فصلنامه علمی - پژوهشی علوم انسانی دانشگاه الزهرا (س)
سال هجدهم، شماره ۷۰، بهار ۱۳۸۷

EFL Learners' Oral Communication Apprehension and Their General Perceived Self-Efficacy across Genders and Educational levels

Dr. M. Yamini[1], S. M. Ghoreishi[2]

Abstract

This study examined the relationship between EFL learners' oral communication apprehension (OCA) and their general perceived self efficacy (GPSE) with gender and educational level as independent variables.

The participants consisted of 160 learners of English. The instruments were Personal Report of Communication Apprehension and General Self-Efficacy Scale. The participants revealed an average level of OCA. No effect of gender or educational level was detected on OCA or GPSE. However, a negative relationship was observed between OCA and GPSE. This relationship was much stronger for the females than the males, and among the three instructional levels, it was the strongest for the juniors.

Keywords: oral communication apprehension (OCA), self-efficacy, gender, educational level, fear of communication, anxiety

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1. Associate Professor of Shiraz University. MortazaYamini@hotmail.com

2. M A in TEFL, Department of Education, Shoushtar

Introduction

The affective side of the learner is very influential in language learning success or failure. Researchers in second language acquisition (e.g., Spolsky, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992) have recognized affective variables as crucial factors in explaining differential success among learners. Now one can agree with Hilgard (1963, as cited in Brown, 2000, p. 142) that "purely cognitive theories of learning will be rejected unless a role is assigned to affectivity."

The present study is concerned with the relationship between two affective factors: oral communication apprehension (OCA), and general perceived self-efficacy (PSE). These factors are introduced and dealt with in the following sections.

Oral Communication Apprehension

-The term "oral communication apprehension" was coined by McCroskey (1977) and is defined as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (p. 78).

This definition takes two important points for granted. First, OCA is an anxiety-based experience that reveals how one feels about communication, not how one communicates. The second point is that OCA can be produced by merely thinking about or anticipating the act of communication. Thus, a person does not need to be placed in a communication situation to be affected by OCA; rather, the thought of communication alone can create anxiety.

Effects of OCA

The only effect of OCA that is predicted to be universal across both individuals and types of OCA is an internally experienced feeling of discomfort.0 The lower the OCA, the less the internal discomfort (McCroskey,

1982). Apart from a severe feeling of discomfort, a person with high levels of OCA experiences certain physiological effects during communication, like rapid beating of the heart, some shakiness, a dry mouth, and increased perspiration (Drinkwater & Vreken, 1997).

McCroskey (1982, para. 15) states:

High OCA is seen as a potential inhibitor of the development of both communication competence and communication skill and as a direct precursor of negative communication affect. Low OCA, on the other hand, is seen as a facilitator of the development of communication competence and communication skill and as a precursor of positive communication affect.

OCA and Second Language Acquisition

Recently, some attention has been directed towards OCA in second language communication. As OCA has been observed to be a primary reason for people to avoid communication in their first language, it may be even more important in preventing them from communicating in a second language or disrupting their communication when they endeavor to engage themselves in it. Thus, it is believed that OCA may inhibit the learning of a second language because the apprehensive individual may withdraw from communication which is a prerequisite to its mastery (Fayer, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1984).

According to Lucas (1984), if learners of English as a second language are apprehensive about speaking their own language, their fear of communicating in English must be magnified tenfold because communicating in the second language is more difficult than speaking one's mother tongue. In addition, even those international students who are not apprehensive about speaking in their own language can become apprehensive about speaking English. In Lucas's (1984) words:

Native speakers have only the anxiety over the actual performance, while second language learners are dealing with the language learning tasks in addition to performance. Additional pressure results from problems second language learners often have in comprehending what others are saying. The speaker's self-image can also be damaged by the fear that others will perceive him/her as less competent than s/he is in reality. (p. 593)

General Perceived Self-Efficacy

According to Bandura (1997, as cited in Schunk & Pajares, 2001), self-efficacy is grounded in a larger theoretical framework known as social cognitive theory which postulates that human achievement depends on interactions between one's behaviors, personal factors (e.g., thoughts, beliefs), and environmental conditions. Each variable interacts with the others to produce learning results that are idiosyncratic to the individual learner. Bandura calls this interaction reciprocal determinism.

Self-efficacy expectations, as originally proposed by Bandura (1977), "refer to a person's beliefs concerning his/her ability to successfully perform a given task or behavior" (p. 191). Perceived self-efficacy is a specific component of the broader construct of self-efficacy referring to a person's judgment of his/her own ability to organize certain performances and carry them out (see Hashim, Yaakub, & Hashim, 1996).

Self-efficacy is commonly taken to be domain-specific; that is, one can have more or less firm self-beliefs in different domains or particular situations of functioning. But some researchers have also conceptualized a generalized sense of self-efficacy. Generalized self-efficacy is considered as "the confidence in one's own coping skills that is manifested in a wide range of challenging situations, and which has a broad and stable nature" (Schwarzer et al., 1997, p. 69).

Sources of Efficacy Beliefs

Bandura (1997, as cited in Brown, 1999) identifies four ways in which self-efficacy is learned and self-efficacy expectations are formed:

1. *Performance Accomplishments*. The most effective way to create strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences, that is, experiences of successful accomplishment.
2. *Vicarious Learning*. Self efficacy beliefs can be acquired through observation and interpretation. If we see someone succeed, then it enhances our ability to try to do the same.
3. *Verbal Persuasion*. Self efficacy beliefs are influenced by the messages conveyed by others through, for example, encouragement, support, or criticism. Encouragement supports self-efficacy beliefs; criticism hampers them.
4. *Physical/Affective Status*. Stress and anxiety have a negative effect on self-efficacy. Low anxiety or high relaxation will foster efficacy.

Self-Efficacy, Self-Concept, and Self-Esteem

Self-efficacy is distinct from self-concept. Self-concept is believed to consist of beliefs, hypotheses, and assumptions that individuals have about themselves. Self-concept is a descriptive composite of one's self, whereas self-efficacy is concerned with one's judgment of personal capabilities.

Self-efficacy and self-esteem are different although conceptually similar. According to Pajares and University (2000), self-esteem is "a personal evaluation of one's self that includes the feelings of self-worth that accompany that evaluation" (self efficacy and self esteem section, para. 1). According to Willoughby, King, and Polatajiko (1996, para. 5), an important difference between self-efficacy and self-esteem is that "self efficacy is not static: it can change over time (increase or decrease) depending on a person's reaction to the task and perception of him/herself, whereas self-esteem

is a relatively stable way in which we view ourselves that is established early on in life."

Theoretical Framework

In social cognitive theory, it is maintained that self-efficacy expectations and anxiety are negatively correlated; an increase in self-efficacy expectations is associated with a decrease in anxiety and vice versa (Betz & Hackett, 1998). It is mainly the feeling of inefficacy to deal with potentially aversive events that makes such events fearsome (Bandura, 1994) and elevates anxiety. A low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Individuals with low sense of self-efficacy also have low self-esteem and hold pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development.

Objectives of the Study

This study intends to investigate the relationship between EFL learners' GPSE and OCA with regard to gender and educational level. More specifically, the study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. What is the level of EFL learners' OCA?
2. Does gender affect the level of EFL learners' OCA?
3. Does educational level affect EFL learners' level of OCA?
4. Is there any relationship between EFL learners' GPSE and their OCA?
5. Does gender affect the relationship between GPSE and OCA?
6. Does educational level affect the relationship between OCA and GPSE?

Research on OCA

Several studies have found negative correlations between self-esteem and OCA. Lustig (1974) found a correlation of -.48 between OCA and self-esteem, and a -.52 correlation between OCA and self-acceptance.

Susan and Donald (2000) have examined the relationship between Myers-Briggs personality type preferences and communication apprehension. Results have shown that individuals who preferred extroversion or sensing reported higher levels of OCA than those who preferred introversion or intuition. In addition, feeling-oriented subjects reported higher levels of OCA than thinking-oriented individuals.

Delgado and Carrasquillo (1988) have tried to find out whether there existed a relationship between OCA and proficiency in English. Results indicate no significant correlation between total English proficiency scores and OCA.

Shunk and Mak (2001) have reported the findings of a study into the sources of OCA among Chinese ESL students in New Zealand. The results indicate that emphasis on voluntary speaking, insufficient preparation for speaking, and fear of negative evaluation were important sources of OCA.

Research on Self Efficacy

A classroom experimental study conducted by Schunk (1991, as cited in Hashim, Yakuub, & Hashim, 1996) has revealed a strong relationship between perceived self-efficacy and performance. According to Schunk, "as students become aware of their progress, their sense of efficacy is substantiated, which in turn influences future adaptive behaviors, such as greater effort and persistence" (para, 9).

Shenghui and Shanmao (1996) conducted a study of English-as-a-Second-Language learners' self-efficacy and its relationship to achievement. It was found that their achievements correlated significantly with their perceptions of their own ability.

Barnhardt (1997) conducted a research on the self-efficacy levels and frequency of learning strategy use. The analysis of the questionnaires revealed that across the languages studied a positive correlation existed between strategy use and self-efficacy.

Yang (1999) investigated the relationship between foreign language/second language learners' beliefs about language learning and their learning strategy use. It was found that "language learners' self-efficacy beliefs about learning English were strongly related to their use of all types of learning strategies, especially functional practice strategies" (p. 515).

Research on the Relationship between Self Efficacy and Anxiety

The results of a study done by Meier, McCarthy, and Schmeck (1984) indicated that anxiety is a significant negative predictor of efficacy strength.

The results of a study by Litt (1988) indicated that self-efficacy varied inversely with state anxiety during a stressful situation.

Comunian (1989) studied the relationship between depression, anxiety, and self-efficacy. Subjects were 200 high school students aged 15 to 17. Comunian concluded that "self-efficacy should be regarded as a cognitive precursor or as a component of anxiety and of depression" (p. 755).

In two similar studies on the relationship between self efficacy beliefs and test anxiety (Smith, Arnkoff, & Wright, 1990; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990), it was found that self-efficacy and test anxiety were negatively related.

Hopf and Colby (1992) examined whether interpersonal communication apprehension (ICA) was more closely related to self-efficacy or self-worth dimensions of self-esteem. Eight hundred and thirty seven undergraduate students completed an interpersonal subscale and a self-esteem instrument. "A much stronger inverse relationship appeared between self-efficacy and ICA than self-worth and ICA, suggesting that anxiety may be related to feelings of powerlessness" (Abstract).

Gerin *et al.* (1995, as cited in Endler, Speer, Johnson & Flett, 2001) found that self-efficacy had no effect on either state anxiety or performance.

Satow (1999) investigated the effect of perceived self-efficacy on test anxiety. The results suggested that "self-efficacy had a direct effect on the development of test anxiety whereas test anxiety had no direct effect on perceived self-efficacy" (para. 20).

Kallmen (2000) argued that "people with a high level of anxiety are supposed to have an external locus of control and a lower degree of self-efficacy. People having a low degree of anxiety are supposed to show an internal locus of control and a higher self-efficacy" (p. 38).

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The sample comprised 160 undergraduate students (43 male, 117 female) majoring in English at Shiraz University. The freshmen were excluded because it was assumed that they had not yet developed communication skills needed for the study. The distribution of the participants with respect to their gender and educational level is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of the Participants

Level / Gender	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Total
Female	31	32	54	117
Male	13	14	16	43
Total	44	46	70	160

Instruments

Two questionnaires were used. The first one was Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA) developed by McCroskey (Appendix A). It consists of 24 items on a 5-point Likert scale. This 24-item instrument assesses individuals' level of fear or anxiety across a variety of contexts including group discussions (items 1-6), meetings (items 7-12), interpersonal conversations (items 13-18), and public speaking (items 19-24).

It also provides an overall score. According to McCroskey (1978), scores below 59 represent people who have very low OCA. Scores between 60 and 70 represent people with average OCA. Scores above 72 represent people who are generally more apprehensive than average. And, scores above 85 represent people who have high levels of OCA. The second questionnaire was General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Jerusalem and Schwarzer in 1981 (Appendix B). It consists of ten items on a 4-point scale ranging from "not at all true" to "exactly true". These two questionnaires were selected because of their well established reliability, validity, and universal use.

Issues of Reliability and Validity

As for PRCA, McCroskey *et al.* (1985) found an alpha reliability of .97 for the instrument. Similar studies have confirmed their finding (Booth-Butterfield, & Booth-Butterfield, 1993).

Researchers also examined the concurrent validity of this instrument. Philips (1968) found a moderate correlation between PRCA and introversion and between PRCA and self-esteem and self-acceptance. In addition, Lustig (1974) discovered a higher correlation between PRCA and verbal reticence.

McCroskey *et al.* (1985) supported the content validity of the items on the PRCA. They concluded that the PRCA was able to predict 27% to 37% of the variance in an assertive scale.

As for the GPSE scale, according to Schwarzer *et al.* (1997), this scale was used in numerous research projects, where it typically yielded internal consistencies between alpha = .75 and .90. In a study by Schwarzer & Scholz (2000) the convergent validity of the scale was confirmed. It correlated positively with self-esteem and optimism, and negatively with anxiety and depression.

To determine the internal consistency of PRCA and GPSE scales in the present study, coefficient alpha was calculated. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of .94 and .63 were obtained for PRCA and GPSE respectively.

Moreover, in order to examine and verify the construct validity of the scales as applied to Persian EFL learners, factor analysis was performed on the data. With regard to PRCA, the results showed the two dimensionality of the scale. Factor A comprised positively worded items, whereas factor B included all negatively worded items. With regard to the GPSE scale, the factor analysis revealed the unidimensionality of the scale.

Administration Procedures

The questionnaires were distributed among students at the beginning of their classroom hour. In order to make sure that the participants did not have any difficulty in understanding the items of the two questionnaires, at the end of each questionnaire a glossary was provided in which difficult words were explained. After explaining the purpose of the research, the students were briefed on the method of completing the questionnaires. Then, the questionnaires were given to them, and they were required to record their first impression of each statement by marking a choice. Moreover, one of the researchers was present in the classroom to answer the students' questions and, if necessary, help them understand the items.

Scoring and Data Analysis

Having scored the questionnaires, the mean scores of the students' performance on PRCA with respect to their gender and educational level were calculated. Then, the learners' level of OCA was determined.

The degree of the relationship between GPSE and OCA irrespective of gender and educational level was measured using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation. To determine the possible difference in the relationship be-

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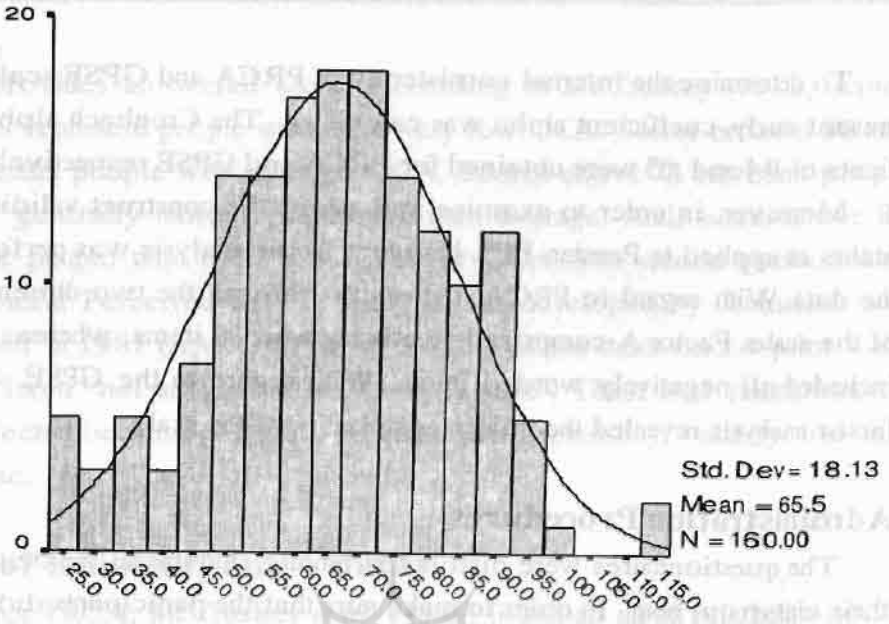

der and educational level, a series of two-way ANOVAs was run.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The data were subjected to descriptive statistics first. Figure 1 shows the performance of the participants on the OCA.

Figure 1: Distribution of the OCA Scores

It is clear from the graph that majority of the participants belong to the middle of the distribution, revealing an average level of apprehension. This is also evident from the mean scores of the participants presented in Table 2.

Table 2: OCA Mean Scores

LEVEL / GENDER	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Total
Male	63.30	68.14	62.93	64.74
Female	67.96	63.93	65.70	65.82
Total	66.59	65.21	65.07	65.53

As Table 2 shows, the whole sample had the mean score of 65.53 suggesting that the level of OCA is average for all the students regardless of their gender and educational level. This answers our first research question that the students who participated in this study exhibited an average level of oral communication apprehension.

The same level of apprehension was observed for male and female students (64.74 for boys and 65.82 for girls). This indicates that the gender of the students did not have anything to do with their level of OCA. In other words, our second research question is answered in this way: the OCA is not altered by gender.

Concerning the educational level, sophomores, juniors, and seniors had the mean scores of 66.59, 65.21, and 65.07, respectively, showing that the OCA was average at all levels. In other words, there was no difference in the level of OCA when educational level was taken into account. In other words, educational level did not affect the OCA level. This is the answer to our third research question.

The observations made here are based on the value of the mean scores on the OCA scale. However, to determine whether the observed differences in the mean scores were statistically significant or not, the researchers had to run a series of two-way ANOVAs. This was done on the total scores of the scale and the subtests therein. Table 3 shows the results of the overall OCA with regard to gender and educational level.

Table 3: ANOVA results on Total OCA, Gender and Level

Source	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Sex	35.42	1	35.42	.105	.74
Level	72.47	2	36.23	.108	.89
Sex * Level	424.4	2	212.20	.632	.53

It can be seen that the F-values are not significant for any of the variables or their interaction. This means that gender and educational level did not have a statistically significant effect on the overall apprehension of the participants. In other words, our observation on the mean scores of the total OCA is confirmed statistically. That is to say, the level of apprehension of the participants is average, and there is no statistically significant difference among educational levels and between genders.

The subparts of the OCA scale were also studied in the same way. The scores for each part were subjected to the two-way analysis of variance. The results can be seen in Tables 4-7.

Table 4: ANOVA Results on OCA in Group Discussion

Source	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Squares	F	Sig
Gender	4.12	1	4.12	.000	.99
Level	43.05	2	21.52	.795	.45
Gender * Level	26.77	2	13.38	.494	.61
Within Groups	4171.84	154	27.09		
Total	4251.74	159			

Table 5: ANOVA Results on OCA in Conversation

Source	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F	Sig
Gender	2.36	1	2.36	.088	.76
Level	41.18	2	20.59	.765	.46
Gender * Level	94.25	2	47.12	1.752	.17
Within Groups	4143.75	154	26.9		
Total	4265.6	159			

Table 6: ANOVA Results on OCA in Meetings

Source	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F	Sig
Gender	1.42	1	1.42	.000	.99
Level	32.42	2	16.21	.610	.54
Gender * Level	19.64	2	9.82	.370	.69
Within Groups	4090.62	154	26.56		
Total	4175.6	159			

Table 7: ANOVA Results on OCA in Public Speaking

Source	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F	Sig
Gender	57.25	1	57.25	2.49	.11
Level	4.23	2	2.11	.092	.91
Gender * Level	3.59	2	1.79	.078	.92
Within Groups	3527.78	154	22.9		
Total	3596	159			

As it is evident from Tables 4-7, the F-values are not significant in any of the cases studied here. Therefore, the same conclusion can be kept; that is, gender and educational level do not bring about a change in the level of OCA in different contexts.

The Role of Gender and Educational level in GPSE

The distribution of the GPSE scores can be seen in Figure 2 and the mean scores in Table 8.

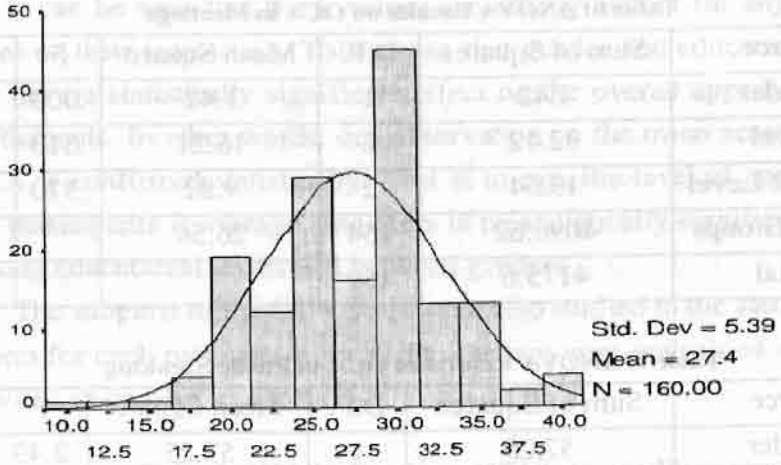

Figure 2: Distribution of GPSE Scores

Table 8: GPSE Mean Scores

LEVEL / GENDER	sophomore	junior	senior	Total
Male	26.84	26.78	28.06	27.27
Female	27.35	26.84	27.90	27.47
Total	27.20	26.82	27.94	27.41

Figure 2 and Table 8 both indicate that the level of GPSE is a little above the average. From this point of view, the participants at different levels of education and with different genders seem to be similar. However, to confirm the point statistically, a two-way ANOVA was run, where the independent variables were gender and educational level and the dependent variable was the GPSE score. The results can be seen in Table 9.

Table 9: ANOVA Results on GPSE

Source	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F	Sig
GENDER	.57	1	.57	.019	.88
LEVEL	33.33	2	16.66	.56	.57
GENDER * LEVEL	2.34	2	1.17	.039	.88
Within Group	4580.84	154	29.74		
Total	4620.94	159			

The obtained F-values were not significant at the level of .05. Nor were there any interaction effects between the variables. These findings suggest that gender and educational level did not influence students' GPSE.

The Relationship between OCA and GPSE

In order to determine the degree of the relationship between the students' OCA and GPSE, correlational analyses were used. The total correlation between OCA and GPSE irrespective of gender and educational level was found to be -.57. This is an indication of a negative relationship between OCA and GPSE.

Moreover, to determine the possible difference in the relationship between GPSE and OCA with respect to gender and educational level, correlation coefficients were calculated for male and female learners at each educational level.

Table 10 presents the result of correlational analyses for males and females.

Table 10. Correlation between OCA & GPSE across Genders

Males	-.38
Females	-.63

P < .01

The correlation between OCA and GPSE for female and male participants was found to be -.63 and -.38, respectively. Both of these correlations are significant at the level of 0.01. However, the correlation between OCA and GPSE for female students proved to be stronger than that for male students.

Table 11 presents the result of correlational analysis at each instructional level. The total correlations between OCA and GPSE at each level, irrespective of gender, were -.55, -.77, and -.48 for sophomore, junior, and senior students respectively. As it is clear, the juniors proved to have the strongest correlation coefficient between OCA and GPSE. And, this index was the lowest for the seniors.

CONCLUSION

Regarding the obtained results and findings, the following conclusions can be drawn in relation to the research questions.

The mean scores revealed that the whole sample had an average level of OCA. Furthermore, the same level was observed for different genders and educational levels as well.

The findings of the correlational analyses showed that there was a strong negative correlation between OCA and GPSE. In other words, a decrease in students' GPSE was associated with an increase in their level of OCA.

The correlation coefficient between OCA and GPSE obtained for males and females separately was found to be significant. However, this correlation proved to be stronger for female students than that for male students. It might be reasonable to claim that for female learners the degree of GPSE is a better predictor of the level of OCA.

The correlation coefficient between OCA and GPSE obtained for sophomore, junior, and senior students separately was found to be significant. However, this correlation proved to be strongest for juniors and lowest

for seniors. It can be concluded that for juniors the degree of GPSE is a better predictor of the level of OCA.

The results of analysis of variance revealed that the difference between males and females in their GPSE and OCA was not statistically significant. That is, the gender of the students does not have any effect on their level of GPSE and OCA.

The results of analysis of variance revealed that instructional level was not a significant variable. That is, as the students go to higher educational levels, their GPSE and OCA do not change significantly.

Pedagogical Implications

OCA is a problem in every language classroom. Students who are apprehensive of communicating in the second language avoid communication and, as a result, fail to develop true communicative competence.

An important pedagogical implication to emerge from the findings of this study is that EFL teachers can decrease students' OCA by increasing their GPSE. As it was concluded in the present study, students' OCA is closely related to their general self efficacy. If teachers improve students' self-efficacy beliefs, they, in reality, help reduce their oral communication anxiety level.

Considering the fact that self-efficacy is malleable, the teachers should design strategies to assist in building strong efficacy beliefs.The following sections describe some basic methods that can be used to increase student self-efficacy.

Increase Students' Awareness of the Self-Efficacy Concept.

Because of the importance of self-efficacy, it is important that students become aware of its existence and its effects on their feeling and behavior. Teachers can make their students aware of the link between positive self-

efficacy beliefs and OCA and encourage them to improve their self efficacy beliefs (Schunk, & Pajares, 2001).

Use Expert and Inexpert Modeling.

Self-efficacy can be improved by observing the experiences of others. Students observing a model successfully perform in a threatening situation are more likely to develop an expectation that they can acquire the same skill. Exposing learners to an inexpert model (peer model) or an expert model conquering the challenges successfully can help learners increase their self-efficacy (Brown, 1999).

Provide Adequate Feedback.

One of the most influential sources in improving self-efficacy is behavioral and environmental feedback. It is important for teachers to provide feedback in a manner which accentuates the students' achieved progress rather than their deficiencies. (Pajares, & Johnson, 1994).

Build on Small Achievements.

According to the theoretical model, successful experience is the most important source of fostering self-efficacy. Communication classes may be structured in a manner which will help students experience successful communication tasks, thereby, strengthening efficacy. It is the teachers' responsibility to help learners communicate through challenging yet attainable tasks (Bandura, 1982).

Encourage the Strategy of Self Talk

The strategy of self-talk means making positive statements like "I can do this" to help oneself get through challenging tasks. Students can use self-talk to reduce anxiety by reminding themselves of their progress, resources available to them, and their goals (Barnhardt, 1997).

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Appendix A

Personal Report of Oral Communication Apprehension

Dear student,

Below is a questionnaire composed of 24 statements concerning your feelings about communication in English with other people. Please indicate in the space provided the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether you **(1) Strongly agree, (2) Agree (3) Neither agree nor disagree, (4) Disagree, or (5) Strongly disagree** with each statement. Many of the statements are similar to other statements. Do not be concerned about this. Work quickly. Just record your first impression. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sex: Male ☐ **Female** ☐

Level: Sophomore ☐ **Junior** ☐ **Senior** ☐

		SA 1	A 2	N 3	D 4	SD 5
1	[3]I dislike participating in group discussions.					
2	Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.					
3	*I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.					
4	I like to get involved in group discussions					
5	*Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous					
6	I am calm and relaxed while participating in					

1. Items marked with an asterisk were reversely scored. These markings were not included in the students' version.

		SA 1	A 2	N 3	D 4	SD 5
	group discussions.					
7	*Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting.					
8	Usually, I am comfortable when I have to participate in a meeting.					
9	I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting.					
10	*I am afraid to express myself at meetings					
11	*Communicating at meetings usually makes me uncomfortable.					
12	I am very relaxed when answering questions at a meeting					
13	*While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance, I feel very nervous.					
14	I have *no* fear of speaking up in conversations.					
15	*Ordinarily, I am very tense and nervous in conversations.					
16	Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations.					
17	While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed.					
18	*I'm afraid to speak up in conversations.					

		SA 1	A 2	N 3	D 4	SD 5
19	I have *no* fear of giving a speech.					
20	*Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.					
21	I feel relaxed while giving a speech.					
22	*My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.					
23	I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.					
24	*While giving a speech, I get so nervous that I forget facts I really know.					

Source:

McCroskey, J. C. (1982) *An introduction to rhetorical communication* (4th Ed). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall. Retrieved from: http://www.jamescmccroskey.com/measures/prca24.htm

Appendix B
General Perceived Self Efficacy Scale

Dear student,

This Questionnaire consists of ten statements concerning your general self-efficacy. Please indicate in the space provided the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether each statement is **(1) Not at all true, (2) Hardly true, (3) Moderately true, or (4) Exactly true.**

Sex: Male ☐ **Female** ☐

Level: Sophomore ☐ **Junior** ☐ **Senior** ☐

		Not at all true	Hardly true	ately	Exactly true
		1	2	3	4
1	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough				
2	If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.				
3	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.				
4	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.				
5	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations				
6	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.				
7	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.				
8	When I am confronted with a problem, I can				

	usually find several solutions.				
9	If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.				
10	I can usually handle whatever comes my way.				