking skills, which might lead to his/her having anxiety while teaching these skills.

4.3.3. Summary of the Significant Interview Data Results

Firstly, in terms of the effect of L2 learning contexts on their foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level, some of the instructors having higher anxiety level commented that they learned most of their English listening and speaking skills during their university education. On the other hand, some of them

who experience lower anxiety based on the quantitative data analysis pointed out that they improved most of their communicative skills in an English-speaking country or at secondary school. As a result, they indicated the effect of their L2 learning contexts on their anxiety levels.

Secondly, the interviewees discussed their strengths and weaknesses in their English listening and speaking skills. The instructors who have high anxiety level indicated that they have no difficulty in comprehending the listening texts in the course books they have been covering in the classroom, identifying the gist of a listening text and academic texts such as lectures, whereas they feel nervous while listening to a native speaker, different accents, watching a film or a television channel in English. In terms of their speaking skills, these instructors pointed out that they feel comfortable while speaking English in front of their students in the classroom. However, they do not feel confident about speaking English in front their colleagues in meetings, other language teachers in conferences and their administrators. In contrast, the teachers having moderate anxiety level feel comfortable while listening to native speakers and watching English television serials or films and have confidence about their fluency skills, yet they have difficulty in not only identifying but also using some idiomatic expressions and colloquial language in English and also have some problems with their pronunciation skills. In addition, the instructors whose anxiety level is low according to the quantitative data results stated that they are successful at academic listening skills and comprehending daily language and fast speech, whereas they have difficulty in understanding some accents while listening to English. When their speaking skills are considered, they indicated their confidence in fluency, pronunciation skills and using daily language, but their weakness in intonation skills and pronunciation of less frequent words in English.

Thirdly, the instructors talked about their experience of foreign language listening and speaking anxiety in the interviews. Some situations which cause anxiety for the highly anxious instructors are talking or listening to a native speaker, watching English television programmes, listening to English songs and speaking English in conferences. The instructors having moderate level of anxiety also

indicated that they experience anxiety to some extent while communicating with native speakers in English. Even the ones whose anxiety level is low based on the questionnaire scores feel nervous while listening to an English speaker on the phone, talking to their administrators and listening to a text only once in a test.

Furthermore, the reasons for the EFL instructors' experience of foreign language listening or speaking anxiety while communicating with native speakers, in front of their administrators, teacher trainers or other language teachers in meetings or conferences were investigated through some questions in the interviews. The most common sources of their anxiety were related to their fear of negative evaluation, fear of making grammar and pronunciation mistakes, choice of vocabulary, personality (being shy, perfectionist etc.) and their weakness in fluency skills. On the contrary, their confidence stems from their living in an English-speaking country for a while, having a lot of opportunity to practice English with native speakers in their daily lives, having no fear of making mistakes and their personality (self-confident, outgoing etc.).

In addition, the EFL instructors commented on their teaching experience on their foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level. Most of them think that the length of teaching experience helps to decrease an EFL teacher's listening and speaking anxiety because they have an opportunity to improve their own skills through teaching the target language. However, if the instructor teaches low level of students, as one of the interviewees commented, it can depend on the teacher to develop his/her own English listening and speaking skills outside the classroom.

Moreover, the interviewees expressed their opinion about the effect of an EFL instructor's level of foreign language listening and speaking anxiety on their competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. Some of the instructors reported that there is a negative relationship between an instructor's foreign language listening and speaking anxiety and competency level in teaching these skills. To illustrate, if an EFL instructor experience listening or speaking anxiety, s/he might feel uncomfortable when his/her students ask some questions related to the listening texts in the lessons or become nervous when the students notice his/her grammar or pronunciation mistakes while speaking English in the classroom. Besides, the

instructor can skip the listening and speaking sections in the course book. For instance, if the instructor is not confident about his/her own word stress, intonation or pronunciation skills in English, s/he might have a tendency not to teach these parts in the lessons. On the other hand, according to some instructors, the teachers who feel comfortable about their listening and speaking skills can have competence in teaching these skills and let their students make some mistakes while speaking English, and these instructors also might not need to switch between the foreign language and their native language while speaking in the lessons. In contrast, some instructors in the interviews commented that foreign language listening and speaking anxiety can have a facilitating effect on the teachers' competency in teaching these skills. To illustrate, the ones who experience higher level of anxiety can understand their students' difficulties in learning listening and speaking skills; thus, they can encourage their learners in the lessons. In addition, these instructors can prepare the tasks before the listening and speaking lessons, and become more organized to motivate their students in the classroom.

Not only anxiety, but also the effect of other factors such as the EFL instructors' undergraduate departments, participation in graduate studies, in-service teacher training programs, teaching experience and the institution where they work on their competency in teaching listening and speaking skills were explored through the interviews. To begin with, some of the participants think that the instructors' competency levels change according to their undergraduate departments, and an ELT graduate, for example, are more competent in teaching some strategies or sub skills related to listening and speaking. In contrast, the other interviewees claimed that an EFL instructor's competency level does not change according to their undergraduate departments. In other words, they believe the importance of teaching experience and teacher training programs. All the participants in the interview also reported the positive effect of the length of teaching experience and participation in teacher training programs on the competency level of the instructors in terms of teaching listening and speaking skills. Furthermore, most of the instructors support the opinion that graduate studies help EFL teachers learn how to teach listening and speaking skills both in theory and practice. Lastly, all the interviewees stated that the

institution where they work affect their competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. For instance, if listening and speaking skills are emphasized in the curriculum and tested in the exams in the institution they work at, they think that they will become more competent in teaching these skills. Therefore, most of the instructors believe that the frequency of addressing listening and speaking skills in the lessons increase their competency in teaching these skills. However, some of the interviewees stated that if the curriculum of the institution where the instructors work does not emphasize listening and speaking skills and these skills are also not tested, it depends on the instructor whether to give importance to these skills in the lessons or not.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Overview of the Chapter

In this chapter, the summary and discussion of the data analysis results; and implications for the study and future research are presented. The first part displays a comparative discussion of the data analysis results collected through the questionnaire and interviews. Next, some implications and suggestions for EFL teacher education and training are presented in the second section. Finally, some implications for future research are discussed.

5.2. Summary of the Significant Results and Discussion

The results gathered through two data collection instruments are compared for discussion in the order of the research questions of this study (presented in Sections 1.3 and 3.2 before). Thus, the significant results of the EFL instructors' foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels, their perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills, and the effect of their frequency of addressing these skills in the lessons considering the curriculum of their institution on their perceived competency levels are discussed.

5.2.1. EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Listening and Speaking Anxiety Levels

5.2.1.1. EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Levels

As seen in Table 45 below, the comparative analysis of the questionnaire and interview displayed not only complementary but also contradictory results. To begin with, when the results of the foreign language listening anxiety scale are considered, it can be said that 150 EFL instructors working at preparatory schools of four universities in this study experience moderate level of foreign language listening anxiety. Therefore, this study can be similar to the research conducted by Bekleyen (2009), who explored foreign language listening anxiety levels of pre-service English

language teachers and found that the prospective EFL teachers studying at an ELT department of a university in Turkey had higher levels of foreign language listening anxiety.

Table 45 EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Listening Anxiety

ASPECT	QUESTIONNAIRE	INTERVIEWS
Situations Causing Higher Anxiety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - fear of missing important information when their mind drifts even a little bit while listening to English - trying to comprehend the meaning of some idioms and colloquial language in a listening text - having no background knowledge about the listening topic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - listening to native speakers of English - listening to authentic texts - watching Eng. films or TV serials - listening to Eng. songs - listening to an English speaker on the phone- listening to different accents
Situations Causing Lower Anxiety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - listening to native speakers of English - guessing the parts they miss in a listening text - not understanding every word of a native speaker of English 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - note-taking or inference skills (listening to academic texts like lectures) - getting the gist of a listening text - comprehending the listening texts in the course book they cover in the lessons
Reasons for Feeling Anxious	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - fear of negative evaluation - not having any opportunity to contact with native speakers
Reasons for Feeling Confident	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - English-speaking country experience - having an opportunity to contact with native speakers - having a lot of listening practice in his / her past education
The Effect of L2 Learning Contexts	Yes (Formal vs. Informal)	Yes (Formal vs. Informal)
The Effect of English-Speaking Country Experience	No	Yes
The Length of Stay in an English-Speaking Country	No	—
The Length of Teaching Experience	No	Yes (negative correlation)
The Effect of the Institution	No	—

According to the questionnaire results, the EFL teachers in this study do not have any worries over their *guessing strategies* while listening to English. Most of them do not feel nervous while guessing the parts they miss while listening to a text or they feel comfortable if they do not understand every word of a native speaker of English. This might show the EFL instructors' having strategic competence; that is, they can predict what will be expressed next or guess the meaning of unknown words by using both linguistic and non-linguistic clues. As Scarcella and Oxford (1992) stated, linguistic clues such as affixes, discourse markers and cohesive devices and non-linguistic clues such as body language, tone of voice and background noise all can aid them to comprehend a spoken context much better. This can be consistent with one of the findings of this study that majority of the EFL instructors reported themselves as competent in teaching how to identify discourse markers or cohesive devices in a listening text. This can also indicate their confidence in using these linguistic devices while they are listening to a spoken context outside the classroom. In addition, they can use non-linguistic clues such as body language or tone of voice while interpreting the message of a native speaker. Thus, as mentioned above, using some guessing strategies or employing some linguistic or non-linguistic clues can also be some of the factors that are helpful for most of the EFL instructors who feel confident while listening to native speakers of English.

According to the interview results, some of the instructors also stated that they feel comfortable about their note-taking, inference skills and getting the gist of a listening text, which are some examples of academic listening skills. They might have improved these skills during their undergraduate education at university, which will be discussed in detail in the following sections in this chapter. Lastly, some of the instructors do not have any difficulty in comprehending the listening texts in the course books they have been covering in the lessons. This might be due to the fact that most of the listening texts in the course books are not authentic or they are semi-authentic; thus, organized and clear enough for both foreign language learners and teachers to comprehend easily. Moreover, if the teachers have difficulty in comprehending more authentic and fast listening texts, they have a chance to check the tape script of the course book before the lessons.

On the contrary, some of the instructors in this study experience moderate level of *anxiety in understanding fast speech and native speakers* based on the factor analysis of the questionnaire. Although most of them feel confident while listening to native speakers of English as mentioned above, some of the EFL instructors having higher anxiety level feel nervous while listening to a native speaker of English face to face or on the phone according to the interview results. This might result from their not having enough opportunities to contact with native speakers of English in their professional or daily lives. Some of the teachers in the interviews reported that they do not have any chance to talk to native speakers of English at work because the number of native EFL teachers in their institutions is limited. Another reason might be related to their *fear of negative evaluation*. For instance, if an English instructor does not understand some parts of a native speaker's speech while listening, s/he might feel uncomfortable about asking for clarification or repetition because the instructor might feel that the native speaker of English can form negative judgments about him/her due to the fact that his/her English listening skills should be advanced as an English teacher. Similarly, Aydın (2008), in his study with 112 students studying at ELT department of Balıkesir University in Turkey, discovered that fear of negative evaluation is a strong source of foreign language anxiety. The findings of this study are also in line with other studies (Kitano, 2001; Price 1991) which identified the effect of fear of negative evaluation on foreign language anxiety.

Another situation causing a moderate level of foreign language listening anxiety for some EFL instructors is not being able to comprehend the meaning of some idioms or colloquial language in some spoken contexts. For instance, some of them feel anxious while listening to authentic texts, English songs or watching television programs without subtitles because most of these spoken contexts include some idiomatic expressions, daily language or slangs. The same results were reported in the study conducted by Eslami and Fatahi (2008), in which non-native Iranian EFL teachers reported that they perceived themselves as less efficient in watching English news and films without subtitles and also understanding English speakers' speech which involves idiomatic expressions. According to Engkent (1986), "changes start in the colloquial tongue and spread to other registers, gaining

acceptance when they become written forms” (p. 227). That is, new English words are created every day and informal language has been used in most of English advertisements, television programs, movies, newspapers and magazines recently. It may be really difficult to keep up to date with the current use of colloquial language in English for these instructors. Moreover, some of the teachers indicated in the interviews that they have difficulty in understanding different accents while listening to English. Aneiro (1989), in her study, for instance, identified a significant negative relationship between the amount of exposure to the target language and receiver apprehension. In a similar way, these instructors might not have had enough exposure to authentic listening texts which involve colloquial language, idiomatic expressions and even non-native English speakers with different accents during their past education.

Furthermore, the results showed that the instructors’ level of *anxiety in understanding the context and detailed information* was higher than the other three factors in the scale. The item analysis of the questionnaire, for instance, revealed that some EFL instructors in this study worry that they will miss important ideas if they let their mind drift even a little bit while listening to English. The same item also received one of the highest mean scores in one of the research studies which explored foreign language listening anxiety levels of student-teachers in Turkey (Bekleyen, 2009). Despite the fact that most of the instructors feel confident about identifying the main idea(s) of a listening text, some of them are concerned about the fact that they can miss detailed information if they lose their concentration while listening to English.

Lastly, some instructors indicated in the questionnaire and open-ended items that their not having background knowledge about the listening text leads to their feeling nervous while listening to English. As Long (1989) stated, world knowledge enables the listener to form expectations and also make inferences from the spoken context. According to cognitive scientists, world knowledge is organized around *schemata* that are “helpful in understanding input relating to commonplace situations because they fill in missing information” (Long, 1989, p. 33). As a result, if the

instructors do not have world knowledge about the listening topic, their schemata cannot be activated, which might yield to listening comprehension anxiety for them.

Factors that Affect Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Levels of the EFL Instructors

a. EFL Instructors' L2 Learning Contexts

First of all, one of the aims of this study was to explore whether the EFL instructors' level of foreign language listening anxiety changes according to their L2 learning contexts. The t-test results displayed that the foreign language listening anxiety level of the teachers significantly differs according to their L2 learning contexts (see Table 15). Namely, the listening anxiety level of the instructors who learned most of their English listening skills in an informal language learning context is lower than the ones who learned these skills in a formal context.

Similarly, the interview results supported the quantitative findings. The instructors having higher listening anxiety levels indicated that they learned most of their English communicative skills during their university education, whereas the interviewees who have lower listening anxiety levels stated that they improved most of their skills in an English-speaking country or at an early age such as at secondary school. The former instructors might have improved their listening skills such as note-taking, inference skills, identifying the gist or specific information in a listening text through some academic listening texts in the lessons at preparatory school or by means of listening to their lecturers and taking notes in their departmental courses at university. According to Anderson and Lynch (1988), if there is one way information transfer between the listener and speaker, it is called *non-reciprocal listening* such as listening to the radio or a lecture, whereas *reciprocal listening* occurs when the listener interacts with the speaker and needs to formulate an appropriate response (cited in Nunan, 1989). Hence, the latter instructors who learned most of their English communicative skills by living in an English-speaking country or contact with native speakers in their own country can be better at *reciprocal listening*. Consequently, they may feel more confident than their counterparts about their foreign language listening skills in conversational situations.

Lastly, learning English listening skills at an early age can also help some instructors feel comfortable. For example, one of the interviewees stated that she learned most of her communicative skills when she was at secondary school and her secondary school English teacher focused on listening skills frequently in the lessons. In Carroll's study (1967), the findings support the effect of starting foreign language study early on the language proficiency and the researcher also pointed out that "the simplest explanation of this finding is that the attainment of skill in a foreign language is a function of the amount of time spent in its study" (p. 136). To sum up, an EFL teacher's educational background might be quite effective for his/her feeling anxious or confident about his/her foreign language listening skills.

b. EFL Instructors' English Speaking Country Experience

Even though no relationship was found between the EFL instructors' foreign language listening anxiety level and their English-speaking country experience based on the questionnaire data analysis, some of the instructors pointed out the effect of target language country experience on their anxiety level in the open-ended items and the interviews. This is also consistent with the findings of Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Daley (2000) because in their study, they identified that foreign country experience can decrease foreign language anxiety and improve self-confidence. These teachers' confidence may emerge from their exposure to English almost every day in an English-speaking country. Aneiro (1989), for example, stated that the more an individual is exposed to the target language, the lower receiver apprehension s/he can experience. On the contrary, because English is regarded as a foreign language in Turkey, some EFL instructors who do not have any foreign country experience might not have enough opportunity to be exposed to English regularly in their daily lives; thus, they can feel less confident while listening to English in some situations mentioned above. These results are consistent with another study conducted by Cubillos, Chieffo and Fan (2008). The researchers investigated the impact of study abroad programs on the listening comprehension ability on the participants, and it was found that the learners have achieved higher

levels of confidence and self-perceived ability in their L2 listening comprehension skills after their foreign country experience.

c. EFL Instructors' Length of Teaching Experience

To begin with, the EFL instructors' foreign language listening anxiety level does not change according to their length of teaching experience statistically. However, the qualitative data results revealed that teaching experience helps some instructors improve their listening skills. To illustrate, they may develop their own listening skills through teaching some strategies or sub skills to their learners in the lessons such as identifying the gist, supporting details or key words in a listening text. Besides, the classroom can be the only place for some teachers that they have an opportunity to practice their listening skills almost every day while teaching these skills to their learners. Furthermore, in one of the research studies (Bekleyen, 2009), while pre-service EFL teachers were found to experience high levels of foreign language listening anxiety, the in-service EFL teachers in this study have lower listening anxiety levels. Hence, the findings of this study might play an important role in terms of indicating the effect of teaching experience on EFL teachers' foreign language listening anxiety levels.

d. Other Factors That Affect EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Levels

Apart from the factors mentioned above, there are some other factors that influence the EFL instructors' foreign language listening anxiety levels, which were also explored through qualitative data analysis. For instance, when the speech is too fast, long or not interesting, some instructors might feel nervous while listening to English. Scarcella and Oxford (1992) commented that when the topic is unfamiliar for the listener and the listening text is too difficult, then s/he can experience listening anxiety (cited in Vogely, 1998). Furthermore, fear of being criticized by his/her students might increase the level of listening anxiety of an EFL teacher in the classroom. For example, if the teacher does not check the tape script of the listening text before the lesson and misses some important points while listening to the text in

the classroom, s/he might feel nervous when his/her students ask some questions related to these parts because s/he can think that s/he should be a perfect model for his/her students as an English teacher.

5.2.1.2. EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Levels

Not only foreign language listening anxiety level of the EFL instructors, but also their foreign language speaking anxiety level was identified in this study. The quantitative data analysis showed that the instructors in this study, on average, experience moderate level of foreign language speaking anxiety. Furthermore, the t-test data analysis revealed that the instructors' foreign language speaking anxiety level is significantly higher than their listening anxiety level (see Table 18). This can result from the fact that speaking as a production skill might be more challenging for the non-native teachers than receptive skills such as listening, as for many foreign language learners. According to Horwitz (1996), speaking the target language publicly brings about much more anxiety than the other aspects of language learning and "even though language teachers are supposed to be high-level speakers of their target language, language learning is never complete, and most nonnative language teachers are likely to have uncomfortable moments speaking their target language" (p. 365). Similarly, Ewald (2007), Marcos-Llinas and Garau (2009) discovered that advanced language learners had higher foreign language anxiety levels compared to beginner or intermediate level of learners in their studies. Therefore, the teachers' having high proficiency in the target language may not necessarily mean that they have low-level of foreign language speaking anxiety.

Table 46 below summarizes all the quantitative and qualitative data results related to the EFL instructors' foreign language speaking anxiety in a comparative way. According to the factor analysis of the questionnaire, most of the instructors in this study do not criticize *their English speaking skills compared to other foreign language speakers*. This result is not in line with some studies conducted for foreign language learners. For instance, these studies (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Aydın 2001) revealed that self-comparison to others is a predictor of high foreign language anxiety. For example, the students who compare their foreign language speaking

skills to their peers or have competitive tendencies experience high levels of foreign language anxiety. However, the instructors in this study feel comfortable when speaking English with non-native speakers of English such as German or Italian people. This confidence might emerge from the fact that they are also non-native speakers of English; therefore, while talking to other non-native speakers, they might not be nervous about making grammar or pronunciation mistakes. As some instructors noted in the open-ended items, being aware of the fact that English is not their mother tongue, they might be comfortable about their mistakes and fluency skills while talking to other non-native speakers of English. In addition, some instructors stated in the interviews that they do not feel nervous while speaking English in front of their students in the classroom. This can be because of the fact that these instructors might feel superior to their learners assuming their speaking proficiency level is much higher than their students as English teachers.

Table 46 EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

ASPECT	QUESTIONNAIRE	INTERVIEWS
Situations Causing Higher Anxiety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - using some idioms and colloquial language while speaking English - speaking English in front of other language teachers (i.e. in conferences) - not being fluent enough as an English speaker 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - using some idioms or colloquial language appropriately - speaking English in front of their colleagues in meetings, other language teachers in conferences and their administrators - pronunciation and fluency skills - intonation - speaking English with native speakers of English
Situations Causing Lower Anxiety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - speaking English with <u>non-native</u> speakers of English - talking to native speakers of English - forgetting the things they know while speaking English 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - speaking English in front of their students - pronunciation and fluency skills
Reasons for Feeling Anxious	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - lack of vocabulary knowledge - fear of negative evaluation - fear of making mistakes (grammar and pronunciation) - not having any opportunity to contact with native speakers - assuming that an English teacher has no right to make any mistakes

Table 46 (continued)

Reasons for Feeling Confident	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - no fear of making mistakes - personality (self-confident, outgoing etc.) - having an opportunity to contact with native speakers of English - English-speaking country experience - having a lot of speaking practice in his / her past education - using some strategies to ask for clarification or repetition in conversations
The Effect of L2 Learning Contexts	No	Yes (Formal vs. Informal)
The Effect of English-Speaking Country Experience	No	Yes
The Length of Stay in an English-Speaking Country	Yes (small negative correlation)	—
The Length of Teaching Experience	No	Yes (negative correlation)
The Effect of the Institution	No	—

In addition, the majority of the teachers in this study do not forget the things they know while speaking English because of anxiety. In one of the studies of Horwitz et al. (1986), most of the foreign language learners indicated that they know a certain grammar point or vocabulary, but forget it while speaking the target language. Nevertheless, in this study, the EFL teachers reported low anxiety level related to this matter. This might be the indicator of the EFL instructors' advanced level of structure and vocabulary knowledge in English, which was also stated in the open-ended items by some participants in this study. In other words, they know *what* to say while speaking English due to their high linguistic competence in the target language.

Based upon the questionnaire results, another situation that causes lower anxiety for the instructors is speaking English with native speakers of English. Especially the participants who experience lower level of foreign language speaking

anxiety might not be frightened of making grammar or pronunciation mistakes while talking to native speakers of English. This confidence might be related to their personality. For instance, a self-confident or an outgoing instructor might not have any concerns about other people's criticizing his/her pronunciation or fluency skills in English, which was also indicated in the open-ended items and the interviews by some instructors in this study. In terms of personality, Tsui (1996), for example, observed that the learners who have high self-confidence and are willing to take risks do not have any fear of making mistakes and initiating conversations in the target language. Similarly, the instructors' personality characteristics in this study may be one of the factors that affect the speaking anxiety levels of them.

In contrast, some of the instructors, according to the factor analysis results of the questionnaire, have *fear of making mistakes* and *worry over their fluency skills* while speaking English. Even though their grammar and vocabulary knowledge is advanced, some of them are nervous about making grammar and pronunciation mistakes while speaking English with native speakers, their administrators, in front of teacher trainers, other language teachers in conferences or meetings. Similarly, Wood (1999) investigated the foreign language anxiety levels of pre-service English language teachers in the University of North Carolina, and most of the participants reported that speaking with other language teachers and native speakers cause them to feel nervous while using the target language. In addition, the study of Kunt and Tm (2010) is consistent with the findings of this study, in which the EFL pre-service teachers reported their fear of making mistakes while speaking English.

Moreover, talking in front of other speakers of English, especially the ones who are superior to them might result from their *fear of negative evaluation*. That is to say, as they commented in the interviews and open-ended items, these instructors assume that an English teacher has no right to make any mistakes. If they make any grammar or pronunciation mistakes while speaking English, they are afraid of being criticized by the individuals mentioned above. As a result, because they are concerned about other people's evaluations of their speaking skills in English, they may tend to refrain from these unfavorable situations. To illustrate, these teachers may rarely participate in discussions in meetings and conferences or initiate

conversations with native speakers of English. In a similar way, foreign language students also experience anxiety and fear of negative evaluation while speaking English in front of their peers, communicating with native speakers and try to avoid interacting with them in the target language (Woodrow, 2006).

Furthermore, the quantitative data revealed that some instructors think they are not fluent enough as English speakers and some of them indicated in the open-ended items that they would like to speak English like native speakers. Reves and Medgyes (1994) conducted a survey of native and non-native EFL teachers and their findings are in line with the results of this study that non-native EFL teachers reported their problems with fluency aspect of the target language. One of the reasons may be related to these instructors' perfectionism, which is a kind of personality construct. Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) commented that perfectionists always want to speak without grammar or pronunciation mistakes and even as fluently as a native speaker, which is a source of foreign language anxiety. Besides, in the study conducted by Gregersen and Horwitz (2002), eight prospective teachers in the English Education program at the Universidad de Atacama were required to comment on their oral performance on their videotaped interviews. The findings showed that the anxious participants overreacted to their mistakes and had fear of negative evaluation of their peers although they had high language proficiency. On the other hand, the non-anxious interviewees did not seem bothered by their mistakes and were satisfied with their oral performance. The findings are consistent with the instructors having higher foreign language speaking anxiety in this study as they have great concern over the opinions of others and expect higher performance when they speak English every time, which is an indicator of their perfectionist tendencies.

Another situation that causes higher levels of foreign language speaking anxiety for some EFL teachers in this study is using some idiomatic expressions or colloquial language in their speech. This might be due to their not having any chance to practice the colloquial language with other English speakers in their own country. For instance, they might be using a more formal language while speaking English most of the time in their professional or academic lives. Another reason might be related to the teachers' frequency of addressing colloquial language in the lessons.

Apart from the daily language sections in the course books, some of the teachers may not need to teach extra current expressions in colloquial language in English to their learners or use some idiomatic expressions in their speech in the classroom if these vocabulary items are not tested in the examinations of their institutions frequently. Therefore, teaching experience can also influence these instructors' perceived weakness in using daily language while speaking the target language.

Factors that Affect Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Levels of the EFL Instructors

a. EFL Instructors' L2 Learning Contexts

Based upon the quantitative data analysis results, the EFL instructors' foreign language speaking anxiety level does not change according to their L2 learning contexts. This can be due to the fact that improving one's foreign language speaking skills might depend on the individual whether s/he learned L2 in a formal or an informal language learning context. On the other hand, the interview data revealed some valuable findings related to the effect of the instructors' L2 learning contexts on their foreign language speaking anxiety level. Some of the instructors, for example, stated that they were not able to develop their speaking skills in the target language during their secondary or high school education as English was being taught through the Grammar-Translation Method or Audio-Lingual Method in the lessons. For instance, some of the interviewees reported that their English teachers used to focus on reading comprehension skills, grammar and vocabulary more frequently in the lessons when they were at high school because their teachers aimed to prepare them for the university entrance exam which included grammar, vocabulary and reading skills. Hence, teaching speaking skills might have been time-consuming for their English teachers and neglected most of the time in their previous English lessons. In addition, speaking activities might have consisted of only oral drills and their English teachers could have corrected every mistake they made whenever they tried to speak English in the lessons in their past education. The findings are consistent with the study of Çakar (2009), in which she explored that past language learning experiences had an effect on having high or low speaking

anxiety levels. Besides, as MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) suggested, one of the sources of foreign language anxiety is the negative foreign language classroom experiences of the language learners and “as negative experiences persist, foreign language anxiety may become a regular occurrence” (p.110).

However, some of the instructors had a chance to improve their English speaking skills in the preparatory schools of universities or during their undergraduate education, as they stated in the interviews. Nonetheless, some of the instructors in the study still have some problems with their pronunciation and fluency skills in English because they indicated in the interviews that they did not take any courses aimed at improving their pronunciation or fluency skills at university. As a result, some of them also reported their difficulty in teaching pronunciation of some words or intonation patterns accurately to their learners. Thus, it can be said that the instructors’ previous education has an effect on not only their foreign language speaking anxiety levels but also teaching competencies.

On the contrary, some EFL instructors who have lower level of speaking anxiety pointed out that they learned most of their English speaking skills at an early age such as at secondary school and their English teacher at school gave importance to developing their speaking skills in the lessons and required them actively to participate in speaking activities. According to Huang (2004), starting to learn a foreign language at an early age brings about lower level of speaking anxiety. Similarly, this study somehow revealed the effect of learning a foreign language at an early age and also the effect of the instructors’ previous English teachers’ attitude to teaching speaking skills on their speaking anxiety levels.

In addition, in terms of pronunciation and fluency skills or talking to native speakers of English, the instructors who learned most of their speaking skills in an informal context such as living in an English- speaking country or through contact with native speakers of English in their own country have more confidence than their counterparts according to the qualitative data results. For instance, Wood (1999) discovered in his case study that frequent contact with native speakers of English in the community leads to the low levels of foreign language anxiety among pre-service language teachers. Krashen (1976) also claimed that “informal and formal

environments contribute to different aspects of second language competence; the former affecting *acquired* competence and the latter affecting *learned* competence” (p. 157). To sum up, learning the target language in an informal context or at an early age can be more effective for improving the second language speaking proficiency level and can decrease foreign language speaking anxiety level according to the findings of this study.

b. EFL Instructors’ English-Speaking Country Experience

When the effect of English-speaking country experience on the instructors’ foreign language speaking anxiety level is considered, no significant difference was found statistically by means of the quantitative data. Because few non-native EFL teachers in Turkey have an opportunity to improve their English speaking skills in a target language community, most of them might have developed their oral skills at school, university or through contact with some native speakers of English in their own country.

Nevertheless, the qualitative data analysis displayed that the instructors who have stayed in an English-speaking country for a while experience less speaking anxiety than their counterparts. This finding is similar to the studies of Aida (1994), Matsuda and Gobel (2004); in which the researchers found that visiting foreign countries is one of the factors that affect the anxiety levels of language learners. That is, target language country experience results in the learners’ having lower foreign language anxiety levels. Moreover, in spite of having difficulty in communicating in English when they were abroad at first, some of the instructors commented that their foreign language speaking anxiety level is lower now as they realized that speaking English fluently was more important than forming accurate sentences in a target language community.

Besides, a small negative correlation was identified statistically between the instructors’ length of stay in an English-speaking country and their foreign language speaking anxiety level. The longer an instructor stayed abroad, the more s/he might have improved his/her communicative competence, which might yield to feeling more confident about his/her English speaking skills. For instance, these instructors

might have developed their sociolinguistic and intercultural competence due to their exposure to the target culture when they were abroad and now they can know how to communicate appropriately taking the cultural and non-verbal communication aspects of the target language into account. Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen and Hubbard (2006) suggested that even short-term study abroad programs have a positive impact on the development of cross-cultural sensitivity of language learners. Finally, in contrast to the findings of this study, Matsuda and Gobel (2004), in their research study, did not identify any relationship between the length of foreign language country experience and the foreign language anxiety level, yet the results suggested that overseas experience significantly affects self-confidence in speaking English.

c. EFL Instructors' Length of Teaching Experience

Another aim of this study was to explore the effect of length of teaching experience on the EFL instructors' foreign language speaking anxiety level. The quantitative data analysis did not yield to any significant results, yet the qualitative data revealed a negative relationship between the instructors' foreign language speaking anxiety level and their years of teaching experience. Kunt and Tüm (2010), for instance, identified high levels of foreign language anxiety especially related to speaking English for non-native pre-service teachers studying in ELT department in North Cyprus. As the foreign language speaking anxiety level of the in-service EFL teachers in this study was found to be lower than the prospective teachers mentioned in the previous study, it can be said that teaching experience may contribute to the non-native EFL teachers' self-confidence while speaking English. Namely, teaching English through English in the lessons might help the teachers feel more confident while speaking the target language. To illustrate, while teaching management of interaction skills to their learners during speaking tasks in the lessons, they might improve their own skills such as how to begin a conversation or how to interrupt someone in a polite way in English. Lastly, the instructors may improve their own pronunciation skills while teaching the pronunciation of some words in the course book to their students in the lessons. Nevertheless, again the instructors' frequency of

addressing these skills in the classroom can play a big role in practicing speaking skills with their students. In this sense, the curriculum of the institution might affect both the learners' and the teachers' developing their speaking skills in a positive or negative way.

d. Other Factors That Affect EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Levels

Other factors that affect the non-native EFL instructors' foreign language speaking anxiety levels were also discovered by means of qualitative data collection instruments. The students, for example, are one of the factors that influence the teachers' speaking anxiety level. As some of the instructors mentioned in the interviews, they have fear of being criticized by their students in the classroom. To illustrate, during a speaking task in the lesson, the students may ask about how to say some expressions in English. When the teacher does not know these expressions in the target language or mispronounce some words in the lesson, s/he might be embarrassed in front of his/her students. Another factor might be related to the proficiency level of the students. Some of the instructors in the interviews, for instance, commented that if the proficiency level of the learners is low, the teacher might have to explain some points in their native language in the lessons. Therefore, the less the instructor uses English in the lessons, the rustier his/her English may become since the classroom might be the only environment for the teacher that s/he can practice his/her own English speaking skills.

In this study, the findings also displayed that there was a strong positive correlation between the EFL instructors' level of foreign language listening and speaking anxiety. In this sense, if an instructor's foreign language listening anxiety is low, his/her speaking anxiety level is also low in the target language or vice versa. For instance, the quantitative results showed that most of the EFL instructors do not feel nervous while not only listening but also talking to native speakers of English. On the other hand, the instructors having higher level of anxiety feel nervous about not only comprehending the speech of a native speaker but also not being understood by them, as some of them indicated in the interviews. According to Gregersen and

Horwitz (2002, p.562), *communication apprehension* refers to an individual's "inability to express oneself fully or to understand what another person says" and this can cause frustration for the individual as this prospect may lead to communication breakdown in the target language. Similarly, these instructors may experience communication apprehension while interacting with native speakers of English in this study. In addition, when the instructors do not have any background knowledge about the topic being discussed, they can have difficulty in comprehending the subject and then talking about it in English. Furthermore, according to the quantitative data analysis results, some of the instructors have difficulty in comprehending the meaning of some idioms and colloquial language in a listening text. Accordingly, these instructors can also have weakness in using some idioms and daily language in their speech in English. To sum up, the foreign language anxiety related to the listening comprehension could be debilitating while communicating in the target language because before forming a response, the speaker must understand the message first (Vogely, 1998). Therefore, foreign language speaking anxiety might also stem from listening comprehension anxiety.

5.2.2. EFL Instructors' Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening and Speaking Skills

5.2.2.1. EFL Instructors' Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening Skills

First of all, the quantitative data analysis revealed that the EFL instructors in this study generally perceive themselves as competent in teaching listening skills. Besides, the instructors perceive themselves as slightly more competent in teaching *top-down skills* than *bottom-up skills* in listening.

When the highest mean scores are considered, it can be said that the participant instructors' perceived competency is quite high in terms of teaching how to identify the gist and specific information in a listening text (see Table 47 below). This can result from the fact that these top-down skills are the most commonly emphasized skills in most of the course books of the preparatory schools of the universities in this study. As the participant institutions consider the course book content as their syllabus, the instructors can perceive themselves as more competent

if they need to teach these skills more frequently in the lessons. Besides, the instructors might consider the top-down strategies as “more immediate strategies needed for comprehension” for their learners and as they focus on these skills more often in the lessons, their competency level may increase (Vogely, 1995, p. 53).

Table 47 EFL Instructors’ Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening Skills

ASPECT	QUESTIONNAIRE	INTERVIEWS
Higher-Competency	- teaching how to recognize organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in a listening text - teaching how to identify specific information in a listening text - teaching how to identify key words or phrases to comprehend a listening text -teaching how to identify the gist of the listening text without necessarily understanding every word	_____
Lower-Competency	- teaching how to recognize stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in a listening text - teaching how to distinguish minimal pairs accurately in a listening text - teaching how to distinguish registers of speech (formal vs. informal)	_____
The Effect of the Institution	No	Yes
The Effect of Their Undergraduate Departments	No	Yes / No
The Effect of Their Graduate Studies	No	Yes
The Effect of Their Participation in In-service Teacher Training Programs	No	Yes
The Length of Teaching Experience	No	Yes (positive correlation)
The Relationship between Their Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Level & Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening Skills	Yes (moderate negative correlation)	Yes (negative or positive correlation)

Furthermore, the instructors reported that they are also competent in bottom-up strategy training such as teaching how to identify key words or phrases and how to recognize organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in a listening text. These linguistic clues can enable a language learner to follow not only a conversational speech but also academic texts such as lectures easily and identify the meaning of the spoken context more effectively. Richards (1983) stated that L2 listening sometimes requires ‘bottom-up processing’, but it is necessary to use ‘top-down strategies’ so as to infer meanings from contextual clues and world knowledge at times (cited in Oxford, 1993). Hence, if the instructors feel efficient in teaching these listening skills and strategies, this may also show their knowledge of the importance of improving their learners’ not only top-down but also bottom-up listening skills in the target language.

On the other hand, in terms of top-down skills, the item analysis displayed that the EFL instructors in this study perceive themselves as less competent in teaching how to distinguish registers of speech (formal or informal) accurately in a spoken context compared to the other items in the questionnaire. The instructors might have the knowledge of the features of a formal or informal spoken discourse, yet they might not need to draw the attention of their students on this skill while teaching listening skills in the lessons taking the curriculum of their institution into account. Engkent (1986), for instance, pointed out that register is often neglected in language teaching. This study also revealed that the instructors *occasionally* address how to distinguish registers of speech during listening tasks in the lessons. Therefore, they can perceive themselves as less competent in teaching this skill owing to their limited experience. Apart from this, two items related to teaching bottom-up skills in listening received the lowest mean scores compared to the other items in the scale. One of them is related to teaching how to distinguish phonemes like minimal pairs accurately and the other one is about teaching how to recognize stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in a listening text. The curriculum of the institutions where the instructors work might play a big role in the teachers’ perceived competency in teaching these skills. Some preparatory schools of the universities in this study, for instance, might not test these bottom-up listening skills in their

examinations. Hence, these instructors might feel less competent in teaching these phonetic features of the target language to their learners, which will be discussed in detail in the next sections of this chapter.

5.2.2.2. EFL Instructors' Perceived Competency in Teaching Speaking Skills

Firstly, all the instructors in this study perceive themselves as competent in teaching not only listening but also speaking skills in the target language according to the quantitative data analysis results. However, t-test results (see Table 26) revealed that the instructors significantly perceive themselves as less competent in teaching speaking skills than listening skills in this study. This can result from the fact that teaching productive skills like speaking might be more challenging for the teachers than receptive skills like listening in English, as Hinkel (2006) indicates that the development of L2 oral skills involves cognitively demanding sub skills such as “fluency, accuracy, and a sufficient lexicogrammatical repertoire for meaningful communication to take place” (p. 115). Hence, trying to improve these cognitive skills of the language learners and teach them how to integrate all of these skills while speaking can be challenging for the EFL instructors.

Furthermore, in this study, the EFL teachers generally perceive themselves as competent in teaching *phonological components* in speaking, yet their self-reported competency level is higher in terms of teaching *organization of speech or management of interaction skills* when they focus on speaking skills in the lessons. To illustrate, they have higher competency in teaching how to use organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in speech (see Table 48). Not only for teaching listening skills but also speaking skills in English, it can be concluded that the instructors in this study perceive themselves as highly competent in developing their learners' discourse competence. In this sense, learning how to use these markers or linkers can help their students organize their speech in a more coherent and cohesive way, which leads to their development of effective speaking skills in the target language.

Table 48 EFL Teachers' Perceived Competency in Teaching Speaking Skills

ASPECT	QUESTIONNAIRE	INTERVIEWS
Higher-Competency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - teaching how to use organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in speech - teaching how to ask for repetition or clarification in conversations or discussions - teaching how to use communicative strategies in speech (self-correct one's own expression or when one forgets an English word, finding an alternative way such as saying its synonym etc.) 	_____
Less-Competency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - teaching how to use stress patterns of words accurately in speech - teaching how to use stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in speech - teaching how to use linking between words in speech in order to speak fluently - teaching how to use colloquial language, idiomatic expressions or phrases in speech 	_____
The Effect of the Institution	No	Yes
The Effect of Their Undergraduate Departments	No	Yes / No
The Effect of Their Graduate Studies	No	Yes
The Effect of Their Participation in In-service Teacher Training Programs	No	Yes
The Length of Teaching Experience	No	Yes (positive correlation)
The Relationship between Their Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety & Perceived Competency in Teaching Speaking Skills	Yes (moderate negative correlation)	Yes (negative or positive correlation)

Moreover, the instructors reported that they are highly efficient in improving their learners' strategic competence in speaking. To illustrate, they perceive themselves as competent in teaching how to ask for clarification or

repetition in conversations or discussions. In order to respond appropriately in interactive spoken contexts, comprehending the speech of the other individual is vital for the speaker. Dörnyei and Scott (1995) suggest using these communicative strategies in order to solve conflicts and prevent breakdowns while interacting in the target language (cited in Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). If the teachers perceive themselves as competent in teaching this speaking skill, their students can also feel more comfortable in the classroom and tend to ask for repetition or clarification so as to keep the conversation going on in English in some role-play or discussion activities. In addition, these non-native EFL instructors can be efficient in teaching their learners that making mistakes, forgetting an English word or expression is quite normal for them as foreign language learners. Therefore, they can teach their learners how to self-correct their own expression, how to find an alternative way such as circumlocution when they forget an English word or phrase. Faerch and Kasper (1983, cited in Si-Qing, 1990) pointed out that if foreign language learners know how to use communicative strategies, they can deal with the communicative problems stemmed from their inadequacies in the target language. To illustrate, some instructors in the interviews mentioned that they allow their students to make mistakes during some speaking activities such as discussion or role-plays. However, based on the questionnaire results, most of them teach some communicative strategies to their students, which are really helpful for foreign language learners. In conclusion, these instructors can be aware of the importance of communicative strategies as being non-native speakers of English themselves; hence, they can address these skills more frequently in the lessons, which can lead to their high efficacy in teaching these speaking skills.

The instructors, on the other hand, consider themselves as less competent in teaching pronunciation and fluency skills. For instance, when compared to the other items in the scale, the teachers in this study reported lower competency in teaching how to use stress patterns of words and how to use stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in speech. Furthermore, they reported that they are less competent in teaching how to use linking between words in speech in order to speak fluently. Another skill that can help English speakers' fluency is using colloquial

language, idiomatic expressions and phrases in conversational speech. However, the instructors indicated that they are less efficient in teaching this speaking skill compared to the other items in the questionnaire.

One of the reasons might be that some instructors can have inadequate knowledge about phonetic features of the target language owing to lack of training during their previous education. To illustrate, some of the teachers in the interviews mentioned that they could not find any chance to improve their pronunciation or fluency skills and also they did not learn how to teach these phonetic features to the students during their undergraduate education at university. Moreover, they can feel less efficient in teaching how to use daily language in speech due to the fact that they might themselves have difficulty in using colloquial language and idiomatic expressions in their own speech. Another reason might be related to the curriculum of their institution which does not emphasize pronunciation or fluency skills in the target language.

Factors that Affect the EFL Instructors' Perceived Competency in Teaching Listening and Speaking Skills

a. EFL Instructors' Undergraduate Departments

The effect of the EFL instructors' undergraduate departments on their self-reported competency in teaching listening and speaking skills was also investigated in this study. The ANOVA test results did not show any difference among the undergraduate departments of the instructors with regard to their perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills (see chapter 4). In a similar way, some of the instructors in the interviews indicated that the EFL teachers' undergraduate departments do not influence their competency level in teaching listening and speaking skills. Majority of the instructors working at preparatory schools of universities, for example, have pedagogical training if they are not graduates of ELT departments. Besides, these interviewees supported their view that as long as the graduates of other departments take in-service teacher training courses offered by the institution they work at or outside their institution on a voluntary

basis, they can be more competent in teaching listening and speaking skills in English. However, these arguments are not consistent with the study of Ortaköylüoğlu (2004) since she identified that ELT graduates felt better than English Language and Literature graduates with a teaching certificate in terms of developing appropriate classroom activities, especially, for listening and speaking skills for their students.

Accordingly, during the interviews, some instructors reported that the instructors graduating from ELT departments of universities are more equipped with some techniques, strategies and also a lot more knowledgeable about the methods in English language teaching. To illustrate, a Linguistic department graduate might be better at phonology, morphology or semantics in the target language, an American or English Language and Literature graduate can have knowledge of the target culture and an instructor whose undergraduate department is translation and interpretation may be better at spontaneous listening and speaking skills. However, having the knowledge of a subject and how to teach it can be completely different issues from each other. During their undergraduate education, most of the instructors graduating from ELT departments must have taken some methodology, school experience or practice teaching courses that helped them gain self confidence and competence in teaching listening and speaking skills. Thus, they can be more competent in teaching some strategies and sub skills of listening and speaking skills in the target language than the instructors who are the graduates of other departments. The results of this study are parallel to the findings of Keskil (1999), who explored that ELT graduates are a lot more conscious about which methodology and teaching strategies to employ while teaching English as a foreign language than Linguistics graduates in Turkey.

b. EFL Instructors' Participation in In-Service Teacher Training Programs and Graduate Studies

All the instructors in the interviews pointed out the importance of in-service teacher training programs for their competency in teaching listening and speaking skills, whereas the quantitative data analysis did not reveal any significant results. According to the demographic data analysis results, the instructors working at Atılım

University and Başkent University reported that their institutions provided all their instructors with in-service teacher training, whereas some of the instructors in four universities in the study indicated that they preferred to participate in some certificate or diploma based teacher training programs voluntarily outside their institutions. In addition, the teachers stated that if the instructor is eager to improve his/her teaching skills, s/he can look for opportunities to participate in teacher training programs, workshops, seminars or conferences to keep up to date with the recent teaching techniques related to listening and speaking skills. Similarly, Day (1999) claimed that in-service training programs enable the teachers to “brush up” their previous knowledge and “keep track on with the recent developments in the field of ELT (as cited in Gültekin 2007, p. 27).

In addition, most of the instructors think that these teacher training programs are quite beneficial in practice. In other words, teacher training programs help them learn how to integrate theory and practice in the classroom and prepare some meaningful listening and speaking tasks considering their learners’ needs. The findings of Chacon’s research (2005) are in line with the instructors’ comments in this study because the teachers reported that the more in-service teacher training they get, the higher efficacy they have in terms of designing instructional strategies which help them engage their students in learning English.

The same view was also supported by most of the interviewees who participated in graduate studies, especially in ELT or TEFL. They reported in the interviews that studying the theory or teaching approach enabled them to teach foreign language listening and speaking skills to their learners in a more conscious way. For instance, they know how to integrate theory and practice and which sub skills and strategies to focus on in order to reach the objectives of the listening and speaking lessons. Nevertheless, based on the quantitative data, the instructors’ perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills does not change according to their participation in graduate studies in this study.

c. EFL Instructors' Length of Teaching Experience

In terms of the effect of the instructors' length of teaching experience on their competency level in teaching listening and speaking skills, the quantitative data did not yield any significant results. This can result from the fact that unless instructors develop their teaching listening and speaking skills by means of participating in some training programs, graduate studies, workshops or conferences, their perceived competency in teaching these skills might not develop due to their length of teaching experience. Unlike the results of this study, Ghaith and Shaaban's findings (1999) revealed that novice teachers perceive themselves as less effective in terms of teaching than experienced teachers. Similarly, majority of the instructors in the interviews and some of them through open-ended items in this study indicated the importance of teaching experience in their perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. For instance, teaching experience can help them understand their students' needs easily and predict what kind of problems they can face during listening and speaking tasks in the lessons. In contrast to the arguments of most of the interviewees in this study, Şallı-Çopur (2008) identified that novice EFL teachers had higher perceived competency in developing students' language skills and employing variable strategies than experienced ones. However, more experienced teachers reported higher competency in using the target language in her study.

d. Other Factors That Affect EFL Instructors' Perceived Competency

The qualitative data analysis also helped to reveal some other factors that influence the EFL instructors' perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. One of them is the instructor's English-speaking country experience. Some participants believe that if the instructor has lived in an English-speaking country for a while, s/he might have more confidence in his/her own English listening and speaking skills. This might result in the teacher's having higher competency in teaching these skills.

Another reason is related to lack of technological equipment such as projectors or computers in the classrooms. Some of the instructors indicated in the

interviews that they need computers and projectors in each classroom to teach listening and speaking skills more effectively in the lessons. Not having technological equipment in the classrooms might affect the teachers' competency in teaching these skills to their learners. This can also bring about the students' lack of motivation and enthusiasm in learning listening and speaking skills.

5.2.2.3. The Effect of EFL Instructors' Foreign Language Listening and Speaking Anxiety on Their Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills

One of the purposes of this study was to discover if there is a relationship between the instructors' foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels and their self-reported competency in teaching these skills to their learners. The quantitative data analysis showed that there was a moderate level of negative correlation between these two factors (see chapter 4). This means that the less foreign language listening and speaking anxiety an EFL instructor experiences, the more competent s/he perceives himself/herself in teaching listening and speaking skills or vice versa. Some of the instructors supported this view during the interviews. For instance, if the instructor feels confident in identifying the gist, specific information or note-taking skills in listening, s/he can be more comfortable while teaching these skills. Next, the instructors having lower foreign language speaking anxiety indicated that they give more importance to fluency skills rather than accuracy while teaching speaking skills in the lessons. On the other hand, when some instructors need to teach word stress or intonation patterns of sentences to their learners, they stated that they feel nervous because they have difficulty in identifying or using these patterns accurately in the target language as non-native speakers of English themselves. These findings can be supported by the study which discovered the effect of non-native EFL teachers' perceived proficiency in listening and speaking skills on their self-efficacy in using effective instructional strategies in the classroom (Eslami & Fatahi, 2008).

Furthermore, according to the item analysis results, some instructors have higher anxiety in not only identifying but also using colloquial language and

idiomatic expressions in English. In terms of teaching listening and speaking skills in the target language, for instance, this anxiety can be debilitating for the instructor while teaching how to recognize and use daily language and some idiomatic phrases to their students.

In addition, the instructors having higher anxiety in their pronunciation or fluency skills in English might feel less competent in teaching these skills in the lessons and avoid improving the pronunciation or fluency skills of his/her students during speaking activities in the classroom. Therefore, the instructor's foreign language anxiety can restrain the teacher to present good pronunciation and fluency skills in the target language in the classroom and become a competent role model for his/her students while learning the foreign language. As Şallı-Çopur (2008) suggested, a language teacher's competence in language skills is prerequisite to his/her competence in developing these skills in his/her learners.

Moreover, some instructors in this study indicated in the interviews that the teachers who have higher foreign language listening and speaking anxiety might have a tendency to skip some listening and speaking tasks in the course books or these teachers can switch to their native language more frequently while speaking in the lessons. As Horwitz (1996) stated, teachers having higher levels of foreign language anxiety may use the target language less frequently in the classroom and may "tend toward linguistic interactions that are predictable and more easily controlled" (p.366). Consequently, this can also affect their learners' development of communicative competence in listening and speaking skills.

On the other hand, some of the instructors in the interviews claimed that EFL teachers' having higher foreign language listening and speaking anxiety can be facilitating for their perceived competency in teaching these skills. To illustrate, an instructor who experiences higher foreign language listening anxiety might need to read the tape script of the listening text before the lessons; thus, s/he might feel more prepared and comfortable while dealing with the students' questions in the lessons. As some of the instructors pointed out in this study, making some preparation for listening and speaking tasks before the lessons increases their confidence and perceived competency in teaching these skills.

In addition, as McKeachie (1978) stated, having a sympathetic and understanding attitude towards the students' fears and problems is one of the important characteristics of an instructor. Similarly, some instructors in this study indicated in the interviews that teachers having higher foreign language speaking anxiety in English might understand their learners' needs more easily and help them overcome their anxiety while speaking English as they experience the same kind of anxiety in the target language. For instance, these instructors can teach their learners how to self-correct their own speech or how to find an alternative way when they forget an English word while speaking, which are some examples of communication strategies that most of the instructors in this study perceived themselves as competent in teaching as mentioned above.

5.2.3. The Effect of the Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening and Speaking Skills in the Lessons on Their Perceived Competency Levels

5.2.3.1. EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills

First of all, when all the participant instructors and the institutions in this study are taken into account, it can be said that the listening skills listed in the questionnaire are *sometimes* addressed in the lessons by the teachers considering the curriculum of their institutions according to the quantitative data results. Besides, they address *bottom-up skills* less than *top-down skills* during the listening tasks in the lessons based on the questionnaire. To illustrate, in terms of bottom-up listening skills, some of the instructors reported that they *seldom* teach how to distinguish phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in a listening text and also some of them indicated that they *rarely* teach how to recognize stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in a listening text in the lessons (see Table 49). According to Wilson (2003), "perhaps one of the reasons for the comparative neglect of bottom-up processing is that there is a lack of faith in the traditional methods of teaching it" (p. 336). With the development of communicative approach to teaching listening skills, teachers have tended to address top-down listening strategies more in the classrooms (Wilson, 2003). In a similar way, the textbooks which the instructors cover in the lessons are based on communicative language teaching in this study. However, in

addition to top-down skills, bottom-up listening strategies are also emphasized in these course books. Yet, the teachers' addressing these skills less frequently in the lessons may result from the fact that these bottom-up listening skills are not tested in the examinations of the participant institutions.

Table 49 EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills

ASPECT	QUESTIONNAIRE	INTERVIEWS
Frequently Emphasized Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - teaching how to identify the gist of the listening text - teaching how to recognize organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in a listening text - teaching how to identify specific information 	_____
Less Frequently Emphasized Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - teaching how to distinguish phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in a listening text - teaching how to recognize stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in a listening text 	_____
The Effect of the Institution	Yes	Yes
The Relationship between Their Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills & Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills	Yes (small positive correlation)	Yes (positive correlation)

Most of the instructors in this study, on the other hand, *usually* teach how to recognize organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in a listening text in the lessons, which is an example of a bottom-up strategy in listening. In addition, they frequently address how to identify the gist of the listening text and how to identify specific information, which are some top-down skills in listening. The curriculum and the content of the course books of the preparatory schools of the institutions can play a big role in the teachers' frequency of addressing these listening skills in the classroom.

When the descriptive statistics of the EFL instructors' frequency of addressing listening skills in the lessons according to each institution is considered,

the instructors working at all institutions in this study *sometimes* address the listening skills mentioned in the questionnaire considering the curriculum of the preparatory schools, except Gazi University in which these skills are *usually* emphasized in the lessons by the instructors. Based upon the ANOVA results, the mean score for Atılım University was significantly lower than Gazi University and Yıldız Teknik University. Moreover, Gazi University differed significantly from Başkent University. These results can result from the fact that listening skills are not tested in their examinations even if their course books include this receptive skill as some instructors working at Başkent University stated in the interview phase of the study. In addition, the instructors in Atılım University reported that listening skills are only tested in their midterm exams and most of these listening tests include true/false items. “Despite the fact that teachers may personally prefer to teach certain material in a specific way, if they find that they have to use a specified test they may find ‘teaching to the test’ almost unavoidable” (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 33). This argument can be supported by the findings of this study because the instructors in these institutions indicated that they need to focus on grammar, vocabulary and reading skills more frequently in the lessons and assuming that teaching listening skills are waste of time, some of the teachers preferred to skip the listening parts in their course books even if they acknowledge the importance of teaching these skills to their learners. On the contrary, the mean scores of both Yıldız Teknik University and Gazi University are higher than the other private universities in terms of frequency of addressing listening skills in the lessons. The main reason might be related to the curriculum of these institutions. According to Taylor (2005, p.154), “positive washback results “when a testing procedure encourages ‘good’ teaching practice”. During the interviews, the instructors working at the preparatory schools of these universities reported that listening skills are tested in their midterm exams, proficiency exams and even in some quizzes. Hence, it is essential for these instructors to address these skills frequently in their lessons and improve their teaching skills as well.

5.2.3.2. EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills

In addition to listening skills, the instructors' frequency of addressing speaking skills in the lessons was also scrutinized in this study. The average mean score of the questionnaire displayed that all the instructors *sometimes* address the speaking skills listed in the questionnaire during speaking tasks according to the curriculum of their institutions. Besides, the t-test results (see Table 34) revealed that all the instructors generally address speaking skills less than listening skills in the lessons.

Majority of the instructors in this study address *phonological components* in speaking less frequently in their lessons (see Table 50). For instance, they *seldom* teach how to use stress patterns of words accurately and how to use stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in speech. They also *rarely* teach how to use linking between words in speech in order to speak fluently. This might be again due to the fact that these skills are not tested in the examinations of the preparatory schools of the universities in this study.

Table 50 EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills

ASPECT	QUESTIONNAIRE	INTERVIEWS
Frequently Emphasized Skills	- teaching how to use organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in speech - teaching how to ask for repetition or clarification in conversations or discussions - teaching how to introduce a topic and change the subject in conversations or discussions	_____
Less Frequently Emphasized Skills	- teaching how to use linking between words in speech in order to speak fluently - teaching how to use stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences accurately in speech - teaching how to use stress patterns of words accurately in speech	_____
The Effect of the Institution	Yes	Yes
The Relationship between Their Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills & Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills	Yes (small positive correlation)	Yes (positive correlation)

In contrast, *management of interaction* and *organization of speech* skills are more often addressed than *phonological components* in speaking in the lessons. To illustrate, the instructors *sometimes* teach how to use organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in speech, how to ask for repetition or clarification and how to introduce a topic and change the subject in conversations and discussions.

Last but not least, a strong positive correlation was discovered between the EFL instructors' frequency of addressing listening and speaking skills in the lessons. In this sense, if they emphasize listening skills, they also address speaking skills more frequently in the classroom. On the other hand, if the listening skills are ignored by the teachers, speaking skills are not emphasized either most of the time in the classrooms because of the curriculum of the preparatory schools included in this study. Another reason might be the fact it is essential to be equipped with listening comprehension skills in order to become a proficient speaker in the target language (Peterson, 2001). Thus, in this study, if the curriculum of the institution aims at developing the learners' oral skills, without addressing listening skills in the lessons, it can be impossible for the instructors to improve their students' speaking skills.

Furthermore, the findings of the quantitative data analysis showed that there was a significant difference among the four universities with regard to their instructors' frequency of teaching speaking skills to the learners. The mean scores of Atılım University and Başkent University is lower than the other state universities in this study because the preparatory programs of these universities do not test their students' speaking skills in an oral exam. Hence, as some of the instructors from these institutions indicated in the interviews, their students are not motivated enough to improve their speaking skills and they are not willing to participate in speaking tasks in the classrooms. As a result, it depends on the teacher whether to focus on these speaking skills or skip the speaking sections in their course books completely in the lessons. Thus, the tests of these institutions may have a harmful backwash effect and "areas that are not tested are likely to become areas ignored in teaching and learning" (Hughes, 2003, p. 27).

On the contrary, the teachers working at Yıldız Teknik University and Gazi University address speaking skills in their lessons more frequently compared to the

other private universities. This result might be related to the curriculum of the preparatory schools of these universities as mentioned before, which involve oral examinations. In other words, these institutions assess their learners' speaking proficiency in English in achievement or proficiency exams. This fact may lead to the instructors' giving much more importance to developing their students' English speaking skills and also the learners' increased motivation in participating in speaking tasks in the preparatory schools of these universities.

The Relationship between EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening and Speaking Skills and Their Perceived Competency in Teaching These Skills

The institution, in fact, the curriculum of the preparatory school where the instructor works is a very important factor that affects the teacher's perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. In the interviews, all the instructors reported that if the curriculum of their institution involves assessment of the students' English listening and speaking proficiency, then it will be inevitable for the instructors to improve their teaching listening and speaking skills. That is, the more frequently they teach listening and speaking skills in the lessons, the more competent they can feel while teaching these skills or vice versa. This result was also supported by the quantitative data analysis and a small positive correlation was identified between these two factors. Provided not only listening but also speaking skills are tested in the examinations of these universities, the students may be more enthusiastic to participate in the listening and speaking tasks in the lessons. This can also encourage the teachers to further develop their students' communication skills in English. As a result, the instructors can perceive themselves as more efficient every time they teach these skills. This is an example of the washback effect of the tests and Messick (1996) defined this effect as "the extent to which the introduction and use of a test influences language learners to do things they would not otherwise do that promote or inhibit language learning" (cited in Bekleyen, 2009, p. 671).

Hence, the results of this study can be a good example in terms of indicating harmful washback effect of testing on both teachers and learners. For instance, the

quantitative data analysis revealed that the instructors address bottom-up skills less than top-down skills in listening in the lessons as these skills are not tested in the examinations of their institutions. Accordingly, these instructors reported that they feel less competent in teaching bottom-up listening strategies. Besides, in terms of speaking skills, for example, they rarely teach phonological components in speaking in the lessons. Similarly, they perceive themselves as less competent in teaching these skills when compared to the other skills in speaking. Tanveer (2007) claims that inadequate time devoted to these skills may result in lack of input for the students. Then, if these skills are not emphasized in the curriculum of the institutions frequently and also if the instructors feel less competent in teaching these skills, how can the students studying at the participant universities in this study develop their bottom-up listening skills as well as pronunciation skills in speaking?

When the relationship between the instructors' frequency of teaching listening and speaking skills in the lessons and their competency in teaching these skills is considered for each institution one by one, a moderate positive correlation was discovered for Gazi University and Yıldız Teknik University. This might be due to the fact that the syllabus of these universities aims at improving their learners' listening and speaking skills and also they assess their learners' aural and oral proficiency in the target language. Thus, the instructors may have to address these skills more frequently in their lessons and this experience might lead to these teachers' developing their competency levels in teaching these skills. In addition, in the interviews, some of the instructors who work at these universities stated that they even try to teach skills such as identifying minimal pairs, word stress or intonation skills in listening or speaking activities in the lessons. Even if some of the teachers are not knowledgeable enough about these bottom-up skills or phonological components in the target language, they reported that they study or learn how to teach these skills with the help of the teacher's book or by getting support from their colleagues. As a result, it is obvious that the curriculum somehow encourages these teachers to develop their teaching listening and speaking skills.

Nevertheless, for Atılım University and Başkent University, no significant relationship was found between these two factors statistically. According to the

results of this study, while the instructors working at these private universities perceive themselves as competent in teaching listening and speaking skills, unfortunately these crucial skills are not frequently emphasized in the lessons and also tested in the examinations of these preparatory schools. According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), “if teachers feel that what they teach is not relevant to the test (or vice versa), this must be seen as an instance of low test authenticity, in which the test may have harmful washback, or negative impact on instruction” (p. 33). When this view is taken into account, it can be said that the less the instructors teach listening and speaking skills in the lessons because of the fact that test tasks do not correspond to the content of the syllabus, the less competent they may perceive themselves in teaching these skills in these institutions. However, the quantitative data did not support this conclusion and the responses given to each item in the scale displayed variance owing to the fact that it depends on the teacher whether to give importance to listening and speaking skills in the classroom in these universities.

5.3. Implications for the Study

The findings of this study can be helpful for in-service EFL teacher development and the preparatory schools of the institutions in this study, which plays an important role in the teachers’ perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. Some recommendations will also be made for Ministry of National Education and teacher education programs for prospective non-native EFL teachers in Turkey. Based on the results of the study, the following suggestions can be made:

1. According to the findings of this study, some EFL teachers’ concerns are related to their English lessons in high school. Ministry of National Education can reconsider the curriculum of high school education related to English lessons. A need analysis can be conducted to discover the foreign language needs of the prospective EFL teachers studying at language teacher education programs at universities and the high school curriculum and the teaching materials can be designed accordingly.
2. Language teacher education programs can encourage more teacher candidates to participate in student exchange programmes in an English-speaking

country. This can help them improve their communicative competence, especially sociolinguistic and intercultural competence, in the target language by means of interacting with native speakers. In addition, according to MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), positive contact with native speakers increases the self-confidence in using the target language. Besides, teacher education programs of the universities can provide a kind of “immersion programmes” for pre-service teachers, which enable them to take one of Teaching Practice courses in a foreign country. As Barkhuizen and Feryok (2006) stated, these programmes “aim to give teachers the opportunity to improve their language proficiency in the language they will teach, to develop their pedagogical knowledge and to engage with an international sociocultural environment” (p. 115).

3. EFL teacher education programs can also encourage prospective teachers to take part in some discussion forums on some websites, and share their ideas and teaching experience with other EFL teachers around the world in order to develop not only their communication skills but also their competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. By means of interacting with native or non-native speakers of English in some discussion boards on the Internet, English teacher candidates can learn how to use both informal and formal language appropriately in the target language and this can influence their self-confidence while teaching listening and speaking skills in English in their future career.
4. Pre-service teacher education programs can revisit the content of their courses related to phonological components of the target language. For instance, these courses can aim at not only improving the pronunciation and fluency skills of the prospective teachers but also training them how to teach these skills such as minimal pairs, word stress, and intonation patterns in a context by using communicative language teaching methods.
5. All of the EFL instructors in this study reported the importance of in-service teacher training programs on their perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills. Hence, long-term in-service teacher training programs

can be offered to the instructors by their institutions. To illustrate, teacher trainers can observe the instructors while teaching listening and speaking skills and provide constructive feedback to them. Furthermore, trainers can ask the instructors to keep reflective journals to share their experiences related to listening and speaking tasks in the classroom. Thus, reflecting on their strengths and weaknesses in teaching these skills can help to increase the instructors' self-awareness and self-confidence. Moreover, peer observations can also enable an instructor to evaluate other language teachers' and also his/her own teaching techniques related to aural and oral skills in the lessons. Hence, sharing some ideas with some colleagues, especially with experienced ones can be really beneficial for instructors.

6. The preparatory schools of universities can provide more opportunities for their instructors to attend conferences, seminars, workshops, and certificate or diploma-based teacher training programs abroad or in their own country by offering financial support for their teachers. As a result, the instructors can have a chance to develop their teaching skills as well as communicative skills in the target language.
7. The curriculum of all the institutions in this study should emphasize listening and speaking skills more frequently and involve these skills in their achievement, proficiency and even progress tests. According to the findings of this study, the curriculum and the testing approach of the preparatory schools of the universities completely influence the learners' motivation and proficiency in listening and speaking skills and most importantly this also affects the instructors' enthusiasm and perceived competency in teaching these skills. Therefore, Brown's (1995) systematic approach to designing language curriculum can be beneficial for these institutions. For instance, based on the needs of the students, the objectives of the syllabus related to teaching listening and speaking skills should be determined. Then, aural and oral tasks in the tests should be consistent with the materials and teaching techniques in the classroom (Brown, 1995). As Enginarlar (n.d) commented:

If achievement tests are based on the objectives of the syllabus, rather than on details of teaching and of the textbook content, they will provide a truer picture of what has been achieved in terms of the language skills students need to develop. (p.6)

Therefore, it is essential for the institutions to make the instructors acknowledge the objectives of the curriculum. As a result, the instructors can teach aural and oral skills more consciously to meet the objectives of the syllabus taking the needs of the students into account. This can also increase the instructors' teaching competency levels and lead to their having less concern about their students' lack of motivation during listening and speaking tasks in the classrooms.

8. Based on the needs analysis of their learners, the preparatory schools of the universities can give importance to developing their learners' pronunciation and fluency skills. They can choose some course books that will guide the instructors about how to teach these skills in a more communicative way rather than traditional methods of teaching and by using technology or media. For instance, some sources of listening anxiety experienced by Turkish EFL learners were identified as intonation, stress and number of unknown vocabulary items (Kılıç, 2007). However, as McKay (2003) states, "the prevalent assumption that the goal of English language learning is to achieve native-like competence in English must be put aside". Therefore, when we consider English as a lingua franca, instead of native-like pronunciation, intelligible pronunciation skills can be emphasized. For instance, during some listening or speaking tasks in the lessons, instructors can address these phonological components in order to make their students gain intelligible pronunciation skills since some stress and intonation patterns are quite essential for making the speech comprehensible (Luoma, 2004). Finally, teaching linking between words, contractions, reduced or weak forms of words in the textbooks at times can be beneficial for improving not only students' but also teachers' fluency skills in English.

9. The EFL instructors can bring some extra authentic materials to the classroom for listening and speaking lessons apart from the course book; and they can teach informal language in the lessons at times as long as their institution permits. New colloquial language expressions, idioms and slangs have begun to be used in advertisements, television programs, magazines, songs and even in computer games in English. In addition, so as to improve communicative competence of the language learners, teaching daily language in English has gained importance these days. According to Engkent (1986), some students, especially the ones who learn English as a foreign language have studied formal language aspects of the language more often than informal language such as over-emphasis on the structure of the target language in the lessons. Hence, “these students can be ill-equipped to converse with native speakers” (p. 226). As a result, teaching colloquial language, idioms and slangs in English in the lessons at times can develop the knowledge of both students and instructors, which can also increase their self-confidence while communicating with native speakers of English.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

As this study’s population was limited to the in-service EFL instructors in four universities, further research could be conducted with different target groups and data collection methods. First of all, pre-service non-native EFL teachers’ foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level and its effect on their perceived competency in teaching these skills can be explored in order to revise curriculum of a pre-service teacher education program . In addition, pre-service and in-service non-native English teachers’ foreign language listening and speaking anxiety levels and their self-efficacy in teaching these skills can be compared in one study so as to see the effect of teaching experience. According to the results, some suggestions can be offered to improve English teacher education and training programs. Besides, pre-service EFL teachers’ perceived competency level in terms of teaching listening and speaking skills before and after a teaching practicum can be compared and the results can be beneficial for the teacher education programs to develop their methodology or

practice teaching courses. Furthermore, in a yearlong qualitative case study, one or two of highly anxious pre-service or in-service teachers can be observed in order to explore their strategies in dealing with foreign language listening and speaking anxiety.

Moreover, in one study, the EFL teachers' foreign language listening and speaking anxiety can be identified and compared with their efficacy in dealing with their learners' foreign language anxiety in the classroom. The results of this study can be useful to organize some teacher training programs to equip the teachers with some strategies to deal with their learners' foreign language anxiety problems, and also use the same strategies to overcome their own concerns related to listening and speaking skills in the target language. Lastly, in another research study, English teachers' self-efficacy in teaching listening and speaking skills may be compared with their own students' self-evaluation of their competence in listening and speaking skills in the target language in some institutions. This can be a kind of evaluation of the curriculum of the institution, and some changes can be offered in terms of listening and speaking skills in the syllabus based on the findings of this study.

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APPENDICES
APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Colleague,

The following questionnaire has been designed as a part of an MA thesis study. It aims to investigate whether the non-native EFL instructors experience foreign language listening and speaking anxiety, their self-perceived competencies in teaching listening and speaking skills and to what extent they address these skills in listening and speaking activities in the lessons considering the curriculum of the institution they work at. You are kindly asked to complete the questionnaire. Your identity and individual responses will be kept strictly confidential, and the results of the questionnaire will be used only for research purposes.

Thank you for your participation.

Duygu KARAKAYA
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Middle East Technical University
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PART I

1. What kind of university are you working at? State ___ Private ___
2. How long have you been teaching English? _____ (years / months)
3. Which department did you graduate from? _____
4. Have you studied / been studying in a graduate program? MA ___ PhD ___ No ___
If yes, what is the name of the MA / PhD program?

5. Have you ever participated in an in-service teacher training program (certificate or diploma based)? Yes ___ No ___

If yes, what is / are the name(s) of the program(s)? (Please indicate 3 programs at most)

6. How / where did you learn **MOST** of your English communicative skills (listening & speaking)? (Please choose **ONLY ONE OPTION**)

- _____ at primary school
- _____ at secondary school
- _____ at high school
- _____ at university
- _____ studying / working / living in an English-speaking country
- _____ contact with native speakers of English in your country
- Other *specify how*: _____

7. If you have ever studied/worked or lived in an English-speaking country, how long were you there in total? _____

PART II - A: For the following statements, please tick only one response

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. When a person speaks English very fast, I worry that I might not understand all of it.					
2. I get annoyed when I come across words that I do not understand while listening to English.					
3. I feel confident while listening to native speakers of English.					
4. When someone pronounces words differently from the way I pronounce them in English, I find it difficult to understand.					
5. I feel comfortable while listening to a native speaker of English on the phone.					
6. Listening to new information in English makes me uneasy.					
7. When I let my mind drift even a little bit while listening to English, I worry that I will miss important ideas.					
8. I get nervous when I do not understand every word a native speaker of English says.					
9. I feel comfortable about guessing the parts that I miss while listening to English.					
10. I do not feel nervous when I listen to a person speaking English very fast.					
11. I get nervous when I do not understand some idioms and colloquial language while listening to English.					

12. When I do not understand all the words in a listening text in English, I do not get worried.					
13. I get nervous when I have inadequate background knowledge of some topics when listening to some texts in English					
14. I am nervous when listening to an English speaker on the phone.					
15. I get worried when I do not understand English news and/or English films without subtitles.					

PART II - B: *For the following statements, please tick only one response*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I am afraid that native speakers will notice the mistakes I make while speaking English.					
2. I feel that I am not fluent enough as an English speaker.					
3. I feel nervous while speaking English in front of other language teachers (e.g. in conferences).					
4. When speaking English, I can get so nervous that I forget the things I know.					
5. I feel comfortable when speaking English with non-native speakers of English.					
6. It embarrasses me to speak English in front of my colleagues (e.g. in meetings).					
7. I feel comfortable while talking to native speakers of English.					
8. I have difficulty in using some idioms and colloquial language while speaking English.					
9. I do not worry about making grammatical or pronunciation mistakes when I speak English.					
10. I feel that other foreign language teachers speak English better than I do.					
11. I try to speak English with native speakers whenever I can.					
12. I am nervous about using English when a teacher trainer is observing me.					
13. When I speak English, I am too worried about using the correct grammar and pronunciation.					

14. I would be nervous about using English if my administrator were observing me.					
15. I feel nervous when talking to an English speaker on the phone.					

Please answer the following questions

1. What can be the reasons for an EFL instructor's feeling confident while communicating in English? (Indicate 2 reasons at most)

-
-

2. If an EFL instructor feels uncomfortable while communicating in English, what can be the causes of his / her anxiety? (Indicate 2 reasons at most)

-
-

PART III - A: Please tick the appropriate box in **both sides** of the following statements according to the questions at the top.

<i>Considering the <u>curriculum</u> of your institution, how often do you address the following skills in <u>listening activities</u> in the lessons?</i>					<i>No matter whether your curriculum includes the following skills or not, how <u>competent</u> are you as an English teacher in teaching the following skills?</i>			
Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	TEACHING LISTENING SKILLS	Highly Competent	Competent	Somewhat Competent	Incompetent
				1. teaching how to <u>distinguish</u> phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in a listening text (i.e., leave / live, sheep / ship, hut / hat, etc.)				
				2. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> contractions, reduced or weak forms of words in a listening text (i.e., 'She's', 'I'll', 'gonna', schwa /ə/, etc)				

				3. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences in a listening text (i.e., Hów óften do you gó to a púb?)				
				4. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in a listening text (i.e., ‘Firstly’, ‘Finally’, ‘Moreover’, etc.)				
				5. teaching how to <u>recognize</u> sentence fillers or hesitation markers in speech (i.e., ‘well’, ‘I mean’, ‘you know’, etc.)				
				6. teaching how to identify key words or phrases to comprehend a listening text better				
				7. teaching how to <u>distinguish</u> registers of speech accurately (formal or informal speech)				
				8. teaching how to identify the gist of the listening text without necessarily understanding every word				
				9. teaching how to distinguish a main idea(s) from supporting details or examples in a listening text				
				10. teaching how to <u>identify</u> a speaker’s opinion or attitude towards a listener or a topic in a listening text				
				11. teaching how to make inferences and draw conclusions about a listening text				
				12. teaching how to identify specific information in a listening text				
				13. teaching how to predict what information or idea will be expressed next in a listening text				
				14. teaching how to guess unknown words from context in a listening text				
				15. teaching how to use the world knowledge (knowledge of the topic, speakers or the setting) to comprehend a listening text better				

PART III - B: Please tick the appropriate box in **both sides** of the following statements according to the questions at the top.

<i>Considering the curriculum of your institution, how often do you address the following skills in speaking activities in the lessons?</i>					<i>No matter whether your curriculum includes the following skills or not, how competent are you as an English teacher in teaching the following skills?</i>			
Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS	Highly Competent	Competent	Somewhat Competent	Incompetent
				1. teaching how to <u>use</u> phonemes like minimal pairs accurately in speech (i.e., leave / live, sheep / ship, hut / hat, etc.)				
				2. teaching how to <u>use</u> stress patterns of words accurately in speech (i.e.: multinational, office, etc.)				
				3. teaching how to <u>use</u> contractions, reduced or weak forms of words in speech (i.e., 'She's', 'I'll', 'gonna', schwa /ə/, etc)				
				4. teaching how to <u>use</u> stress, rhythm or intonation patterns of sentences accurately in speech (i.e., Hów óften do you gó to a púb?)				
				5. teaching how to <u>use</u> sentence fillers or hesitation markers in speech (i.e., 'well', 'I mean', 'you know', etc.)				
				6. teaching how to <u>use</u> organizational markers, cohesive devices or linkers in speech (i.e., 'Firstly', 'Finally', 'Moreover', etc.)				
				7. teaching how to <u>use</u> registers of speech accurately (formal or informal speech)				
				8. teaching how to <u>use</u> colloquial language, idiomatic expressions or phrases in informal speech				
				9. teaching how to <u>use</u> linking between words in speech in order to speak fluently				

				(i.e., They live in Miami \Rightarrow They /lɪvɪn/ Miami) \cup				
				10. teaching how to introduce a topic and change the subject in conversations or discussions				
				11. teaching how to express one's attitude or intention towards a listener or a topic in conversations or discussions				
				12. teaching how to invite someone else to speak in conversations or discussions				
				13. teaching how to take turns in conversations or discussions				
				14. teaching how to ask for repetition or clarification in conversations or discussions (i.e., 'Sorry, I missed that.', 'Could you repeat that again, please?' etc.)				
				15. teaching how to <u>use</u> communicative strategies in speech (i.e., self-correct one's own expression or when one forgets an English word or expression, finding an alternative way such as saying its synonym or paraphrasing)				

Please answer the following questions

1. What might be the reasons for an EFL instructor's feeling competent in teaching the listening and speaking skills mentioned above? (Indicate 2 reasons at most)

-
-

2. What might be the reasons for an EFL instructor's feeling incompetent in teaching the listening and speaking skills listed above? (Indicate 2 reasons at most)

-
-

Thank you for filling in the questionnaire. If you would like to participate in the interview phase of the study, please indicate your name, your cell phone number and your e-mail address.

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

B.1. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (ENGLISH)

1. How/ where do non-native EFL teachers in Turkey learn most of their English language skills?
 - a. How / where do non-native EFL teachers in Turkey learn most of their listening and speaking skills in English?
 - b. Do you think an EFL teacher's L2 learning context has an effect on his / her English listening and speaking skills? Why / Why not?
2. Considering your own L2 learning experience, do you think your L2 learning context influences your foreign language listening and speaking skills?

Taking your L2 learning experience into account,

 - a. What are your strengths and weaknesses in listening to English?
 - b. What are your strengths and weaknesses in speaking English?
3. Do you think an EFL instructor's foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level changes according to the length of his / her teaching experience?
4. What are the other factors that affect an EFL instructor's foreign language listening and speaking anxiety?
5. Based on your experience with other EFL instructors, do you think EFL instructors feel nervous while listening and talking to native speakers of English? If yes, why? If not, what could make them feel confident? Give an example, please.
6. Based on your experience with other EFL instructors, do you think EFL instructors feel anxious while speaking English in front of their colleagues in meetings, other language teachers in conferences or while being observed by teacher trainers and administrators? If yes, why? If not, what could make them feel confident? Give an example, please.
7. Does an EFL instructor's foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level influence his / her competency level in teaching these skills? Why / Why not?

8. Does an EFL instructor's perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills change according to his / her undergraduate department, participation in graduate studies, in-service teacher training programs, the length of teaching experience and the institution he / she works at? If yes, what kind of a contribution could these make? If no, what other factors may affect an EFL instructor's perceived competency in teaching listening and speaking skills?
9. Does an EFL instructor's frequency of teaching listening and speaking skills in the lessons according to the curriculum of the institution s / he works influence his / her competence in teaching these skills? If yes, what kind of an influence can be seen? Give an example, please.
10. Have you ever felt nervous about speaking or listening to English? If yes, in which circumstances? If no, what could be the source of your confidence? Give an example, please.
11. Do you think your foreign language listening and speaking anxiety level has an effect on your perceived competency in teaching these skills? Give an example, please.
12. What kind of factors do you think influence your competence in teaching listening and speaking skills? Give an example, please.
13. Anything else you would like to add?

B.2. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (TURKISH)

1. Sizce Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmenleri yabancı dil becerilerinin çoğunu nerede ve nasıl öğreniyor?
 - a. Türkiye'de İngilizce öğretmenleri yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma becerilerinin çoğunu nerede ve nasıl öğreniyor?
 - b. Sizce bir İngilizce öğretmenin yabancı dil öğrendiği ortamın İngilizce dinleme ve konuşma becerilerine etkisi var mı?
2. Kendi yabancı dil öğrenme deneyiminizi göz önünde bulundurduğunuz zaman, yabancı dili nerede ve nasıl öğrendiğinizin şu andaki İngilizce dinleme ve konuşma becerilerinize etkisi olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?

Yabancı dil öğrenme deneyiminizi göz önünde bulundurarak,

 - a. İngilizce dinleme becerileriniz açısından kendinizi başarılı bulduğunuz ve geliştirmeye ihtiyaç duyduğunuz özelliklerinizi tanımlar mısınız?
 - b. İngilizce konuşma becerileriniz açısından kendinizi başarılı bulduğunuz ve geliştirmeye ihtiyaç duyduğunuz özelliklerinizi tanımlar mısınız?
3. Sizce bir İngilizce okutmanının İngilizce dinlerken ya da konuşurken duyduğu endişe öğretmenlik deneyimine göre değişir mi?
4. Bir İngilizce okutmanının İngilizce dinlerken ya da konuşurken endişe duymasına sebep olan diğer faktörler nelerdir?
5. Sizce İngilizce okutmanları İngilizce'yi ana dili olarak konuşan kişileri dinlerken ya da konuşurken endişe duyuyorlar mıdır? Endişe duymalarının ya da duymamalarının nedenleri neler olabilir? Somut örnekler veriniz.
6. Sizce İngilizce okutmanları toplantılarda ve konferanslarda diğer İngilizce öğretmenlerinin önünde ve / veya üst yöneticileri ya da bir öğretmen eğitmeni tarafından gözlemlenirken İngilizce konuşmaktan endişe duyuyorlar mıdır? Niye endişe duyuyor ya da kendilerini rahat hissediyorlar? Somut örnekler veriniz.
7. Bir İngilizce okutmanının yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma kaygı seviyesinin öğrencilerine İngilizce dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretme yeterliliğine etkisi var mıdır? Niye?

8. Sizce bir İngilizce okutmanının yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretirken duyduğu yeterlilik mezun olduğu bölüme, yüksek lisans eğitimine, katıldığı hizmet içi eğitim programlarına, öğretmenlik deneyimine ve çalıştığı kuruma göre değişir mi? Eğer değişirse bu faktörlerin nasıl bir etkisi olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz? Değilse sizce diğer hangi faktörler bir İngilizce okutmanının yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretirken duyduğu yeterliliği etkiliyordur?
9. Sizce bir İngilizce okutmanının görev yaptığı kurumun müfredatı kapsamında derslerde İngilizce dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretme sıklığı ve deneyimi, bu becerileri öğretme yeterliliğini etkiler mi? Eğer etkiliyorsa nasıl bir etkisi olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz? Somut örnekler veriniz.
10. Hiç kendinizi İngilizce dinlerken ya da konuşurken gergin hissettiğiniz oldu mu? Eğer hissettiyseniz, hangi durumlarda? Eğer hissetmediyseniz kendize olan güveninizin sebepleri nelerdir? Somut örnekler veriniz.
11. Yabancı dil dinleme ve konuşma kaygı seviyenizin öğrencilerinize İngilizce dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretme yeterliliğinize etkisi var mı? Somut örnekler veriniz.
12. İngilizce dinleme ve konuşma becerilerini öğretme yeterliliğinizi etkileyen diğer faktörler nelerdir?
13. Ekleme istediğiniz başka bir şey var mı?

APPENDIX C

ANOVA Post Hoc Test Results for the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Listening Skills According to Each Institution

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: HOLM

Scheffe

(I) INSTITUTION	(J) INSTITUTION	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Atilim	Gazi	-,63800*	,13880	,000	-1,0306	-,2454
	Yildiz Teknik	-,36229*	,11562	,023	-,6893	-,0353
	Baskent	-,11689	,10780	,759	-,4218	,1880
Gazi	Atilim	,63800*	,13880	,000	,2454	1,0306
	Yildiz Teknik	,27571	,14705	,323	-,1402	,6916
	Baskent	,52111*	,14099	,004	,1224	,9199
Yildiz Teknik	Atilim	,36229*	,11562	,023	,0353	,6893
	Gazi	-,27571	,14705	,323	-,6916	,1402
	Baskent	,24540	,11823	,235	-,0890	,5798
Baskent	Atilim	,11689	,10780	,759	-,1880	,4218
	Gazi	-,52111*	,14099	,004	-,9199	-,1224
	Yildiz Teknik	-,24540	,11823	,235	-,5798	,0890

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

APPENDIX D

ANOVA Post Hoc Test Results for the EFL Instructors' Frequency of Addressing Speaking Skills According to Each Institution

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: HOSM

Scheffe

(I) INSTITUTION	(J) INSTITUTION	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Atilim	Gazi	-,48900*	,15463	,021	-,9264	-,0516
	Yildiz Teknik	-,03543	,12881	,995	-,3997	,3289
	Baskent	,04044	,12009	,990	-,2992	,3801
Gazi	Atilim	,48900*	,15463	,021	,0516	,9264
	Yildiz Teknik	,45357	,16383	,058	-,0098	,9169
	Baskent	,52944*	,15707	,012	,0852	,9737
Yildiz Teknik	Atilim	,03543	,12881	,995	-,3289	,3997
	Gazi	-,45357	,16383	,058	-,9169	,0098
	Baskent	,07587	,13172	,954	-,2967	,4484
Baskent	Atilim	-,04044	,12009	,990	-,3801	,2992
	Gazi	-,52944*	,15707	,012	-,9737	-,0852
	Yildiz Teknik	-,07587	,13172	,954	-,4484	,2967

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.