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Teaching Strategies to Cope with Foreign Language Learners' Speaking Anxiety:

The case of Second-Year EFL Students of Mostaganem University

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Dedication

This Doctoral thesis is dedicated to my dear father,

who with love and effort has accompanied me, during the writing process,

without hesitating at any moment to see my dreams come true.

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Abstract

Foreign language anxiety (FLA) has been thoroughly investigated and debated over the last few decades. However, most of the research on FLA has mainly focused on young and beginner language learners while scant attention has been devoted to adult and advanced-level learners. For this reason, the present study investigates foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA) from an advanced-level perspective. More specifically, it seeks to examine FLCSA among second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University by identifying its sources/causes and major symptoms that the participants manifest in the Oral Expression classroom. Besides, it aims at investigating the effectiveness of using specific anxiety-coping teaching strategies to overcome the students' FLCSA. To this end, the study involves two stages, each of which adopts a mixed-method approach. In the first stage, the FLCSA of 50 participants is investigated quantitively through two questionnaires: the students' background questionnaire and the modified foreign language classroom anxiety scale (MFLCAS) questionnaire. Moreover, their anxiety symptoms are analysed qualitatively using classroom observation. The second stage, however, was conducted to verify whether the implementation of the anxiety-coping teaching strategies was effective in mitigating the students' FLCSA. For this purpose, both qualitative and quantitative investigation tools were employed. This involved a teacher interview, post-study classroom observation, a post-study MFLCAS questionnaire and a post-study student interview. The gleaned data revealed that the participants experienced a moderate FLCSA. The potential sources of their anxiety included communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Furthermore, the study also presented numerous symptoms indicative of the participants' negative affect. All in all, the implementation of the anxiety-coping teaching strategies was fruitful in alleviating the participants' FLCSA.

Keywords: advanced-level, anxiety-coping teaching strategies, anxiety sources, anxiety symptoms, Foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA)

Résumé

L'anxiété langagière a fait l'objet d'enquêtes et de débats approfondis au cours des dernières décennies. Cependant, la plupart des recherches sur l'anxiété liée à l'apprentissage des langues étrangères se sont principalement concentrées sur les nouveaux apprenants de langues (débutants), tandis que peu d'attention a été accordée aux apprenants adultes à des niveaux plus avancés. Par conséquent, cette étude est basée sur l'anxiété langagière des étudiants à un niveau avancé en production orale. L'étude examine plus précisément l'anxiété langagière parmi les étudiants de deuxième année licence anglais à l'Université de Mostaganem. Son but est d'identifier ses sources, ses causes ainsi que ses principaux symptômes manifestés par les participants en classe. En outre, l'étude vise à explorer l'efficacité des stratégies d'enseignement spécifique pour maîtriser l'anxiété langagière des étudiants. L'étude adopte des approches à méthodes mixtes en deux étapes. Dans un premier temps, l'anxiété langagière des 50 participants est étudiée quantitativement à travers deux questionnaires : le premier concerne les antécédents des étudiants et le second se base sur le questionnaire FLCAS. En plus, d'une analyse qualitative fondée sur des observations des symptômes d'anxiété de la production orale chez les étudiants d'anglais (langue étrangère : ALE). La deuxième étape, vérifie l'efficacité de la mise en œuvre des stratégies d'enseignement de gestion de l'anxiété à atténuer l'anxiété langagière des étudiants. Pour cela, des outils d'investigation qualitatifs et quantitatifs ont été utilisés. Cela a impliqué les post-études suivantes : un entretien avec 15 enseignants, une observation en classe, un questionnaire FLCAS aux étudiants et en dernier un entretien avec les étudiants. Les données recueillies après le test d'anxiété ont révélé que les participants ont connu une anxiété langagière modérée. En outre, l'étude a également présenté de nombreux symptômes indiquant des émotions négatives parmi les participants. Dans l'ensemble, la mise en œuvre des stratégies d'enseignement de gestion de l'anxiété a été fructueuse et a pu atténuer l'anxiété langagière des participants.

Mots-clés : *Anxiété langagière, niveau avancé, symptômes d'anxiété, sources d'anxiété, stratégies d'enseignement pour atténuer l'anxiété langagière.*

ملخص

حظي القلق اللغوي بعدة دراسات على مدار العقود الماضية. لكن معظم هذه الدراسات ركزت على المتعلمين الصغار والمبتدئين، فحين تم إيلاء القليل من الاهتمام للمتعلمين البالغين و المتقدمين. لذلك تتناول هذه الدراسة قلق التحدث باللغة الأجنبية بين صفوف طلاب السنة الثانية لغة إنجليزية بجامعة مستغانم وذلك من خلال تحديد مصادر هذا النوع من القلق وأهم الأعراض الناتجة عنه حسبما اظهرها الطلاب المشاركون في هذا البحث داخل الفصل الدراسي.

كما تهدف هذه الدراسة الى اختبار مدى فعالية استخدام استراتيجيات التدريس لإدارة القلق في التغلب على هذه الظاهرة لدى طلاب اللغات الأجنبية. و من اجل تحقيق هذه الغاية، تشتمل هذه الدراسة على مرحلتين تحتوي كل واحدة منهما على مناهج بحث مختلفة. تضمنت المرحلة الأولى دراسة القلق اللغوي لدى 50 طالبا مشاركا من خلال استبيانين ، يتعلق الأول بخلفية الطلاب ، بينما يخص الثاني مقياس قلق الأقسام الدراسية الأجنبية (FLCAS) الذي طوّره هورويتز وآخرون سنة 1986 كأداة للدّراسة ، بالإضافة إلى تحليل أعراض القلق اللغوي لديهم باستخدام الملاحظة الصّفية.

أما المرحلة الثانية فهي تهدف إلى التحقق من فعالية استعمال استراتيجيات التدريس لإدارة القلق في التخفيف من القلق اللغوي لدى الطلاب. لهذا الغرض، تم الاستعانة بعدة وسائل بحث بعد الدّراسة، تمثلت في مقابلة مع 15 أستاذا، ملاحظة صّفية للطلاب ، وأخيرا مقابلة مع الطلاب الأكثر عرضة للقلق. وأسفرت النتائج المستسقاة أن المشاركين عانوا من القلق اللّغوي الذي تعود أسبابه إلى القلق الإدراكي التواصلي ، الخوف من التقييم السلبي والقلق الاختباري. كما برهنت هذه الدّراسة على أنّ استراتيجيات التدريس المستخدمة لإدارة القلق أتثبت فعاليتها في التغلب على هذا العائق لدى الطلاب المشاركين .

الكلمات المفتاحية: القلق اللغوي ، المستوى المتقدم ، أعراض القلق ، مصادر القلق ، استراتيجيات التدريس لإدارة القلق.

List of Abbreviations and acronyms

ACTFL: American council on the teaching of foreign languages

AFH: Affective Filter Hypothesis

ALM: Audio-lingual Method

AMTB: Attitude Motivation Test Battery

AUM: Anxiety/Uncertainty Management

AUT: Anxiety/Uncertainty Theory

CA: Communication Apprehension

CA: Communicative Approach

CBT: Content-Based Task

CC: Communicative Competence

CCA: Classroom Communication Apprehension

CELTS: Certificate in English language Teaching- Secondary

CF: Corrective Feedback

CM: Concern over Mistakes

DA: Doubts about Actions

DM: Direct Method

DMIS: Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

FL: Foreign Language

FLAS: Foreign language Anxiety Scale

FLCA: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

FLCAS: Foreign Language Learning Anxiety Scale

FLCSA: Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Anxiety

FLRA: Foreign Language Reading Anxiety

FLSA: Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

FLT: Foreign Language Teaching

GPA: Grade Point Average.

GTM: Grammar Translation Method

IATEFL: International Association for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

ICC: Intercultural Communicative Competence

IDs: Individual Differences

IPM: Information Processing Model

L1. First Language

LA: Listening Anxiety

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

LLSs: Language Learning Strategies

LB: Learning Beliefs

MFLCAS: Modified Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

MT: Mother Tongue

O: Organization

O.E: Oral Expression

PC: Parental Criticism

PE: Parental Expectations

PS: Personal Standards,

RA: Reading Anxiety

SA: Speaking Anxiety

SL: Second Language

SLTA: Second language tolerance of ambiguity

TA: Test Anxiety

TBI: Task-Based Instruction

WA: Writing Anxiety

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General Introduction

General Introduction

It is commonly known that the main concern of applied linguistics is the study of second and foreign language acquisition. However, the latter, as acknowledged by many researchers, is an intriguing issue. Despite a great deal of effort and resources spent on it, foreign language learners do not necessarily reveal promising outcomes in terms of achievement. Starting from the concept that second and foreign language learning is a process that goes beyond the mere memorization of linguistic structures, words, and rules, many experts in applied linguistics agree that foreign language acquisition operates multi-dimensionally including learners' behavioural, cognitive, social, and affective attributes.

Affect refers to what crops up inside an individual. It seems to represent a major concern among foreign language teachers. This concern is relevant; as according to experts in the field, feelings such as interest, beliefs, attitudes, desire, motivation, and anxiety among others, may either contribute to or hinder foreign language learning (FLL). This study focuses on one of the aforementioned affective variables which is anxiety in the context of second/foreign language learning.

Actually, classroom teachers have observed on several occasions the apprehension and discomfort that many students experience when attempting to acquire or use a foreign language. Such a feeling of fear or anxiety seems frequently to become particularly worse when students are required to speak in class. These personal observations have been maintained by many researchers who have examined anxiety in foreign language learners. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), for example, assert that "anxiety poses several potential problems for the students of a foreign language because it can interfere with the acquisition, retention; and production of the knowledge." (p.86)

It is worth noting that growing research stretching from the mid-1970s onwards indicates that classroom speaking anxiety commonly affects foreign language learners. In fact, people, who are good learners in other subject areas, can experience anxiety when learning a foreign language. Nevertheless, foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA) is not only apparent at lower levels of foreign language use but is also identified at higher levels of proficiency.

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Significantly, however, while considerable research has been conducted at the beginning stages of language learning, relatively little is known about anxiety at a more advanced level. For this reason, the present inquiry examines FLCSA in relation to university-level EFL learners in two stages. The first stage of the study investigates FLCSA among second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University by identifying its sources and major symptoms that students display in the EFL-speaking classroom. The second stage, however, aims to check whether the implementation of the anxiety-coping teaching strategies was effective in overcoming the students' FLCSA.

The reason for choosing this topic results from my personal experience as a part-time English teacher of the Oral Expression Module at Mostaganem University (2006-2011). Actually, right from the first session, I felt extremely bored and disappointed because a large majority of my students were anxious and frustrated when required to express themselves orally during the speaking tutorial. Consequently, I became interested in finding out the reasons as well as the major symptoms of FLCSA that students manifest in the EFL-speaking classroom. Investigating the effectiveness of specific anxiety-coping teaching strategies was also among my major concerns throughout this research work.

Interestingly, the study addresses five objectives:(1) to examine whether second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University experience FLCSA in their Oral Expression class,(2) to identify the main reasons behind the students' FLCSA, (3) to highlight the major symptoms of the students' FLCSA,(4)to identify whether second- year EFL students of Mostaganem University use any coping strategies to overcome their speaking anxiety,(5) to examine the effectiveness of anxiety-coping teaching strategies in alleviating the students' FLCSA.

To fulfil these objectives, the study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1- To what extent do second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University experience foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLC SA) in their Oral Expression classes?

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- What are the causes /sources of FLC SA among second-year EFL students at

  Mostaganem University?

- Which symptoms manifest their FLCSA?

- Do second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University use any coping strategies to overcome their FLCSA?

2- How far is the implementation of anxiety-coping teaching strategies effective in coping with FLCAS of second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University?

To answer these questions, the following hypotheses are tested.

1. Second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University might experience a moderate FLCSA.

- Lack of vocabulary, lack of self-confidence, and poor pronunciation may be the main sources of students' FLCSA.
- Silence, blushing, and forgetting words are possible indicators that reveal the students' FLCSA.
- Second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University might use some coping strategies to overcome their FLCSA.

2. The implementation of anxiety-coping teaching strategies might be effective in coping with FLCAS of second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University

The findings displayed that second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University experienced FLCSA when speaking in the Oral Expression class. Concerning the sources of their speaking anxiety, the findings revealed that the participants' anxiety was due to communication apprehension (CA), fear of negative evaluation (FNE), and test anxiety (TA). Regarding the symptoms, the participants revealed many behaviours indicative of

speaking anxiety which is related to the literature. Finally, the application of the anxiety-coping teaching strategies was fruitful in alleviating the participants' FLCSA.

Furthermore, in light of the results of this investigation, EFL classroom teachers are assisted to get a better understanding of the connection between the cognitive and affective aspects of language learning. They are stimulated to pay more attention to what goes on inside their FL learners and are more motivated to improve their teaching strategies to enhance the learners' speaking skills and aid them to overcome any negative emotions they may experience in the FL-speaking classroom. Furthermore, since teaching speaking in the Algerian University EFL context is still traditional, these findings pave the way for more research in the field of pedagogy to reinforce the creation of a conductive and less threatening classroom atmosphere for EFL learners.

Admittedly, the current study will help fill the gap in the existing literature/knowledge and introduce teachers to effective strategies for teaching speaking and enhancing EFL students' speaking proficiency. Certainly, it is high time teachers of speaking reconsidered their classroom behaviours and practices. In other terms, instead of being authoritarian, they should be friendly and outgoing. Besides, instead of overcorrecting, they should be more tolerant towards errors and provide positive feedback. Furthermore, teachers should also provide their students adequate time to prepare before speaking and permit them to work in collaboration by advocating pair and group work. This will contribute to creating a relaxing and less threatening environment in the EFL-speaking classroom. I hope this research will add to the literature on this topic and prompt further research in the Algerian context.

The thesis is divided into four chapters. The first chapter presents an overview of the literature in the field of affect. It outlines prominent theoretical contributions introduced by pioneers in the field by focusing on foreign language anxiety, its types, causes, and symptoms in addition to its different effects on language learning aspects, chiefly among them, the speaking skill.

Chapter two deals with speaking as a language skill and the way it relates to FLA. Specifically, the focus is on the nature of speaking and the stages of its development.

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Besides, the types of speaking activities and error correction are also expounded in depth. The concluding part of this chapter, however, emphasizes the main coping strategies that both learners and teachers utilize to manage anxiety in the FL-speaking classroom.

The third chapter represents the first stage of the study. It involves the research methodology and the context of the research by presenting the methods of data collection and analysis. It also answers the first research question with its three sub-questions. Hence, for this purpose, three research instruments were employed: two questionnaires and classroom observation. Both questionnaires were directed to students to respond to. The first is a background questionnaire that is intended to gather background information about the student participants. The second, which is a modified version of the foreign language classroom anxiety scale (Horwitz, et al.1986), aimed to measure the students' participant level of FLCA and detect its main sources in the first stage of the study. To grant more validity and reliability to the study, a structured classroom observation was carried out to identify the anxious students' symptoms of FLCSA.

The last chapter covers the second stage of the study. It also presents the methods of data collection tools in the same context of the study. It attempts to answer the second research question. To this end, four research instruments were utilized: a teachers' interview, a post-study students' classroom observation, a post-study Horwitz et al's (1986) MFLCAS, and a post-study student interview. The teacher's interview aimed to gather data about the teacher participants' perceptions of FLCSA and their attitudes toward overcoming it. The post-study student classroom observation, the post-study Horwitz et al.'s (1986) MFLCAS, and the post-study student interview were conducted to examine whether the application of the anxiety-coping teaching strategies was effective in alleviating FLCAS of second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University. To conclude, some limitations and suggestions are provided for further research in the area of FLCSA, teaching speaking, and anxiety coping strategies.

Chapter One

Anxiety as a Key Affective Factor in Foreign Language Learning

1.1.   Introduction

Since the end of the 1970s, the field of ESL / EFL education witnessed the emergence of a new perspective on language teaching and learning. The conventional roles of instructors and learners were redefined and previous authoritarian teaching practices were replaced by learner-centred classrooms. Furthermore, the aim of education was not merely to develop the cognitive and linguistic abilities of learners but also to pay attention to the learners' emotions and feelings. Indeed, there was growing research on individual differences in language learning due to affective factors. One of these factors is foreign language anxiety (FLA). This chapter attempts to reveal insights into humanistic education by highlighting concepts such as affect and emotions and their role in language learning, Yet, the focus will be specifically on the nature of foreign language anxiety, its types, sources, causes, and symptoms in addition to its impact on the various aspects of language learning, mainly speaking.

1.2. Affect

Affect is a term that is essentially related to the area of emotions, feelings, beliefs, moods, and attitudes, which extensively influence human behaviour. Educational psychologists have attributed several definitions to the word affect, all of which seem to pour into the same vessel. According to Jack.C.Richard and Richard Schmidt (1985), "affect is a term referring to a number of emotional factors that may influence language learning and use" (p.16). This definition covers all the aspects that may influence the emotional state of the language learner, which is often reflected in his attitude, motivation, and engagement in the learning activity. In the same line of thought, Jane and Douglas Brown (1999) stated that "the term affect has to do with aspects of our emotional beings" (cited in Jane Arnold,1999, p.1). Actually, such an inextricable relationship between affect and emotion appeals to exploring the meaning of the latter.

1.3. Emotion

Defining a concept like emotion is equally not an easy task. Some researchers seem to refer to emotions as feelings and feelings as emotional states. However, Damasio (1994) distinguishes between the terms emotions which refer to "changes in body state in

response to a positive or negative situation" and feelings which denote "perceptions of these changes" (cited in Arnold,1999, p.1). In other words, feelings refer to the interpretation and subsequent perception of the nature of emotion. It is the admission of the impact -be it positive or negative- that a situation brings on an individual.

With regard to emotion, however, it has a reactive nature. It is the change that shows up in the psychical or physical state of the individual when exposed to a given positive or negative situation. Emotion is, therefore, a kind of reflex that immediately emanates the effect of the situation on the individual. According to John Marshall Reeve (2005), "emotions are short-lived, feeling arousal-purposive- expressive phenomena that help us adapt to the opportunities and challenges we face during important life events" (p.294). The feeling component, in this sense, mirrors the personal experience we usually associate with emotion. The second component, arousal, which in psychology represents mental alertness, refers to the physical responses that follow particular emotions, such as when heart rate and blood pressure increase during anxiety. The third component is purposive, referring to the goal-directness of emotion. Finally, the expressive component provides emotion with social and communicative dimensions; for instance, spontaneous facial expressions are related to universal emotions and are likely to be easy to read. Yet, emotions are more than the sum of these constituents. An emotion emanates from the combination of these four aspects of experience (MacIntyre P. & Gregerson T., 2012)

Indeed, emotion is a much more complex mental construction, and according to Bigelow M. (2019), most past and current research on emotion complies to acknowledge that:

1. Emotions are not just intra-psychological or bio-physiological phenomena.

2. Emotions are communicated, displayed, displayed, and responded to through a range of multi-semiotic resources.

3. Emotions are actively managed and regulated.

4. Emotions take objects/objects take emotions.

Bigelow, M. (2019, p.524)

Accordingly, emotions are not psychological experiences. They are essentially social and contextual. They are also affected by one's language, culture, world views, personal histories, and affiliations. People do not merely have emotions; they also endure, perceive, assess, express, and even exchange, transfer or confront them at a given moment and through time. Furthermore, emotions are not only voiced through affective expressions but also via other paralinguistic features such as silence, gestures, facial expressions intonation. Additionally, emotions are actively coped with. That is individuals are likely to respond to their contexts and feelings in ways that embrace some emotions and repress others. This involves the use of coping strategies to deal *with* both positive and negative emotions. Finally, emotions are addressed to specific people, things, places, times, activities, or circumstances. Reciprocally, those *"sticky objects"* (Ahmed,2015) invoke a particular kind of emotion. For instance, a student may feel upset when getting a bad mark. Similarly, a hard classroom activity may also render a student frustrated when attempting to perform it.

As cited above, definitions of emotions vary considerably among academics owing to the complicated nature of emotions and the short life span of people. Furthermore, even when the literature on emotions, though awash with definitions, has been inconsistent in offering one comprehensive definition of emotions. This can be due to a diverse spectrum of perspectives at play-philosophical, psychological, sociological, and historical to mention a few (Abou-Assali, 2013).

In the educational field, however, endeavours have been made to explicate the nature of emotions, with an emphasis on the negative ones such as stress and test anxiety (Anttilla et al, 2016). In a similar vein, Pekrum (2005) is recognized for the concept of *academic emotions*. This refers to the range of emotions felt while studying, teaching, and taking part in other academic activities. Though the bulk of such investigations have focused on (apparently) negative emotions such as guilt, fear, and academic loneliness, Pekrum also highlighted positive emotions like enjoyment, thankfulness, awe, interest, and contentment, which add to the variety of emotional states people might have at any given time. Therefore, it is possible to think of emotions as prior states that feed cognitive and behavioural reactions and responses to certain stimuli.

1.4. Affect and Language Learning

Recognizing the significance of affect and the importance of incorporating it in the educational setting came into being in the second half of the nineteenth century. However, interest in it did not come out of the blue but can be traced back to a long time ago. In the seventeenth century, *Comenius* recognized the importance of the affective factors believing that it was critical to engage all the senses in the classroom to promote communication and to build a positive relationship between the teacher and the learner. Furthermore, when the humanism movement reached its peak in the 1970s, more attention was paid to the affective domain. By the same token, the 1990s witnessed a great interest in affect in the educational field. According to Oxford (1990), "the affective side of the learner is probably one of the very biggest influences on language learning success or failure" (p.140). In the same vein, she asserted that

> … negative feelings can stunt progress, even for the rare learner who fully understands all the technical aspects of how to learn a language. On the other hand, positive emotions and attitudes can make language learning far more effective and enjoyable

> (p.140)

Indeed, there is a common awareness of the primacy of affect in language learning and the pivotal role it plays in its success or failure. Actually, who says affect says humanism. Such an extricable relation between effect and humanism was well accentuated by Widdowson (1991) who said:

> The main aim of humanistic approaches is to draw the learner into an affective engagement with the learning process, and to make classroom activities meaningful as experiences which involve the individual as a whole person. They serve as a valuable corrective to approaches of the kind that a behaviourist view might encourage, approaches which impose conformity on learners, reduce the scope of their participation as learners, and deny them the exercise of individual initiative in the learning process.

> Widdowson (1991, p. 13)

The intimate rapport between affect and humanism necessitates a considerable reflection on the meaning of the latter.

1.5. Humanism

Early humanism emerged in Europe in the 15th century as a reaction to the narrow-minded philosophical and academic doctrine of the church. However, in English, the term humanism first appeared in print in the nineteenth century and was a translation of the recently coined German word *"humanismus"*. This term had been and was still used in Germany with a spectrum of connotations in several social and intellectual discussions. When it first entered the English language, however, the term humanism carried two different meanings. The first, in historical writings like those of Jacob Burckhardt and J.A.Symonds, was used in retrospect to revive classical education in European Renaissance and the intellectual thought sparked by its revival. The second was deployed to refer to a more modern state of mind. Throughout the nineteenth century, the adherents of humanism were called "h*umanists*", and the term was frequently utilized to denote generally a variety of non-religious, or non-Christian orientations to life. Though it could be derogatory, the term was often used positively (Andrew, Copson, 2015).

In the mid-20th century, humanism entered the domain of psychology giving birth to the humanistic movement. Launched by clinical psychologists, social workers, and counsellors, this movement emerged as a response to behaviourism and psychoanalysis. Actually, humanistic psychology acquired popularity in the 1950s under three prominent figures in this area.

To begin with, Erik Erikson (1963) is generally known for drawing his ideas from Sigmond Freud. Yet he contended that '*human psychological development*' depends not only on how people progress through "predetermined *maturational stages*", but also on the societal obstacles they face at different points of their lives. Erikson (1963) termed this the basic *"epigenetic principle"*. Another one is Abraham Maslow (1968), who introduced his famous hierarchy of needs-deficiency (or maintenance) needs and being (or growth) needs. Deficiency needs are directly tied to an individual's psychological or biological balance, such as the requirements for food, water, or sleep. Being needs are associated with the realization of each person's potential development. The third one is Rogers (1969), who argued that while learning is a human trait; it only occurs when the subject matter is seen to be of personal significance by the learners and when they are actively engaged in the learning process. Though these three humanists have distinct ideas, their assumptions are all

related to humanism and stimulated the interest of many language educators to conduct research in this area.

1.6. The Humanistic Approach

The humanistic approach is a language teaching method that accentuates the 'inner world' of the learner and prioritizes the individual's thoughts, feelings, and emotions over all other aspects of human development. Under this approach, the focus of language teaching shifted from the previous behaviouristic and mentalist traditions into what is known as humanistic education. Accordingly, the classical roles of teachers and learners were reconsidered and the previously authoritarian teaching practices were replaced by learner-centred classrooms.

Similarly, their learners' multiple perspectives were valued and their errors were tolerated. Additionally, cooperative activities such as pair work and group work were encouraged as they permitted the learners to convey their ideas without pressure or anxiety. Actually, as the classroom activities represented an integral part of the instructional practices, the teachers paid special attention to them. In this regard, Moskovitz (1978, cited in Johnson & Johnson,1998) highlighted numerous features of humanistic classroom activities, among which are the following:

- They should emphasize the positive and shun the negative focus.
- Low risk: the activities should not represent a personal threat to the learners.
- Activities should give the learners the chance to speak in front of others about things they like about themselves.
- They should prompt the learners to look at their peers and emphasis seeing the *beauty of others.*
- Linguistically, learners should be given the chance to use language for communication.
- Activities should be built in such a way as to enhance vocabulary.

Furthermore, within humanistic classrooms, the role of the teacher shifted from a knowledge provider into a facilitator of learning. In lay terms, he had to focus more on how to learn than what to learn. In this vein, Underhill (1999) classified teachers into three categories. Lecturers who only have the academic know-how of the subject; teachers, who not only know the subject but are also acquainted with the methods and strategies of teaching such a subject; and facilitators who, in addition to their knowledge of the academic subject and methods are also familiar with the psychological atmosphere of the learning process. In fact, only the last category is associated with the humanistic approach.

Besides, up to Underhill, there are seven points that the teacher should pay attention to if he wishes to be a real facilitator: 1) the way he listens; 2) the way he speaks; 3) his use of power and authority;4) his attention to the process in the group;5) noticing his own attitudes and beliefs;6) reconsidering problems, seeing things differently; 7) his own inner state.

More importantly, from the humanistic approach, there arose three prominent methodologies-the silent way, suggestopedia, and community language learning. The silent way (SW) was devised by Gattegno (1972). It is based on the premise that the teacher should remain as silent as possible when the learners are engaged in learning. Besides, the silent way pertains to a tradition that considers learning as a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity, in which the learner is the main actor rather than a bench-bound listener (Bruner, 1966).

Suggestopedia is a method developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator GeorgiLozanov (1978). It is based on the principle that individuals can learn more if their minds are uncluttered with other things and also free of anxiety. It also places special emphasis on the use of decoration, furniture, and arrangement of the classroom in addition to the use of music.

Community of language learning (CLL) was established by Charles, A. Curran (1972). The latter was a counsellor and professor of psychology at Loyola University, Chicago. CLL advocates the use of counselling learning theory in teaching languages. In other words, learners sit in a circle as a community and decide what they want to say. Besides, under CLL, the teacher acts as a *counsellor* and learners as *clients* in the language classroom.

According to William and Burden (1997), the aforementioned three methodologies share many things in common. First, they are based on psychology rather than linguistics. Second, they all recognize the significance of affective factors in language learning. Third, they are all concerned with treating the learner as a *whole -person* who is fully involved in the learning process. Fourth, all of them value the learning atmosphere that reduces tension and boosts personal safety.

In a similar vein, Moskowitz (1978) referred to what he called humanistic techniques as those that:

blend what the student feels, thinks, and knows with what he is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable way of life, self-actualization and self-esteem are the ideals the exercises pursue.[The techniques] help build rapport, cohesiveness, and caring that far transcends what is already there…help students to be themselves, and be proud of themselves…help foster a climate of caring and sharing.

Moskowitz (1978, p.2)

To sum up, the humanistic methods involve the whole -person encompassing emotions and feelings (the affective field) in addition to linguistic competence and behavioural skills.

1.7. Empathy

In the previous section, the foreign language learner was explored from a psycho-affective perspective. A perspective that attempted to shed light on the learner's emotional construct and to allow an understanding of the way the learner feels about himself. In the present section, however, the learner is explored from another angle; from the second affective chunk that examines the way the learner perceives himself in connection with others around him. As the foreign language classroom is a space that encompasses not only the learner but also other significant elements such as the teacher and classmates, empathy is a key concept worth investigating.

Empathy is one of the major components of the success of social communication. It refers to one's ability to infer his interlocutors' feelings and thoughts from their statements and to interact with them accordingly. It represents a condition for persistent and harmonious interpersonal exchange. Brown, H.D. (2000) defined empathy as "… the projection of one's own personality into the personality of another in order to understand him or her better…" (p.153).

Indeed, as Brown, H.D. (2000) added, the success of any social interaction depends largely on empathy. In other terms, to achieve effective communication, one needs to have a certain understanding of the other interlocutor's affective and cognitive states; otherwise, communication breakdown will culminate. This occurs especially when false assumptions are inferred from the other individual's state.

1.8. Flow

Mihilayi Csikszentmihalyi (1990), a psychologist at Chicago University, introduced the term flow in the field of education. Flow is defined as a psychological state characterised by intense focus and entire involvement that leads to enhanced performance on a given task. Generally, learning is fraught with challenges that require much time and effort. Under the state of flow, however, learning becomes a source of pleasure and enjoyment. According to Cain (2012), "flow is an optimal state in which you feel totally engaged in an activity…In a state of flow, you are neither bored nor anxious and you do not question your own adequacy. Hours pass without your noticing" (p.130).

As Cain expressed above, flow is an affective state that has many advantages for the learners. First, it enables them to be entirely involved in a given task. Second, it permits the elimination of all types of negative emotions that hinder learning. Third, it provides the learner with a sense of self-efficacy that contributes to raising his motivation.

Furthermore, up to Csikszentmihalyi (1990), certain affective states are determined by various combinations of high and low challenges and skills. To illustrate, unlike boredom which occurs under the condition of high skill and low challenge, flow is the outcome of the combination of high skill and high challenge. This is well demonstrated as follows:
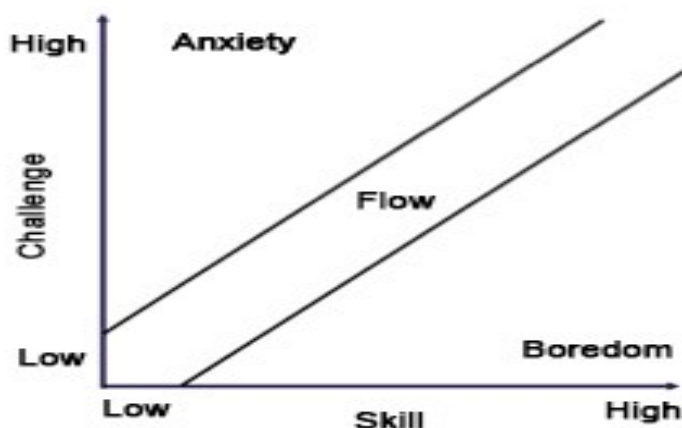
Figure1: Csikszentmihalyi's 3 Channel Model, 1990, p.74)

Actually, as demonstrated in the diagram above, one cannot do the same thing at the same level. That is, if a highly skillful learner is assigned an easy or less challenging task, he will automatically feel bored and apathetic. In the same way, if the learners' skills are limited while the task is challenging, they will develop negative feelings such as frustration and anxiety.

1.9. Defining Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

Various researchers have examined foreign language anxiety (FLA) and dealt with it from different angles. However, from a broader point of view, FLA refers to the feeling of uneasiness, worry, nervousness, and apprehension experienced in learning or using a second/foreign language. In this regard, MacIntyre and Gardner define *it* as 'the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning (1994, p. 284). In the same way, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1991) conceptualize 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" (p31). It seems that the above definitions converge in that anxiety is that uncomfortable emotional state in which one feels powerless, nervous, and experiences tension in preparation for a probable danger.

Significantly**,** learning a foreign language can be a dreadful experience. The apprehension and the pressure on students to perform well in the foreign language cause them anxiety that is particular to the second language classroom. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1991) conceptualize 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." (p31)

In the same line of thought, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) in Davies and Elder (2006, pp.40-41) suggested that language anxiety occurs at each of the three main stages of the language acquisition process. In the input stage, anxiety is *a function* of the learner's capacity to manage unfamiliar external stimuli, in the central processing stage, it is provoked when the learner endeavours to store and organize input. In the output phase, however, anxiety arises as a result of the learner's struggle to retrieve previously learned material. It is worth mentioning that in each phase, anxiety can hinder the working of the key processes.

In connection to language anxiety, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994**)** consider anxiety as"the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language

contexts including speaking, listening, and learning*"* (p.884) input*,* and in the output stage*,* anxiety occurs as an outcome of the learner's trial to retrieve previously learned material. It is worth mentioning that in each phase, anxiety can hinder the working of the key processes.

Based on the definitions above, it can be stated that language anxiety is the feeling of worry and discomfort that accompanies a person following a foreign language class. It should be noted that such anxiety can provoke several problems in the acquisition, retention, and production of language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991) which ultimately badly affects their grades, as compared to their more relaxed peers.

1.10. Facilitative Vs. Debilitating Anxiety

Foreign language anxiety has been said by many researchers to influence language learning. In common parlance, the notion of anxiety carries many negative implications. It is mainly associated with inhibitory effects on the learner. Nevertheless, many psychologists admit that despite the unpleasant associations we may have with anxiety, it is not a bad thing in itself. On the contrary, experiencing moderate anxiety can be helpful and urges learners to do better than they might otherwise (Allwright & Bailey). Therefore, researchers distinguish between two types of anxiety: debilitating and facilitating.

Debilitating anxiety is the kind of anxiety that significantly hinders the learner's performance. It motivates him to assume an avoidance attitude and therefore withdraw from the language tasks (Scovel 1978 cited in Moira, 2006, P.1-2). Furthermore, high levels of anxiety may influence badly the students' concentration, their process of information, as well as their ability to recall information from long-term memory. Hence, in such challenging learning situations, the learner finds himself overwhelmed by debilitating anxiety. In this connection, Shiller (2009) contended that "the primary enemy that inhibits the effective use of the processes of curiosity and imagination is anxiety …anxiety is the emotional response that undermines their efficacy" (Shiller, 2009:82).

Debilitating anxiety has been found to operate in two ways. First, it invades the learner before he accomplishes his learning tasks. Here, the learner doubts his capacity for the given activities. Therefore, he finds it unnecessary to add any step forward, the result of which cannot be anything but failure, frustration, and disappointment. In this respect, Arnold (1999) says that such kinds of learners "… are submerged in a helpless state that

engulfs them and they feel that they cannot possibly achieve their goals, no matter what they do."(Arnold 1999). Second, debilitating anxiety attacks the learner right through the learning experience. Thus, at the first obstacle in the activity, seriously harmful thoughts raid the learner and disperse his concentration. Therefore, many questions come to his mind and he starts wondering '*Am I fit for this task?' 'What if I fail? 'How would the teacher see my performance?* '*Wouldn't I be laughable in front of my classmates*? Hence, the probable answer he will arrive at will be of the kind *'I'd better not to do the task at all.* 'Such negative fears prevent the learner from moving forward. He spends much of the time allotted to the task thinking about unanswerable questions instead of concentrating on the learning activity.

Educational psychologists have investigated further the notion of debilitating anxiety for a better understanding of its nature. Heron (1999) mentioned three interconnected components of anxiety that affect the learner in the language classroom. *Acceptance anxiety, orientation anxiety,* and *performance anxiety*. The first calls into question the possibility of his integration within the class and the way his peers perceive his presence. The second question is whether the learner possesses enough potential to be identified with the group and ensure self-reliance in fortuitous situations. The third leads him to question the quality of his performance in the target language such as his ability to execute certain tasks given. Heron (1999) explains each of the three components of debilitating anxiety through the questions the learner may ask himself.

> Acceptance anxiety: will I be accepted, liked, wanted? Or will I be rejected, disliked, and unwanted? Orientation anxiety: will I understand what is going on? Will I be able to make sense of this situation so that I can find some kind of identity within it? Performance anxiety: will I be able to do what I have come to learn? Will I be able to control the situation to meet my needs?
>
> (Heron, 1999, p. 5 9)

Such types of anxiety are likely to deprive the learner of his will to engage actively in the language learning process. Therefore, many responsibilities fall on the language teacher to drive away such illusions and help him enter the language classroom with determination and self-confidence. Nonetheless, specialists in educational psychology claim that the total removal of anxiety is, in itself, harmful to learner engagement. The learner

should have a minimal degree of anxiety that is expected to ensure seriousness and persistence. This is known as facilitating anxiety.

Indeed experiencing moderate anxiety, psychologists say, can be helpful and facilitate the learner's engagement in the new learning task. It can serve as a motivator and lead to better oral performance. Without it, however, learning can be a senseless and boring experience. Some psychologists prefer to term it "tension" instead. For them, the latter sounds milder. In this connection, Fitz Clarence and Webster (2004) argue "there is educative value in provoking a certain level of anxiety in learners to enable them to participate actively in significant meaning-making."(Fitz Clarence and Webster 2004:429)

This serves the learner in many ways. First, the learning process certainly represents a new experience for the learner, in which he is required to make a move from the known to the unknown. Thus, some tension seems to impose itself as a necessity for prompting his curiosity and his will to discover new things. Second, facilitating anxiety in any learning experience occurs when the difficulty level of the task sparks the proper amount of anxiety (Scovel, 1978 cited in Zheng, 2008, p.2). Such anxiety motivates the learner to make excessive efforts to take risks as part of his language acquisition process and learn more about the foreign language. As Young explains, "facilitating anxiety is an increase in drive level which results in improved performance" (1986, p.440). It is in this sense that facilitating anxiety has a motivational role and leads to better language performance.

1.11. Types of Anxiety

Psychologists make a distinction between three types of anxiety: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety.

1.11.1 Trait anxiety

Trait anxiety, as MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, p.87) refer to it, denotes a more permanent personality characteristic. That is an individual suffering from this type is more likely to be nervous or feel anxious regardless of the situation he/she is exposed to. It is provoked by the confrontation with the threat. Indeed, such anxiety is part of a person's character and therefore is permanent and difficult, if not impossible to get rid of. A person who is a trait

anxious is likely to be highly apprehensive in several objectively non-threatening situations. When anxiety becomes a trait, it might hinder language learning.

1.11.2. Situation-specific Anxiety

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) have also identified another type of anxiety: situation-specific anxiety. It refers to the apprehension experienced by EFL learners in a specific or well-defined situation or events, such as public speaking, examinations, or class participation. However, individuals who suffer from situation-specific anxiety may consider certain events as anxiety-provoking solely when given factors are present. For example, a student may be anxiety-free when writing an essay in English. However, when asked to write a similar essay in French, a second language, the same student may experience higher levels of anxiety (Pappamihiel, 2002).In the same vein, according to MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, P.90), situation-specific anxiety can be considered as trait anxiety, which is confined to a specific context.

1.11.3. State Anxiety

State anxiety is transient anxiety. It refers to the sense of uneasiness, apprehension, or distress that a language learner may experience as a response to a particular anxiety-provoking stimulus such as an important test. It is worth noting that people with a high level of trait anxiety are usually likely to get an increase in state anxiety, which may have cognitive, behavioural, or physiological manifestations.

Some experts further differentiate the concept of anxiety by distinguishing between cognitive (worry) and affective (emotional) components of anxiety (Schwarzer1986, as cited in Pappamihiel, (2002).In test anxiety research, for instance, such a separation has proven useful: worry and emotionality. Worry is the cognitive dimension of test anxiety which is primarily responsible for performance impairment (Schwarzer 1986). It reflects debilitating thoughts and concerns, such as comparing self-performance to peers, considering the consequences of failure, low levels of self-confidence in performance, feeling unprepared for tests, etc. However, emotionality refers to heightened physiological symptoms stemming from the arousal of the autonomic nervous system and associated affective responses such as dizziness, nausea, or feeling of panic (Libert,& Morris 1967).

Therefore, the cognitive type of anxiety associated with learning is rarely facilitative. The learner has to struggle to change his perspective with the new learning task. However, the other dimension of anxiety: emotionality is less relevant to academic behaviour (Schwarzer 1986).

1.12. Sources of Anxiety

Experts in second/foreign language education suggest that there are special features that provoke anxiety in ESL/EFL learners who in other learning situations would not experience it. Language learning anxiety can be attributed to several factors. In this connection, Young (1991) proposed six interrelated potential sources of language anxiety from three points of view: the learner, the teacher, and the instructional practice. He claimed that language anxiety is caused by (a) personal and interpersonal anxiety, (b) learner beliefs about language learning, (c) instructor beliefs about language teaching, (d) instructor–learner interactions, (e) classroom procedures, and (f) language testing. Other researchers (Horwitz et al;1986; Pappamihiel, 2002) contend that in a foreign language learning context, learners may experience anxiety which can be attributed to problems related to communication apprehension (e.g., difficulty in understanding the teacher's instruction), negative evaluation (e.g., fear of correction and fear of making mistakes) and a general feeling of anxiety (e.g. fear of failing the class). Anxieties related to the learner which ultimately cause anxiety include low self-esteem, competitiveness, self-perceived low level of ability, communication apprehension, lack of group membership, and attitudes and beliefs about language learning (Young, 1994).

Concerning communication apprehension, Horwitz et. al. (1986) found that anxious students disclose that speaking in a foreign language is the most anxiety-provoking experience. In such a linguistic situation, the language learner finds himself in a position of communicating something without a sufficient command of the language to do this task. Therefore, the learner experiences anxiety as a result of fear of losing oneself in the target culture. Furthermore, students 'attitudes and beliefs can also be related to anxiety. Horwitz (1989) found that anxious learners, who consider language learning to be relatively difficult, possess relatively low levels of foreign language aptitude.

Considering teacher factors, judgmental teaching attitude (Samimy1994) and the teacher's harsh manners of teaching are often cited as anxiety-provoking. Furthermore, according to a study conducted by Bandl (1987), the majority of instructors felt "a little bit

of intimidation a necessary and supportive motivator for promoting student's performance" (p.50). Most of them objected to keeping a "too friendly and unauthoritative student-teacher relationship" (p49).In such a learning milieu, the learners often feel intimidated by the teacher and lose the courage to take the risk to participate in the target language class unless they are sure that their utterances are error-free(Samimy, 1994,p.30)

Lastly, institutional anxiety can be attributed to the list of classroom activities (activities suggested by the curriculum that the language learners consider anxiety-provoking. These may include (a) spontaneous role-playing; (b) speaking in front of the class; (c) oral presentations and reports; and writing tasks on the board (Young 1990, Palacio, 1998).

All these factors seem to trigger anxiety levels among learners in the language classroom. However, specialists in the field of education have identified other crucial sources of anxiety that are directly related to the classroom environment. These include communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation.

1.12.1. Communication apprehension (CA)

Communication apprehension refers to the fear and anxiety that an individual experiences when communicating with people. Difficulty in speaking in public, listening, or learning a spoken utterance are all demonstrations of communication apprehension. In the second/foreign language learning context, learners' personality traits such as shyness, quietness, and reticence are said to frequently trigger CA. According to Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), speaking a foreign language is still the most anxiety-provoking aspect for many EFL students (Ibid, p.127).In the same vein, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) found that the emergence of CA in EFL is due to the lack of control of oral communication with some psychological barriers that threaten their self-esteem, hinder their performance, and make them display anxiety in the classroom. Horwitz and Cope (1986) defined anxiety as:

> A type of shyness characterized by fearer anxiety about communicating with people …, the special communication apprehension FL learning derived from the personal knowledge that one will almost certainly have difficulty understanding others and making oneself understood

> (pp.127-128)

Here, the researchers contend that CA plays a key role in foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) because of the type of communication situation related to the FL

classroom. In fact, many students feel they have very little control over the FL communication situation and their performance is constantly unsatisfactory.

Most research in this area is based on Mc Croskey's conceptualization of CA as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (Mc Croskey's 1977 p.78 cited in Byrne 1997, p.1). Communication anxiety may be specific to solely a few settings such as public speaking or may appear in most daily communication situations, or may even be a distinguishing feature in an individual personality (Friedman, 1980 cited in Taylor, 1987, p.1). Learners' personality traits such as shyness, silence, and reticence are regarded to frequently precipitate CA. Such feelings of shyness differ greatly from individual to individual and from one situation to another. Mc Croskey and Bond (1980,1984:cited in 1987,p.1) mentioned seven factors that could result in a silent child, which can give especially explanation to adult CA; (1) low intellectual skills (2) speech skill deficiencies, (3)voluntary social introversion (4) social alienation, (5) communication anxiety, (6)low social self – esteem, (7) ethnic /cultural divergence in communication norms. While CA is but one of these factors, the other factors can trigger CA in FL learners.

According to Byrene (1997), CA is divided into four categories trait, situational, audience-based, and context-based. A learner with trait apprehension is often irritated in the academic setting in any situation. This type of apprehension grows out of some typical personality traits such as extreme shyness, reticence, being non–assertive in front of others, quietness, and a habitual inclination not to speak. Situational CA; however, arises when the learner finds himself /herself in a new and unique situation such as defending his/her dissertation. Here, although the learner is not anxious by nature, he can experience a high level of fear and irritation in such a unique, one-time situation. Learners may also experience audience-based communication apprehension. It refers to the fear and nervousness that an individual suffers from when has to speak to a person or a group of people. It is worth noting that students with such apprehension can easily communicate with a few or without psychological problems to his/her classmates or particular teachers. However, they will never feel comfortable when talking in front of an audience consisting of other teachers or even colleagues. Finally, context-based apprehension is the last category of CA. It occurs in some particular contexts such as within a meeting, within a small group, or in the classroom.

It follows from this that many students experience speaking anxiety based on apprehension in some conversation classrooms. Apparently; students can be good and fluent speakers of English with their classmates or even their teachers outside the classroom. Nevertheless, the fear of speaking in a more threatening setting hinders their competence and oral performance. Thus, they cease to be fully engaged in their speaking classroom.

Communication apprehension plays a substantial role in second /foreign language anxiety. People who are apprehensive about speaking in pairs or groups are likely to be highly anxious in FL classrooms wherein "in addition to feeling less in control of the communicative situation, they also may feel that their attempts at work are constantly being monitored."(op. cit, p.127) or (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope 1986). This apprehension can be explained by the accumulation of the learners' negative self-perceptions and is caused by the inability to understand others and make oneself understood (MacIntyre & Gardner 1989, cited in Ohta, 2005, p137). McCroskey (cited in Apaibanditkul, 2006, p.4) referred to this kind of apprehension as classroom communication apprehension (CCA), which Neer *(*1987) labelled as 'apprehension about classroom participation" *(*cited in Apaibanditkul, 2006, p.4).

1.12.2 Test Anxiety

An understanding of test anxiety is pertinent as well to the discussion of foreign language anxiety. Test anxiety, as explained by Horwitz et al., (1986) "refers to a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure". Test anxiety is quite permeative in language classrooms because of its continuous performance evaluative nature. Unfortunately, for highly anxious students, second /foreign languages-more than any other academic subject- necessitates continual evaluation by the instructor, the only fluent speaker in the class (1986,p.129). It is also worth noting that oral testing has the potential to arouse both test and oral communication anxiety simultaneously in susceptible students (1986, p.127).

Furthermore, it is worth noting that anxiety can also occur in no communicative situations. Test anxiety is the tendency to become alarmed about the consequences of inadequate performance on a test or other evaluation, irrespective of whether the worries are

realistic or not. Students with test anxiety often experience cognitive interference and go through a difficult time focusing on the task at hand (Oxford, 1999, p.63).

1.12.3 Fear of Negative Evaluation

Fear of negative evaluation is an extension of the second component (test anxiety) of second/foreign language anxiety because it is not confined to test-taking situations; rather it may occur in any social, evaluative situation, such as taking an interview for a job or speaking in second/foreign language class (Horwitz et al.1986). It is also broader in the sense that it appertains not only to the teacher's evaluation of the students but to the perceived reaction of other students as well (Shamas, 2006, p.10).

Horwitz et al., (1986, pp.127-128) believe that though communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation offer useful conceptual building blocks for a description of second/foreign language anxiety, the latter being more than just the aggregate of these three components. Anxiety is a rather complex phenomenon that is intimately related to the learner's sense of '*self*' as it is the learner's '*self*' which is at risk of failure or being negatively evaluated in any test-like situation or a situation that demands continuation in front of others. Such a risk to one's sense of 'self' frequently occurs in SL/FL language classrooms.

1.13. The Impact of Anxiety on Foreign Language Learning

For the sake of gaining a thorough understanding of FLCA, it is significant to also know how FLCA affects students. Tobias (1986, cited in Byrne, 1997, p.27) postulated that the effects of anxiety on learning can be seen in three stages: input, processing and output. Although language learning is a continuous process, Tobias 'model makes the distinction among the stages to set apart and clarify the effects of anxiety.

1.13.1 Input

Regarding input, it represents the first learning stage that activates the language acquisition device (LAD). It is concerned with the initial representation of items in memory. At this stage, external stimuli are encountered and internal representations are made; attention, concentration and encoding also take place. FLCA acts as a filter. According to Tobias (1986, cited in Byrne, 1997, p.27), a highly anxious learner cannot receive the information because of the high degree of the learner's affective filter. The

learner's affective filter is defined by Krashen (1985, as cited in Lightbrown & Pada, 2006, p.36) as"the unreal barrier which causes learners not to acquire a language despite the availability of suitable knowledge". Interestingly, the filter operates according to whether it is up, a case where input is prevented from passing or low, in which case the input will pass and is processed by the language acquisition device giving way to learning to take place. The affective filter is displayed as follows in Susan M.Gass, Larry Selinker (2008, p.402):
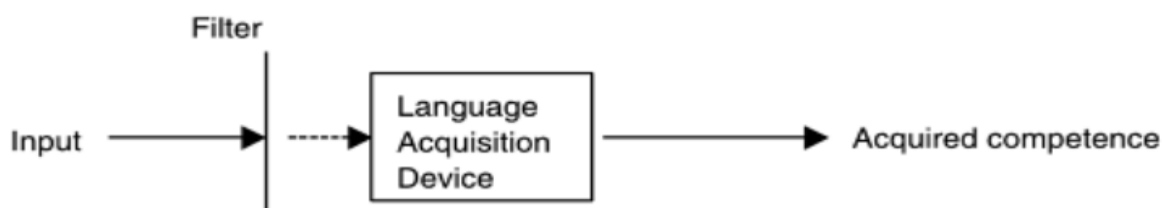
Figure 2: Operation of the Affective Filter (Krashen, 1982, p.32)

Similarly, an anxious student may filter out input and take it away when needed for acquisition. Also, when the level of discomfort is so high, anxiety is all the student can think about, thereby being aware, for instance, that someone is speaking, but not being able to pay full attention to what is being said. This reduces their ability to represent input internally. In other terms, these barriers are the learners' affective factors which include self-esteem, risk-taking, inhibition, empathy and anxiety. They cause a mental block that prevents input from reaching the LAD. This has negative impacts later on. That is to say, since languages are based on previous information, missing any information will render learning the language harder in the future. That is, if anxiety arouses during this stage, the internal reaction will distract the learners' attention to their state of apprehension and discomfort. Input anxiety refers to the anxiety experienced by learners when they encounter a new word or phrase in the target language. It is more likely to cause attention deficits or lack or miscomprehension of the message sent by the instructor. This often leads to the loss of successful communication and an increased level of anxiety. In this vein, MacIntyre (1995) stated:

> Language learning is a cognitive activity that relies on encoding, storage, and retrieval processes, and anxiety can interfere with each of these by creating a divided attention scenario for students. Anxious students are focused on both the task at hand and their reactions to it. For example, when responding to a question in a class, the anxious student is focused on answering the teacher's question and evaluating the social implications of the answer while giving it. (p.96)

1.13.2. Processing

Foreign language anxiety also affects students in the processing stage. The processing stage is concerned with performing cognitive operations such as organization, storage, and assimilation of the material. This stage involves unseen internal manipulations of items taken in at the input stage. At this stage, the emotions created by anxiety interfere with the learners' cognitive tasks. In this connection, Tobias (1986) proposes that anxiety impairs cognitive processing on tasks that are more difficult, more heavily dependent on memory, and more poorly organized. Thus, the more difficult the task is, the greater the effect anxiety will have on students' capacity to concentrate and use stored information. For instance, having to think about a topic when one lacks adequate vocabulary or with which he has little previous experience can cause anxiety.

Cognitivists such as Segalowitz, (2003, cited in Lightbrown & Pada, 2006, p.38) have worked on the "information processing model" (IPM) and have attempted to explore how cognitive operations are carried out in the human brain. They also explained the learner's inability to spontaneously utilize everything they know about a language at a certain time. This cognitivism proposes that learners have to pay attention to any linguistic element they seek to understand or produce by applying cognitive sources in processing information and developing knowledge that can finally be called on mechanically for speaking or understanding.

Nonetheless, they make the point that there is a limit to how much information a learner can pay attention to. According to IPM (2003, cited in Lightbrown & Pada, 2006, p. 39), there is a limit to the amount of focused mental activity a learner can be involved in at one time. To illustrate, speaking in a foreign language requires the learner to carry out more than one mental activity at one time. In this respect, it is worth noting that for relaxed students-those who are free from anxiety "choosing words, pronouncing them, and stringing them together with the appropriate grammatical markers" is basically automatic in contrast

to their anxious counterparts(, (2003, cited in Lightbrown & Pada, 2006, p.39). Therefore, to carry out such operations while communicating, many complex operations are needed, and failure to do so often "leads to reticence, self-consciousness, fear, or even panic". **(**Horwitz, Horwitz,& Cope, 1986,p.128)

In the same line of thought, Leary (1990) and Levitt (1980) cited in MacIntyre, 1995, P.92) postulate that there is a cyclical relationship between anxiety, cognition and behaviour. In other terms, these constructs occur repeatedly in a specific order, one coming after the other. Restricted processing mental ability may stimulate anxiety, whereas anxiety may limit this operational capacity of the mind, and both may lead to impaired performance or altered behaviour. They contended (as cited in MacIntyre, 1995, p.92) that when the learner is required to answer in an FL classroom, he starts feeling anxious and frustrated. Hence, his cognitive performance is brought down due to the resulting divided attention. This, in turn, induces negative self-assessment and impairs performance.

Interestingly, the IPM can also explicate the reason why learners find it hard to remember or retrieve vocabulary items while communicating in the FL. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991B, cited in MacIntyre, 1995, p.93) spotlight the substantial correlation between language anxiety and the capacity to retell a short string of numbers and to remember vocabulary items. This shows that anxiety can restrict the use of both short-term and long-term memories. Tobias (1979, cited in MacIntyre and Gardner**,** 1995, p.3) asserted that "processing anxiety can impede learning by reducing the efficiency with which memory processes are used to solve problems". That is anxiety arousal may distract the learner's cognitive processing from its normal functioning to the focus on fears over potential failure, over the other's opinions and more importantly on excessive self-evaluation, which, in turn, impairs the cognitive performance and make it less effective.

1.13.3. Output

The output stage involves the production of previously learned material. Therefore, it is highly dependent on the successful completion of the previous stages, namely, input and processing. This figures prominently in terms of the organization of the output as well as the speed with which materials are retrieved from memory (MacIntyre & Gardner 1994, p.287**)**

FLCA has an outstanding effect on the output stage of learning. Without excluding the other language skills, namely, reading, listening and writing, many pedagogies agree that anxiety is more associated with the learners speaking production. This can be observed during tests or even during classroom discussions in a foreign language. Output anxiety denotes a feeling of nervousness or frustration that the learners experience when required to reveal their ability to use a foreign language. According to Tobias (1986, cited in Byrne, 1997, p.28), output anxiety implies interference which is demonstrated after the completion of the processing stage and yet before the output is effectively reproduced. In this vein, anxious students often report that their test performance does not resemble what they have previously learnt. This could give a clear image of interference at the output stage (MacIntyre & Gardner 1994, p.287).

However, it is worth mentioning that the use of the term stages in Tobias 'model (1986) does not mean that learning occurs in separate sections. In any case, these stages may not have clear dividing lines that differentiate one from another, and the input stage might not be fully complete before processing begins. In communicative events, for instance, the significance of a message may be understood before the message has been fully delivered (MacIntyre and Gardner 1994, p.287). In fact, Tobias adopted the term *stages: input, processing and output* from descriptions of computer processing of information. Furthermore, the use of these terms in this model is intimately related to the child development stages in developmental psychology (Smith, Sarason, & Sarason, 1982).

The interference of FLCA with all three stages of information processing is apparent in the learners' most language classroom tasks including listening and speaking. For instance, if someone has a high degree of FLCA, listening – as a part of the input process- could be hard. Learners often complain about the difficulty of distinguishing between the sounds and structures of the language. In English, this is particularly true. The final *"s"* is pronounced like "ʐ" and sometimes like "iz".Also, most English words are not pronounced the way they are spelt, such as "*talk*" is pronounced as /tɔ:k/and comb as / kəʊm/, etc.

Furthermore, stress is unpredictable in English. That is, it may fall on the first syllable, the second or the last one. To someone who has not learnt those patterns, or language rules, English could seem nothing but nonsense. Many learners worry that they will be unable to express themselves well and that others will evaluate them negatively. Thus, they prefer to remain reticent in their language classroom.

FLCA affects also learners when speaking. Studies by Young (1990) and MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) reveal that this is the biggest challenge for learners. In this connection, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) postulated that a "high level of anxiety at this stage might hinder students' ability to speak in the target language." (p.93). Most students do not find trouble in giving prepared speeches since they have had enough time to rehearse them. Nevertheless, their anxiety arouses when they are asked to take part in role-play activities. These activities –one should note- require students to be able to actively synthesize the information they have learnt. Such types of activities necessitate, in a short period, both processing and output capacities that are affected by FLCA.

It follows from this that there is a significant negative correlation between anxiety and foreign language learning. Though students often reveal a great interest in developing their communicative abilities, the anxiety they witness may have a debilitating effect on their capacity to speak. Unfortunately, such apprehension becomes even more intensified in evaluative situations. Furthermore, in his study on the effects of students' anxiety on the oral test performance of French students, Philips (1992) provided ample evidence that anxiety increases in testing. In this conjuncture, he suggested that highly anxious students are likely to have lower oral performance in contrast to their relaxed counterparts. For him, anxiety affects not only the learners' performance but also their whole attitudes towards language learning. This figures prominently when he asserted:

> Although many variables may interact to affect language learning, foreign language, anxiety should be of considerable concern to language educators and students because of its potential impact, not only on performance on oral tests but also on students' affective reactions, hence their attitudes towards language learning in general.

(Phillips 1992, p.14)

1. 14. Manifestations of Foreign Language Anxiety

Research has revealed several common characteristics of anxious learners in foreign language classrooms. According to Burden (2004 cited in Rafada & Madina, 2017), anxious learners are usually less willing to take part in learning activities and perform worse than their relaxed counterparts (Aida, 1994 in Rafada & Madina, 2017). Their avoidance behaviour or escape from the learning situation stems from their worry about the

impressions of their classmates and their belief that they are unable to perform well in the language classroom (Burden, 2004 in Rafada & Madina, 2017)

In the same way, Leary (1982 cited in Young, 1991) identified three categories of behaviours arising from social anxiety. These include 1) arousal-mediated responses; 2) disaffiliate behaviour, and 3) image-protected behaviour. For Leary, arousal-mediated responses are "the side effects of individuals' activation of their sympathetic nervous system" (Leary 91, p.429). Such side effects serve no actual social roles and usually come with all aroused states. According to Larry, anxiety shows up in individuals when they "squirm in their seats, fidget, play with their hair, clothes, or other manipulable objects, stutter and stammer as they talk, and generally appear jittery and nervous"(Leary, 1982, in Young 91). Disaffiliation behaviour refers to any actions that reduce social communications; these can appear in "fewer imitations of conversations, less participation in conversations, more allowance for silent periods in conversation, fewer instances of silence breakers, and shorter speaking periods when in front of an audience"*(Young 1991, p.429). Image-protected behaviour, however, is manifested by 'smiling and nodding frequently, by seldom interrupting others, and by giving frequent communicative feedback such as 'uh-uh' *(Young 1991, p.429).

It is worth highlighting that according to Leary,(1982) "these responses may serve to protect an image of the person as friendly, agreeable, polite, interested, and even sociable, without incurring any social risks"*(cited in Long, 1991, p.430). Other symptoms of anxiety in the language classroom can be identified when learners report having "sweaty palms, nervous stomachs, accelerated heartbeat and pulse rates" (Radin cited in Young, 1991, p.430).In addition, foreign language anxiety can show up in:

> distortion of sounds, inability to reproduce the intonation and rhythm of the language, 'freezing up' when called to perform, and forgetting words or phrases just learned or simply refusing to speak and remaining silent. (Young, 1991, p.430).

In the same line of thought, other significant symptoms of foreign language classroom anxiety may involve nervous laughter, avoiding eye contact, joking, short responses, avoiding classroom activities, coming to class unprepared, cutting class, and crouching in the last row. (Baily in Young, 1991, p.430). Moreover, Price (1991) highlights additional signs of anxiety that are particular to the foreign language classroom setting. He

suggests that anxious students manifest panic, indecision, anger, and a sense of diminished personality. In the same way**,** MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991 cited in Rafada & Madini, 2017, p.310) view the anxious learner as "an individual who perceives the L2 as an uncomfortable experience, who withdraw from voluntary participation, who feels social pressures to make mistakes and who is less willing to try uncertain or novel linguistic forms".

Furthermore, Worde (2003) contends that foreign language classroom anxiety can also show up in the form of many physical symptoms such as "headaches, clumsy hands, cold figures, shaking, sweating, pondering hearts, tears, foot-tapping, desk drumming" (p. 8).

It is noteworthy that identifying the symptoms of anxious learners is of paramount importance. This enables the teachers to understand their students' feelings, support them and provide them with a less threatening learning environment. Moreover, diagnosing those signs permit the teacher to differentiate between anxious and struggling students. Therefore, to examine learners' anxiety, identifying its symptoms and manifestations should be taken into consideration.

1.15. Foreign Language Anxiety and the Affective Filter

As previously mentioned, language input represents a primary factor affecting second/ foreign language acquisition. However, in his affective Filter Hypothesis (AFH), Krashen demonstrated that some learners are more capable to learn foreign languages than others. That is Krashen (1985, p.81) suggested that there is a 'mental block which prevents L2 learners from fully acquiring the target language. This is called the affective filter, which acts as an invisible wall between learners and input. FL learners may comprehend what they hear but the input might not reach what is known as the 'Language Acquisition Device'[1](LAD).

Researchers such as Horwitz et al., (1986) and Krashen and Stephen (1987) postulated that this might occur when the learners are anxious, bored, or lack motivation or self-confidence. For instance, students who lack motivation pay less attention to the input,

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[1]**Language Acquisition Device (LAD)** presented by Chomsky in 1960's as a device effectively present in the mind of children by which a grammar of their native language is constructed (Mathews, 2007.p.214)

and thus their filter level is high, so little input can reach them. However, relaxed or highly motivated learners concentrate more on language input. This makes the filter level low, which allows input to arrive at their language acquisition device as a result. Therefore, learners' feelings and attitudes are crucial factors that contribute to the quality of learning. That is why foreign language learners 'input should be provided in a low-anxiety context. In this connection, Irzeqat (2010) claimed that "the input has to be relevant, quantity-sufficient, and experienced in contexts that are low anxiety-provoking". (p.3)

In the same thread of thought, Krashen (1985) contended that teachers should provide learners with comprehensible input in a non-threatening classroom environment. This will contribute not only to keeping the affective filter low but also to facilitating the language learning process as a whole.

1.16. Anxiety and Motivation

The relationship between anxiety and motivation has been explored by many researchers. Motivation is regarded as one of the affective factors that have a tremendous impact on FL learning. No one can deny the importance of motivation, yet no one can also encapsulate it in a thoroughgoing definition. This is because it is neither palpable nor easily describable. However, there have been many attempts to establish a model to depict the nature of motivation. In this vein, Gardner (1985) stated,

> Motivation …refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning. Motivation to learn a second language is seen as referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity.   (Gardner, 1985, p.10)

The importance of motivation has been highlighted by many researchers. Dornyei (2005) indicated that every other factor in language learning presupposes motivation to some extent. Motivation provides the primary drive to begin one's L2 learning process and later the impelling force that ensures its continuation. Moreover, motivation influences the extent to which students are actively involved in L2 learning. Besides, research reveals also that motivation determines how often students use L2 learning strategies, how much students communicate with native speakers, and how long they maintain L2 skills at the end of language study (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, as cited in Huang, 2007).In the same line of

thought, Sternberg (2002) and Dornyei (2005) among others have pointed out that the lack of motivation can negate the highest amount of aptitude towards language learning. Furthermore, without sufficient motivation, even learners with the highest capacities cannot achieve their long-term goals (Dornyei & Csizere, 1998, as cited in Huang, 2007).

In trying to understand the nature of motivation that drives language learning, researchers have identified two broad categories of motivation: instrumental and integrative**.** (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, cited in Wajnry, 2011). Instrumental motivation refers to one's wish to learn a language for some personal or practical purposes such as getting a job, promoting a career, reading foreign newspapers or technical texts, or passing an exam. This category also involves more negative factors such as fear of failure (Gardner & Lambert, 1972 cited in Wajnry 2011, p.31).

Integrative motivation, on the other hand, refers to one's wish to learn a language to be a part of a target language group or to communicate with "the people of the culture who speak it".(Gardner & Lambert, 1972 , cited in Wajnry, 2011, p.31). For Lambert (1974)**,** language learning is driven by" a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group" (cited in Ellis, 1995, p.509*).*

Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) have referred to these two types of motivation as motivation orientations and pointed out that depending on learners' orientation- which can be either career/academic-related *instrumental* or socially/ culturally related' *integrative'*. Different needs must be fulfilled in foreign language teaching (FLT)

More importantly, specialists in pedagogy have further distinguished between two other types of motivation, namely, intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation appears when the learner reveals an inner interest and a great desire to go about the learning activity. There is no reward except the activity itself. The learner, here, is determined to fulfil his goals. Deci and Ryan (1985) asserted that *"the intrinsic motivation is in evidence whenever students' natural curiosity and interest energize their learning"* (Deci and Ryan, 1985, p.245).

Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, refers to the case where the learner receives a reward for his learning from the surrounding world. Therefore, he is motivated by an outside source rather than the self. In this vein, Skehan (1989) pointed out that "external

influences and incentives will affect the strength of the learners' motivation" (Ellis 1995, pp.109). This type of motivation is said to be less strong than the intrinsic one. Yet, in some cases, both types of motivation may overlap to some extent because one may be motivated by both an inside source and an outside source at the same time.

On the whole, both types of motivation play essential roles in learning. Some learners learn better if they are interactively oriented while others show better performance if they are instrumentally motivated and some are more successful when they take advantage of both orientations. That is, one may have both kinds of motivation: s/he may be instrumentally motivated to pass an exam in English to achieve a job promotion, but at the same time, she may love the English community and want to integrate within its culture.

Yet, it is worth mentioning that extrinsic and instrumental motivations are similar but not identical. Extrinsic centres on the fact that the reason is outside of a person; however, instrumental has to do with the purpose of her/his learning. Intrinsic and integrative motivations are also distinct (dissimilar) because intrinsic motivation has to do with what makes someone feel good; whereas, integrative motivation is related to membership in a language community. Interestingly, it is worth noting that during the whole process of learning, motivation does not remain incessant. Rather, it becomes connected to mental processes and internal and external factors that the learner is exposed to. These factors may include teacher enthusiasm, rewards, peers' pressure, the learners' environment, personal experiences, personal interests of the learner, self-esteem, self-image, determination of goals, talents, and anxiety.

Regarding the relationship between language and motivation, some researchers have observed that language anxiety is negatively associated with foreign language motivation. Tahernezhad, et al., (2014) investigated the degree of anxiety among Iranian intermediate EFL learners and its relation to their motivation. The data was collected from the participants using the Foreign Language Learning Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and Gardner's (1985) Attitude, Motivation Test Battery (A MTB). The results revealed that the majority of the participants experienced a mid to high level of language learning anxiety. Moreover, it was noted that the participants with lower levels of anxiety showed a higher degree of motivation to learn English while those with higher-anxiety levels were less motivated to learn English. Besides, motivation has also been found to be a substantial predictor of foreign language anxiety (Lieu, 2010, cited in Tahernezhad, et al.,2014, p.39) Lieu in

Tahernezhad, E., et al (2014) found that Taiwanese university freshmen in the advanced English proficiency level revealed significantly higher level of motivation than those students with lower proficiency level for a whole academic year. The motivation was also revealed to be negatively correlated with foreign language anxiety and served as a considerable predictor of learner anxiety.

More importantly, research on anxiety is inconsistent, yet there is a general inverse relationship between FLA and motivation (Horwitz et al., 1986; Ortega, 2009). As already mentioned there are two types of anxiety; facilitating and debilitating. Facilitating anxiety is a kind of anxious reaction that leads to an increase in motivation. For instance, a student is nervous about a coming exam, hence, he starts studying harder to ensure his success. Debilitating anxiety, on the other hand, is an anxious reaction that is so intense that culminates in a decrease in motivation or causes the individual to cease trying altogether. An illustration of this would be a student who is pointed to by the teacher to respond to an answer, and he gets so anxious or frustrated that he forgets all words.

An important point to note is that the relationship between motivation and anxiety is multifaceted. (Ortega 2009).On the other hand, there is what Burns and Gentry cited in Blasing,2010,p.108) call **"tension-to-learn"**, in which anxiety plays a significant motivating role by supplying "a manageable gap in their knowledge and motivation to fill this knowledge gap."(Blasing, 2010, p.108).On the other hand, debilitating anxiety is often regarded as the cause of reduced motivation.(Gardner,1985; Horwitz et al,1986;Young, 1991).By these considerations, traditional L2 classroom instructions often fail to provide learners with a social and emotional atmosphere that could motivate them for active classroom participation.**"**This is because traditional instructional settings do not produce the equivalent real-world consequences that learners might face, for example, in the target language country."(Ibid, p.109)In other terms, providing learners with a relaxing and real–like classroom environment is of paramount importance to increase learner motivation and lower foreign language anxiety.

1.17. Factors Shaping Speaking Anxiety

As more studies have been carried out on FLA, more researchers have concluded that foreign language anxiety (FLA) often interacts with many other variables during the

complex process of foreign language learning. These include age, gender, self-esteem, competitiveness, and others, as are briefly reviewed in this section.

1.17.1. Age

Regarding the impact of age on FLA**,** research indicates that age is a significant factor that is related to foreign language anxiety among foreign language learners. Yet, as Dewaele (2007) mentioned, it is also a neglected variable of FLA. That is although adult and young learners are not alike in terms of their responses to language learning and FLA; most studies on FLA involved college or university-level language learners (e.g. Deweale & MacIntyre, 2014). Very few studies have been carried out with high school students (e.g., Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Ghorbandordine & Ahmadabad, 2016), and studies with middle school (e.g. Salem Dyiar, 2014) and elementary school learners are very limited (e.g.Gursoy & Akin, 2013)

Interestingly, in his inquiry**,** Dewaele (2002) reported that adult learners found it harder to accommodate the rules of a foreign language; thus, their anxiety levels seemed to be higher than younger groups. Similarly, in their attempt to examine the factors that predict FLA, Onwueghuzie et al., (1999) found seven variables among them age that contributed significantly to the prediction of FLA. In their study, older language learners revealed more anxiety levels than younger learners. This is congruent with MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) who claimed that the older the language learner gets, the higher their anxiety level is because adult learners spend more time while processing information and give more importance to accuracy (Salthouse & Somberg, 1982)

As already pointed out, the number of studies on children's FLA is quite limited since the age variable is generally studied in the context of adult learners. Nonetheless, Dewaele (2007) spotlighted that young learners may reveal more anxiety than adult learners on the basis that language is a new experience for them; also children can be influenced by affective states easily when introduced to new situations. In another inquiry, Azizah et al., (2007) examined the anxiety level of 29 science students. His findings showed that those whose ages ranged from less than 30 to 36-40 years old were more likely to experience a high level of anxiety compared to those whose age is more than 40 years old. Thus, it was concluded in the study that age, as a variable, plays a crucial role in determining the anxiety level of students. Furthermore, in his descriptive study, Aydin (2013) contended that young

learners were more relaxed in terms of test anxiety. In other terms, when learners were compared in terms of age, older students revealed a higher degree of anxiety during English tests.

There is no doubt that age is regarded as an influential factor in language learner success. (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).Yet still, no consistent information exists on the optimal age for foreign language learning, though many studies have been made on the topic. Oxford (1982) based on Genesee (1978), highlights the two main reasons for learning foreign or second languages at younger ages: (1) the cognitive nativist reason that language learning is an innate capability that dispels with age (Chomsky,1972**)** and (2)the neurological reason that one's neural plasticity diminishes with age, hence influencing language learning capability. (Lenneberg, 1967)

However, after citing several empirical investigations in favour of the above-mentioned arguments, Genessee, (1978) also pointed out the opposite. In other terms, in some cases, older learners achieve higher levels of foreign language acquisition than their younger counterparts. That is congruent with Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1979, 1981) and Scarcella who argued that older learners have an advantage in terms of the rate of acquisition of syntax and morphology. Nevertheless, that ultimate fluency and native-like pronunciation in a new language are better among those who start learning it as children. Adults reveal ultimate attainment in the initial phases of syntactic and morphological development than children but not the later phases, and they often experience fossilization which is the permanent surcease of second or foreign language development.

Various explanations for age differences in foreign language performance have been offered, yet the controversy persists. Advantages for different ages have been variously attributed to 1) *prior experience in language learning,* 2) *onset of formal operations (i.e. abstract thinking abilities),*3) *cognitive maturity*, 4) *kind of input*, 5) *affective factor, and* 6) *socio-cultural factors, and* 7) *passing of a sensitive period for the second language; and a succession of multiple critical periods* (Oxford,1982)

1.17.2. Gender

Gender has been regarded as a significant factor in the language learning process, as it has paramount theoretical and pedagogical significations (implications) in second or

foreign language learning. In the same way, research findings on language anxiety and gender offer further insights about personalized instructions based on gender differences in language learning contexts. Put it another way, males and females are biologically different in terms of their mental capacities and learning styles. These differences originate from the growth of the brain and also from higher-order cortical functions[2](Keefe, 1982). Concerning lateralization[3], males are more left-brain dominant than their female counterparts (Banich, 1997). Furthermore, research reveals that gender differences influence students' needs, expectations and academic achievements.

Interestingly, the relationship between gender and language learning anxiety has sparked the interest of several researchers who conducted significant studies on it**.** Padilla, Cervantes, Maldonado, and Garcia (1988) examined foreign language anxiety and gender and noted that female learners are more anxious and worried than male students. Likewise, in his study, Chang (1997) compared the worries of Caucasian adolescents and minority adolescents (Native American, African American; Hispanic American and Asian American)**.**2369 high school participants took part in this inquiry**.** The findings revealed that minority status and gender affected adolescents' worries. Minority adolescents showed more levels of worry than their white adolescents and female adolescents had a higher level of anxiety than males. It is worth noting that the most frequently indicated worries are grades, graduating from high school, relationships with parents, etc. In another study, Ezzi, (2012) explored the impact of gender on foreign language anxiety among Yemeni university students. The results indicated that both males and females had a high level of foreign language anxiety, but female students' anxiety was higher than that of their male students' counterparts.

In the Iranian context, Rezazadeh and Tarakoli, (2009) examined the relationship between gender and language learning anxiety and mentioned that females are likely to reveal a higher level of test anxiety compared to their male counterparts. In another study in

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[2]**Cortical Functions:** include language, vision, recognizing objects in space (visuospatial recognition), and awareness.

[3]**Lateralization**: Localization of a function, such as speech, to the right or left side of the brain

Iran, Mesri (2012) investigated the relationship between EFL learners' foreign language classroom anxiety scale and gender. The data were collected using Foreign Language

Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz and Horwitz & Cope, 1986) .52 EFL students atSalmas University participated in this study. The findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between FLCA and gender. It was also mentioned that Iranian female EFL learners have a higher level of anxiety than male learners. Based on these findings; it was recommended that foreign language teachers ought to be more aware of foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) level, its sources and implications.

Similarly, Nahavandi and Mukundan (2013) investigated the level of anxiety of 548 Iranian EFL students to see whether anxiety domains differed across different first languages, proficiency levels and gender. The results showed that students experienced anxiety on all four scales: communication apprehension, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, and fear of English classes. Interestingly, communication anxiety was noted to be the predominant anxiety component in the student participants, as compared to the other three scales. The findings also indicated that gender and first language did not impact their anxiety significantly. Nevertheless, the level of proficiency affected the participants' anxiety in all four components significantly.

1.17.3. Identity

Numerous definitions have been attributed to the term identity. Yet a more clear and useful definition is the one offered by Bernstein who viewed identity as"resources for constructing belonging, recognition of self and others, and context management (what I am, where, with whom and when)". (Bernstein & Solomon, 1999, p.272).In the same way, Illeris (2007) regards identity as:

> … the most holistic concept that expressly ranges over both the individual and the social level… Identity is always an individual biographical identity, an experience of coherent individuality and a coherent life course, at the same time as being a social, societal identity, an experience of a certain position in the social community.

(Illeris, 2007, p. 138)

Historically, identity has been investigated in the fields of psychology, sociology, anthropology and philosophy (Block, 2007; Cordon,1964; Mantero, 2007; Norton, 1997).Each of these fields of study involves various definitions of identity: socio-cultural

identity, which regards identity as growing out of social interaction; ethnic identity, which refers to a person's identification with a particular ethnic group or groups; personal identity, which relates to who a person is and how this changes over time. However, the focus of this study spins around learner identity.

It is noteworthy that the interest in a learner's identity derives from an interest in the individual's subjective experience of being a learner. That is people can identify themselves as, for instance, professionals or members of a particular ethnic or gender group, they should also be able to identify themselves as learners. The relationship between learning and identity has been examined in various settings and concerning different types of identity.

More specifically, there are many researchers who not only make a link between learning and identity but also regard them as intricately interdependent. Illeris (2007), for instance, stated that "from the point of view of learning, identity development can be understood as the individually specific essence of total learning, i.e.as the coherent development of meaning, functionality, sensitivity and sociality"(P.138). Equally, Wenger (1998) who is particularly interested in the connection between learning and identity expressed a similar view by stating "because learning transforms who we are and what we can do, it is an experience of identity. It is not just an accumulation of skills and information but a process of becoming" (p.215). Up to this contention, identity is negotiated experience in and across social communication where learning takes place. Similarly, Lave and Wenger (1991) claimed that "learning and a sense of identity are inseparable: They are aspects of the same phenomenon" (p.115).

Concerning the relationship between learner identity and FL anxiety, previous research on L2 and FL identities suggested that they are inextricably interwoven (Yi-Wen Huang, 2014, p.68). Horwitz et al. (1986) mentioned that language anxiety is linked to the experience or emotion of feeling limited or feeling like having an L2 self while learning the target language. This seems to be congruent with Yi-Wen Huang (2014) who believed that "this emotion or experience of feeling limited or not being able to express thoughts and feelings in the target language is associated with feelings of the loss of L1 identities or the development of L2 or FL identities while learning the target language in the target language context" (Yi-Wen Huang, 2014, p.68).

Indeed while speaking or writing in a second or foreign language, many learners report like different or having become different people in some ways. For instance, learners report thinking in the target language and embracing clothing or eating styles of the target language or fitting in better among the target language group (Yi-Wen Huang ,2014).

As previously stated, the concept of L2 self or language boundaries to FL or L2 language learning or acquisition has been highlighted in previous studies**.** (e.g. Guiora et al, 1975; Guiora & Action,1979; Horwitz et al;1986 as cited in Yi-Wen Huang 2014, p.p.68-69). Horwitz et al., (1986) stated that language anxiety is a unique experience typically related to learning the target language. Such anxiety (e.g. feeling like a distinct person or having an L2 self) is different from other anxieties associated with learning other subjects, such as physics or chemistry as Horwitz et al., (1986) identified. In this vein, Horwitz et al., (1986) proposed the concept of *'true self '*, which is known by the learner (p.31) and 'limited self' in L2 (p.31) that the language learners feel limited or have another self, the L2 self while speaking in the target language. In this respect**,** Yi-Wen Huang (2014, p.69) believed that this type of experience is part of the development of the L2 learning process or FL identities. On the other hand, however, language learners may not feel like themselves or may feel like distinct people when performing in the target language. Hence, their language anxiety emanates. That is, learners may feel anxious while learning the target language, or they may experience anxiety "due to the feeling of not being themselves" (Yi-Wen Huang, 2014).

It is worth noting that language learners' identities get constructed or reconstructed in the process of the target language learning and are influenced by the environment, culture, or society they are experiencing. Up to Pierce's (1995) theory of language learners' social identity, second or foreign-language learners negotiate their identities in the complex social world or learning setting (cited in Yi-Wen Huang, 2014, p.69). Their social identity is constructed by the language they are learning and the social or cultural effects of the contexts surrounding them. When learning an L2, the learner undergoes the construction and reconstruction of two identities: L1 identity and L2 identity (cited in Yi-Wen Huang, 2014, p.69). In the same way, Pavlenko (2001) mentioned that an L2 learner builds and workout a new identity while learning a target language and taking part in a target language community (Yi-Wen Huang, 2014, p.69).

1.17.4. Self-Esteem

Among the most pervasive affective factors that have been widely investigated in the literature are language learning anxiety and self-esteem. Research has shown that these two variables are inextricably related and have a considerable influence on one's language learning process (Horwitz, Horwitz, Cope, 1986; Brown, 2007). Though everybody has experienced some level of self-esteem, the latter-just like the term anxiety- is not easy to define in a few lines. Coopersmith (1967) considers self-esteem as **"the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains about himself: it expresses an attitude of approval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant and worthy". (pp. 4-5)**

Thus, self-esteem is a personal trait that develops in the individual since childhood and grows to gain enough energy to identify his behaviour, both overt and covert. It consists of one's judgment of one's worth, potential, and significance. Ellis (1994) succinctly states, "Self-esteem refers to the degree to which learners feel confident and believe themselves to be significant people" (Ellis, 1994, p.518).

Just like anxiety, self-esteem can be a trait (an innate (intrinsic) personality characteristic) or a state (associated with a particular situation). Researchers also distinguish between global and situational self-esteem. Global self-esteem "arises when the person is a mental age of eight" (Oxford, 1992, p.37). It refers to a person's overall evaluation of his or her significance. Situational (domain-specific) self-esteem, however, is much more specific. An individual can have high self-esteem globally or generally, yet in the meantime, experiences low self-esteem in a given situation or environment. (Scarcella& Oxford, 1992)Hence, situational self-esteem refers to a person's evaluation of his or her worth in specific domains such as sports, intellectual ability, and physical appearance. (Orth et al., 2019, p.4)

Interestingly, a remarkable diversity of definitions has been attributed to self-esteem over time. Such definitions vary according to the sources from which individuals derive their self-esteem. More specifically, research suggested four kinds of sources that have been postulated by theorists. People may measure "their self-worth against (1) personal standard of competence; how others judge them ;(3) how they judge; and other possible selves" (Kwan, et al., 2007, p.22).

It is worth mentioning that studying the differences in the self-esteem trajectories (courses) of diverse age groups (cohorts) is essential. That is because people's conception of self-esteem has switched dramatically in the last decades. While the concept of self-esteem received little attention in the 1950s and 1960s, it has since become an object of much focus on the part of both parents and educators. In the 1980s and 1990s, high self-esteem was promoted by the dominant culture as not only a desirable goal but a prerequisite to normal psychological operation (Mecca, et al.1989).

An essential but insufficiently understood question is *how children first develop their self-esteem.* Behavioural genetic research proposes that both genetic and environmental parameters affect self-esteem, but that environmental factors have greater contributions than genetic ones, with the heritability of self-esteem estimated to be about 40% (Kendler, Gardner & Prescott, 1998; Neiss, Sedikides & Stevenson, 2002; Legrand, Lacona& Sedikides, 2009 cited in Orth et al, 2019, p.4).

Another equally major question is whether individuals maintain their level of self-esteem over time. Three longitudinal studies have been conducted on the trajectory of self-esteem across the lifespan. (Orth, Maes & Schmith, 2015; Orth, Robins, & Widaman, 2012; Orth, Trzesniewski & Robins, 2010 cited in Orth et al., 2019).All three inquiries comprised large samples tested several times across ages ranging from adolescence to old age in two studies and from young adulthood to old age in the third. All three studies provided evidence that self-esteem increases from adolescence to midlife, reaches a peak at about 50 to 60, and amplifies in old age. Nonetheless, regarding the self-esteem trajectory in childhood and early adolescence, research has not provided clear evidence. Though some studies revealed that self-esteem diminishes during childhood and transition into adolescence (Eccles, Wigfield, Harold, & Blumenfeld, 1993; Marsh, 1989; Marsh, Baranes, Cairns & Tidman, 1984), and other studies have indicated that self-esteem decreases for girls but increases for boys (Block & Robins, 1993).

More importantly, Orth, and Luciano (2018) made a meta-analysis of all longitudinal studies to date and did not find evidence that self-esteem declines in childhood. As an alternative, the meta-analytic findings proposed that the level of self-esteem raises slightly from the preschool years to middle childhood, stagnates (but does not decrease) in early and middle adolescence, and then begins to increase around age 15 and continues to raise during adulthood, a pattern that did not vary by gender.

Moreover, it is worth noting that personal development and behaviour are affected by a great number of factors. Yet, the first place where self-esteem starts forming is the family circle. For instance, Rosenberg, (1965); Coopersmith, (1967), and Clark (1994) highlighted a positive correlation between children with lower degrees of self-esteem and parents' indifference or negligence (cited in Rubio, 2007, p.6). Clearly, parental warmth, respect, interest and consistency play a key role in the growth of self-esteem. (Murk, 1999, cited in Rubio 2007, p.6) The child is so sensitive to his parents' evaluative reactions. If the child belongs to a family circle where his deeds are estimated and praised; he will be likely to develop a positive self-image which will contribute a lot in elevating his self-confidence which is so essential for later engagement in learning.

In an obstructive family circle, however, the child is constantly punished for his blunders. This is why he ceases to believe in his abilities and distinguish between right and wrong. This will, in return, undermine his self-confidence and drive him reluctant and risk-averse. Such negative self-image and lower levels of self-esteem figure prominently in the language classroom setting. Students remain reticent and so susceptible to the teacher's corrective feedback.

More importantly, in the classroom, many factors influence the student's self-esteem. The type of subject to be learnt can be a significant matter, particularly learning a language. Arnold (1999 cited in Rubio, 2007, p.7) spotlighted the importance of affect in the language classroom, especially since learning a language is an anxiety-provoking experience for many students. Admittedly, Horwitz et al (1991, maintained,

> The importance of 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 would seem to distinguish foreign language anxiety from other academic anxieties such as those associated with mathematics or science. Probably no other field of study implicates self-concept and self-expression to the degree that language study does.

Self-esteem is of paramount importance as it determines, to a great extent, learners' engagement and performance in the language learning process. A learner, who trusts his abilities and knows exactly what to do and how to do it, undoubtedly elevates his self-confidence, aptitude and self-efficacy. One's self-esteem keeps his motivation high and raises his learning endeavour to its utmost.

However, a learner with low self-esteem is overwhelmed by a feeling of low worthiness, fear and security. He mistrusts his capabilities to perform in public, which has harmful repercussions on his decisions, actions and behaviour as a whole. The feeling of incapacity stifles him and makes him risk-averse. He dares not perform in the presence of the teacher and his classmates for he fears being criticized, teased or mocked. Therefore, he becomes passive, reticent and his behaviour is hardly noticeable. In this respect, Rubio (2007) postulated that low self-esteem "students may avoid taking three necessary risks to acquire communicative competence in the target language; they feel deeply insecure and even drop out of class."(Rubio, 2007, p.7)

As reported above, research has identified an extricable link between self-esteem and anxiety. Anxiety has been regarded as a major threat to one's self-esteem**.** Patten (1983), for instance, found a significant correlation between self-esteem and general anxiety among the participants of his study. Likewise, Peleg (2009) spotlighted a negative correlation between test anxiety and self-esteem and a positive correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement-the latter will be discussed later in this chapter. Similarly, Zare et al., (2012) investigated the relationship between language learning anxiety and self-esteem, and academic level among Iranian EFL learners. They employed two self-report questionnaires administered to a total of 108 language learners enrolled for Teaching English as a Foreign Language in two universities in Shiraz, Iran. The findings indicated a high negative correlation between language learning anxiety and self-esteem among learners. Thus, it could be realized that learning anxiety falls as self-esteem elevates. In other terms, learners who possess a high degree of self-esteem experience lower anxiety. Nevertheless, those who suffer from learning anxiety tend to have lower self-esteem.

Low self-esteem is pernicious to the learners' endeavour. Hence, it is essential to be concerned about the learner's self-esteem. This implies more than doing occasional activities to make students reflect on their competence and self-efficacy. In the first place, teachers should know about their self-esteem, grasp what self-esteem is, its sources, components and how to prevent it from crawling into the learner's psyche,(Rubio, 2007, p.7).

1.17.5. Self-confidence

One of the affective variables, which highly correlates with FL anxiety, is self-confidence. Most dictionaries define self-confidence as a feeling of belief in one's ability. In this vein, Dornyei (2005) Stated that the concept of self-confidence (and also self-efficacy) is closely related to self-esteem. This is because both of them share a common emphasis on the individual's perception of his/ her abilities as a person. Moreover, people with low self-confidence are more likely to have low self-esteem and vice versa. Despite this fact, however, the concepts of self-confidence and self-esteem are not identical though some use them interchangeably for the sake of simplicity. Self-esteem, as reported earlier, refers to one's opinion about one's value and contribution to his professional and personal life. A person with high self-esteem believes that he is worthy of the world he belongs to and he has a strong sense of self-significance. Self-esteem, then, is dependent on one's perception of him/her; whereas self-confidence is thoroughly different. It is related to action and is domain-specific. In other words, it does not refer to one's view of his worth (value) concerning the world. In contrast; self-confidence involves one's positive self-assessment in performing a specific task. Moreover, an individual who is self-confident in his capacities in one task might not be so when given another.

Certainly, self-confidence can be negatively affected when the language learner thinks of oneself as deficient and limited in the target language. On the other hand, his self-confidence can be positively correlated with oral performance (Heyde, 1979, as cited in Park & Lee Adan, (2004). Furthermore, highly anxious learners might deal with their target language tasks differently from one another, depending on their self-confidence.

In this respect, Tridinanti, (2018) conducted a study on the correlation between speaking and anxiety, self-confidence, and speaking achievement of undergraduate EFL students of a Private University in Palembang, Indonesia, in the academic year 2017-2018, 28 students participated in this enquiry. They followed a speaking test and answered two questionnaires: a speaking anxiety questionnaire consisting of 17 items and a self-confidence questionnaire comprising 20 items. The findings displayed that there is a positive relationship between the variables of self-confidence and learning achievement. That is, the higher the self-confidence, the higher the speaking

achievement. This led to the conclusion that self-confidence is significantly a stronger predictor of speaking achievement than speaking anxiety (Tridinanti, 2018, pp.37-38).

Similarly, Park and Lee Adam, (2004) researched the relationship between L2 learner's anxiety, self-confidence and oral performance.132 Korean college students enrolled in English conversation classes in 2004 participated in the study. There were requested to respond to questionnaires related to anxiety and self-confidence and were assessed in terms of IATEFL's criteria. The results displayed that there were substantial effects of anxiety and self-confidence on L2 learners 'oral performance. That is, the higher anxious the students were about speaking English, the lower grades they gained on their oral performance. While the higher confident they were, the higher the oral performance they revealed.

Additionally, many studies have been carried out on the effect of self-confidence on learners' willingness to participate in classroom communicative tasks.(Clement, 1986; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Molberg, 2010).These studies indicated that self-confident learners are prone to take risks at speaking in a second language classroom even though they do make mistakes. They take part in various speaking activities regardless of the topic and the number of students present in class. They work hard and learn from their flaws and hence they improve their language competency. Nonetheless, low-confident learners are often anxious when communicating in the language classroom as they are worried that their performance would be criticized or disapproved; thus, they display poor performance.

Moreover, the studies of self-confidence have significant complications for language instructors and professors. What should be cautiously taken into account is how to support students to construct and strengthen their confidence when learning a second/foreign language. Effective language learning only occurs in an environment where learners feel confident and more at ease while practising the second/foreign language. Thus, teachers should spare no energy to create an adequate climate that prompts students to build their self-confidence. In this respect, Krashen (1981) asserted, "the students who feel at ease in the classroom and like the teacher may seek out more intakes by volunteering… and may not be more accepting the teacher as a source of input."(p.23)

Broadly speaking, self-confidence is an effective factor that plays a key role in the enhancement of foreign language learning. Some studies have indicated that without self-confidence, no learning tasks will be carried out effectively (Al-Habaish, 2012).Indeed, learners with high self-confidence are successful learners who believe to be capable. When there is low self-confidence, on the contrary, *"learners suffer from uncertainty, insecurity, fear and social distance"* (Rubio, 2007, p.8).In a nutshell, the correlation between self-confidence and academic achievement is an international one. As levels of self-confidence increase, academic achievement will increase as well. As learners, however, suffer from low self-confidence, academic achievement decreases.

1.17.6. Tolerance of Ambiguity

The concept of ambiguity has been attributed various definitions in the literature. According to Johnson (2001) it meant "uncertainty about the future" (cited in Basoz, 2015, p.54). Lain (1993), referred to it as "perceived insufficiency of information regarding a particular stimulus or context" (cited in Basoz, 2015, p.54). Ambiguity is also reported as "too little, too much or seemingly contradictory information (Norton, 1975, cited in Basoz, 2015, p.54). In the same manner, Budner (1962) clarified ambiguous situations into three categories: new, complicated and contradictory situations.

The concept of tolerance, however, signifies 'acceptance', while intolerance entails 'rejection'. In other terms, tolerance indicates acceptance of ambiguous situations while intolerance involves regarding uncertainties as imminent sources of discomfort and threat. (Norton, 1975, cited in Basoz, 2015). Tolerance of ambiguity, then, is the way individuals handle ambiguity when they experience some unknown, complicated or conflicting cues. (Furnham, 1994)

Similarly, tolerance of ambiguity (TA) ,according to Furnham and Ribachester (1995, cited in Dewaele et al ,2015), "referred to the way an individual (or group) perceives and processes information about ambiguous situations when confronted by an array of unfamiliar, complex or incongruent cues…"(cited in Dewaele et al., 2015, p.50). This is congruent with Ely (1989) who argued that "second language learning is fraught with uncertainty" about meanings, referents, and pronunciation, hence a level of ambiguity tolerance is crucial for language learners. It is worth stating that students who can tolerate confusing situations tend to persist longer in language learning than

students who are overly worried about the ambiguities inherent in learning a new language (Chappelle, 1983; Naiman, Frohlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978 cited in Oxford, 1992, p.37).

More importantly, a person with a low ambiguity tolerance considers ambiguous situations as interesting (Furham, 1994). This seems to be consistent with Buchner (1962, cited in Dewaele, et al., 2013) when he referred to TA as the *"tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as desirable"*. Ambiguity-tolerant learners learn better when they are offered the opportunity of experiences risks and communications. On the contrary, ambiguity–intolerant learners learn most effectively in more certain, and more structured situations" (Reid, 1995 cited in Basoz,2015, p.54). Therefore, tolerance of ambiguity can be regarded as a quality directly related to one's personality on one's cognitive style (Ely, et al., 1989, cited in Basoz, 2015, p.54).

Interestingly, the psychologist Bochner (1965 cited in Dewaele et al., 2013, p.50*)* considered TA as a personality trait that is classified into two categories: primary and secondary. The state of 'being anxious' for instance was regarded as a secondary category combined with other personality traits such as rigid, dogmatic, closed-minded, aggressive, etc. Furthermore, Smock's (1995, cited in Dewaele, 2013, p.52) inquiry was also regarded to be in line with the assumption that anxiety and TA are inextricably related to personality traits. That is to say, individuals are likely to feel anxious in uncertain and ambiguous situations, and the degree of anxiety rises according to their TA. In this conjuncture, Furnham and Ribchester (1995) asserted that:

> The person with low tolerance of ambiguity experiences stress reacts prematurely and avoids ambiguous stimuli. At the other extreme of the scale, however, a person with a high tolerance of ambiguity perceives ambiguous situations/stimuli as desirable, challenging, and interesting and neither denies nor distorts their complexity of incongruity. (p. 179)

The link between uncertainty (ambiguity) and anxiety figures prominently in William GudyKunst's (2005) anxiety, uncertainty management (AUM) theory. GudyKunst concentrated on what constitutes effective communication between groups of different cultural backgrounds, in other terms, "situations where differences between interlocutors spawn doubts and fears"(Griffin, 2011, p.424). Anxiety and uncertainty should be managed

by being careful about communication to be successful. In one of his 47 axioms, he suggested that " an increase in our tolerance of ambiguity will produce a decrease in our anxiety. This axiom holds only when our anxiety and uncertainty are between our minimum and maximum thresholds*" (GudyKunst, 2005, p.298).The minimum threshold of anxiety is

> the least amount we can feel while still having enough adrenaline running through our veins to prod us to communicate effectively. In like manner, the minimum threshold of uncertainty is the lowest amount of uncertainty we can have and not feel bored or overconfident about our predictions of strangers' behaviour.

> (Griffin 2011, p.431)

The maximum threshold of anxiety is attained when people become paralyzed with fear. "They no longer can concentrate on the message or the messenger; they fall back on negative stereotypes or simply withdraw from the conversation" (Griffin, 2011, p.431). Likewise, when people reach the maximum threshold of uncertainty "they lose all confidence that they can predict other's behaviour, and communication no longer seems worthwhile" (Griffin, 2011, p.431). In a nutshell, anxiety/ uncertainty management theory proposes that "effective communication is possible only when participants' levels of anxiety and uncertainty fall somewhere between those upper and lower thresholds" (Griffin, 2011, p.431).

Additionally, Thompson and Lee (2012) utilized factor analysis of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) data gathered from Korean EFL students to defect a factor they termed as "fear of ambiguity in English". The authors mentioned that this factor had not been identified in previous research involving FLCAS (p.18). The factor has"11 items indicating a panicked feeling when not everything is understood in English as well as a general dislike and nervousness about English and English courses, explaining 3.33 % of the variance".(p.10). Indeed, the findings of this investigation together with a close look at the FLCAS reveal that some items are similar to those in the Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale (SLTAS). (e.g. It frightens me when I don't understand every word the language teacher says) It can be deduced, therefore, that Horwitz et al., (1986) might have assumed that SLTA is a component of FLCA. This stands as a good illustration

of the intricate relationship that exists between tolerance of ambiguity and foreign language anxiety**.**

Clément and Wen (2003) pointed out in their study of Chinese ESL learners that a higher degree of SLTA might result in less anxiety, though the author's focus was more on SLTA and the eagerness of engaging in communication (p.31).On the other hand, despite the essential role of TA in enhancing foreign language learning, "too much tolerance of ambiguity may lead to questioning acceptance and cognitive passivity". (Oxford, 1992, pp.37-38) This is why foreign language learning researchers have postulated that moderate degrees of SLTA might be favoured to both low and high levels, hence echoing Gundy Kunst's (2005) observation about the extremes of the uncertainty and anxiety dimensions being pernicious to successful communication. The latter, however, can never be achieved if the learners lack the ability of risk-taking.

1.17.7. Risk Taking

Research on risk-taking behaviour emerged in the literature of psychology in1960s (Kogan & Wallach, 1967) and 1970s (Bem, 1971), and it emerged in the literature of linguistics and English as a Second language (ESL) in the 1960s (Labov, 1969, 1980's; Beebe, 1983; Ely, 1986a).

It is noteworthy, however, that there have been several different approaches to the term risk-taking. Hence, learner research differences have not arrived at a unified explication of the term yet. Despite this fact, one of the most comprehensive definitions of risk-taking has been proposed by Beebe (1983) who considers risk-taking as; " a situation where an individual has to make a decision involving a choice between alternatives of different desirability; the outcome of the choice is uncertain; there is a possibility of failure" (Beebe,1983 as cited in Gass & Silinker 2008,p.433). Though Beebe does not clearly explain the pedagogical implication of risk-taking, teachers can infer and deduce that the risk of failure is associated with learning to speak a second language.

In addition, it is assumed that risk-taking may entail also impulsiveness, adventurousness, spontaneity and flexibility with special inhibition and restraint. (Moris 1979, as cited in Ely, 1986) Many key concepts are correlated with risk-taking. These include challenges, fear, failure, etc.

Risk-taking is pointed to as the tendency to engage in behaviours that are likely to be determinable, embarrassing, with a great deal of pain, criticism, and even loss; yet in the meantime offer the opportunity for positive outcomes to come along. This seems to resonate with Alshalabi (2003)

Regarding skills, most studies involving risk-taking have focused on speaking rather than on other macro skills (writing, listening, and reading). This is because risk-taking practices (behaviours) are rarely apparent or do not have a considerable impact on these skills as they do on students' oral performance. (Liu & Jack, 2008) Oral production, especially, has received scant attention as second/foreign language teachers usually struggle with students who favour not taking the risk of speaking in the second/foreign language class. Moreover, research on risk-taking practices has often been associated with broader domains, such as the levels of motivation and anxiety experienced when speaking in class. (Dewaele, 2012)

A significant question that has been raised by many researchers is whether risk-taking behaviour facilitates second/foreign language acquisition and helps learners enhance their oral proficiency or just hampers their learning process. Some educationists consider risk-taking as a good student quality that most language teachers favour in the classroom. As a crucial individual difference, it is regarded as a predictor variable of success in second/ foreign language learning (Gass & Silinker, 2008). In other terms, learners with risk-taking abilities tend to engage more actively in classroom participation (Alshalabi, 2003). They practice more, collaborate with their classmates, learn by correcting mistakes and hence attain foreign language proficiency. (Brown, 1994)

On the other hand, other studies on individual differences and second language acquisition concentrated on the outcomes of risk-taking rather than on the process associated with student performance in speaking activities (Kahneman, Slovic & Tversky (as cited in Gass & Silinker, 2008), for example, suggest that taking risks can result in negative consequences because the learner might be involved in a loss or unsuccessful situation. Thus, the concept of risk-taking is likely to be related to the unfavourable condition that may hamper speaking in the language classroom. It is also probable that risk-takers sacrifice accuracy for the sake of oral production (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999), which might prompt the learner to produce bad linguistic input. Suffice it to say, high degrees of risk-taking badly influence other domains, e.g., self-esteem, willingness to communicate

and confidence. That is the more risks the student takes, the more chances he has to be effectively constrained.

Interestingly, in front of such conflicting views, literature has highlighted that moderate risk-taking ability is mostly favoured for effective foreign/ second language learning. In this regard, Oxford (1992) noted that:

> risk-taking ability, though sometimes considered an inherent character trait, can be developed through a nonthreatening classroom climate, class discussion of fears, individual counselling with inhibited students, and training in strategies that facilitate taking risks (e.g., compensation strategies like guessing or using synonyms. (p. 38)

Certainly, investigating the nature of risk-taking has also prompted researchers to consider the specific traits that a risk-taker should possess. Concerning the requirements learners have to meet to be regarded as risk-takers, one of the significant reports corresponds to Ely's dimensions. According to Ely's (as cited in Alshalabi, 2003) first dimension, risk-takers are not reluctant to use a newly encountered linguistic element. The second dimension involves risk takers' willingness to utilize linguistic elements regarded to be complicated. This dimension explicates why risk-takers elaborate levels of ambiguity tolerance that permit them to belittle any difficult or new situation they may encounter (Alshalabi, 2003). The third and the fourth dimensions describe respectively how risk-takers reveal tolerance towards possible incorrectness in using the language and how they tend to rehearse a new element silently before trying to use it aloud. This rehearsal issue, however, has been further examined by other researchers who assume that prior preparation before producing utterances may hinder risk-taking (Hong Wei, 1996). Indeed, mental preparation is a feature of more careful students, who in given situations spend so much time preparing to speak that they do not take the risk of talking in front of others.

Concerning the traits of risk-takers, students revealing this personality trait value opportunities to practice the language; thus, they are involved in classroom participation (Alshalabi, 2003). Additionally, risk-takers usually display extroverted features and utilize strategic techniques such as guessing (Beebea, 1983) to overcome the ambiguity and risk degrees related to a particular situation. They generally embrace some ideas that in some circumstances are not advocated by others. Consequently, risk-takers need bravery and responsibility to bear the outcomes of their linguistic decisions, even when they are not

supported by others to handle risk-taking situations. Other features of risk-taking students include their capacity to "imitate communication regardless of the situation and the number and the type of interlocutors" (Ortega, 2009 as cited in Cervantes, 2013), in addition to their lack of fear towards negative criticism.

Nonetheless, low-risk-takers are inclined to be more restrained and use less complicated structures so that their levels of linguistic oral accuracy do not decline considerably. The issue with inhibition with low risk-takers is that it decreases risk-taking which is significant for rapid second/ foreign language acquisition.

Considering the relationship between anxiety and risk-taking, researchers have argued that they are intricately correlated, in other terms; anxiety-provoking situations contribute either to the rise or the fall of risk-taking behaviour. More specifically, students with high risk-taking properties, tend to consider the main sources of anxiety again, not a loss. They are uninhibited students who enjoy more benefits to enhancing their oral proficiency. One among these is that they are more "impervious to stress and anxiety" (Ortega, 2009, p197). Indeed, high-risk takers are also more inclined to tolerate ambiguity in the language classroom. Wen and Clément (2003) and Dewaele (2012) place special emphasis on high-risk-takers 'tolerance of ambiguity because they centre their attention on meaning rather than on form. Hence, high-risk takers venture into using a new language, and they are eager to produce novel utterances in the target language. Risk-avoiders, nonetheless, tend to reveal introverted behaviours and produce carefully edited output. Suffice it to say that high-risk-taking students are active speakers who overcome their anxiety to communicate more effectively and fluently.

It is worth highlighting that in most cases high-risk-takers are more convenient than low-risk-takers. Nonetheless, as literature has indicated, high-risk-taking students have to be cautious about two factors i.e., accuracy and fear, as they constitute major impediments to both language learning and enhancement of oral expression. The optimal solution, then, would involve providing risk-taking students with an encouraging classroom atmosphere where fear levels would be reduced whereas accuracy and fluency would be emphasized. In this regard, Oxford (1992) argued that "teachers can help learners relax and not be worried if they do not do everything the right way; and at the same time, they can assist learners in knowing when and how to take risks, particularly in conversational settings" (Oxford, 1992, p.38)

Thus, the language classroom, as well as the language, should have a pivotal role to employ the advantages that high-risk-takers already have to promote healthy language acquisition by minimizing fear in the learning environment. This is because the fear of speaking a new language that the learners do not completely master heightens the feeling of anxiety and apprehension. Among the most common fears that students may experience when embarking upon speaking a second/ foreign language are fears of peer reactions, humiliation, disapproval, etc. Furthermore, students may be also worried about being embarrassed about getting bad grades or failing an exam. Similarly, when students speak a foreign language outside the classroom, they are afraid of looking ridiculous, having blank looks or even being alienated among others (Gledhill, & Morgan 2000).

1.17.8. Competitiveness

Still, another personal trait that is significantly related to FL anxiety is competitiveness**.** Bailey (1983) defines competitiveness as a learner's "desire to excel in comparison to others"(p. 96), which may figure prominently in learner traits *"such as: (1) overtly comparing oneself to classmates and personal expectations, (2) a feeling of having to outdo other learners, (3) and a preoccupation with tests and grades, especially regarding other students".(Tóth, 2007, p.129).

Interestingly, the competitive classroom, also known as individualistic learning, is the most traditional form of learning. Students study alone and compete in their tasks while attempting to grasp the presented input. Tests are provided to measure each student's progress, and letter grades or percentages are provided for both assignments and tests. In such a setting, students may become competitive with each other for the best scores.

Nonetheless, though competitive learning encourages students to do their best for real-world challenges, gaining high grades and teachers' approval may be regarded as more essential than actual learning. Similarly, using diary studies of language learners**,** Bailey (1983 cited in Oxford, 1999a) maintained that learner competitiveness can lead to language anxiety. This is likely to occur when competitive learners consider themselves as less competent compared to others. Therefore, they are prone to remain anxious and frustrated which hurt their performance. In this conjuncture, Oxford (1992) asserted that "Extreme

competition in the language classroom-not the common competition of team play or individual gamesmanship but instead a more exaggerated form of competition-is related to severe anxiety, inadequacy, guilt, hostility, withdrawal, and fear of failure" (p.39).

On the other hand, Bailey regarded anxiety as particularly significant because of the associated trait of competitiveness which is the main reason for apprehension and anxiety. As Brown (1994) posited, facilitative anxiety which is one of the signs of success is intimately related to competitiveness. The level of anxiety heightened by competitiveness is also linked to the learning style preferences of the learner. In other words, visual learners, for instance, prefer to read and receive a great deal of visual information, *"For them, lectures, conversations, and oral directions without any visual backup can be very confusing and anxiety-producing"* (Oxford, 1992, p.41).

More importantly, as an alternative to competitive learning, cooperative learning emerged in the 1960s and became ever since very well-documented in the literature of second/foreign language acquisition. Cooperative learning can be referred to as a variety of techniques for promoting student-student interaction (Bossert, 1988). This mode of learning refers to a classroom learning environment where students are usually split into small groups and encouraged to enhance their learning, as well as the others in the group. Cooperation takes many forms such as "working in tandem with the teacher, with fellow students, and with native speakers of the language who are not connected with the classroom situation**"** (Oxford, 1992, p.38).

Cooperative learning incorporates several advantages such as "strong motivation, greater achievement, increased satisfaction for teachers and students, more language practice, more feedback about language errors and greater use of varied language functions". (Oxford, 1992, p.39) Other significant advantages of cooperative learning involve "higher self-esteem and confidence, decreased prejudice and increased altruism and respect for others*"* (Oxford, 1992, p.39).

1.17.9. Learners' Beliefs about Language Learning

As language learning presents a threat to learners' self-concept, learners may generate some peculiar beliefs about language learning and its use. Research on FL anxiety proposes that certain beliefs about language learning also contribute to the learners'

apprehension and anxiety in the classroom (Horwitz et al., 1986, p.127). In his study about language anxiety, Young (1991) identified six main sources of language anxiety. These include *"1*) personal and interpersonal anxieties;2) learner beliefs about language learning;3) instructor beliefs about language teaching;4) instructor-learner interactions;5)classroom procedures; and 6) language testing". Concerning learner beliefs about language learning. Young (1991) considered them a significant *contributor* to language anxiety. This idea was extended in the research studies of Gyan (1989) and Horwitz (1984). These studies support Young's study that learners' beliefs have a major role to play in language learning. Gyan (1989), for instance, revealed that his learners believe that pronunciation is the most important aspect of learning a second/ foreign language. Other favoured practices, in order of popularity, involved vocabulary, classroom conjugation, communication, memorization of grammar, travelling to a country where the language is spoken, translation, and making friends (p.9). Likewise, language learners in Horwitz's study:

> 1)expressed greater concern over the correctness of their utterances;2)placed a great deal of stress on speaking with [an excellent accent] ;3) supported the notion that language is primarily translating from English;4) believed that two years is enough time to become fluent in other languages, and 5) believed some people were more able to learn a foreign language; and 5) believed some people were more able to learn a foreign language than, others.

> (Cited in Young 1991, p.428)

In this regard, Young (1991) postulated that since many of these beliefs are unrealistic for the language learner, they could result in anxiety. For instance, most beginning learners, except if they are highly motivated, will not sound like native-like speakers. If they believe that pronunciation is the most essential element of language learning, they will finish up anxious and frustrated. The same frustration and stress install if they believe they should attain fluency in two years. (Young 91, p.428)

Furthermore, another interesting study about learner beliefs was carried out by Peacock (2001). The main aim of the study was to investigate changes in beliefs about language learning. Data was gathered from 146 Trainee ESL students enrolled at the City University of Hong Kong. The studies concluded with no considerable changes in beliefs. Nonetheless, some differences were identified that second language learning meant recalling a great deal of vocabulary and mastering rules of grammar, including those who communicate in more than one language are regarded to be very talented. (Rock, 2001)

proposed, then, that learning vocabulary was overemphasized by the participants of the study. Continuing with the idea of beliefs, Atlan (2006) researched learner beliefs and administered a questionnaire to collect data from 248 respondents enrolled in various disciplines at different universities. Equally, the findings revealed that the learners have a set of fixed beliefs about second /foreign language learning. Interestingly, research on FLA and LB has confirmed that learners' beliefs are among the dominant factors that provoke anxiety among learners (Ohta 2005). Notwithstanding, research on learner beliefs only may not suffice as the one-sided picture is shown. That is why there is a need to investigate as well teachers' beliefs.

1.17.10. Teachers' Beliefs about Language Teaching

Concerning teachers' Beliefs about Language Teaching, research suggested that instructors' beliefs about language teaching also represent a significant source of anxiety. As already reported, Young (1991) posited that anxiety may be evoked if the instructors believe that an authoritarian way of teaching enhances students' performance if they think that all students' errors must be constantly corrected if they see that they should do most of the "talking and teaching" rather than acting just as facilitators; and if they "feel that they cannot have students working in pairs because the class may get of control…"(Young, 1991, p.428). Indeed, students recognize the effectiveness of error correction, but a harsh manner of responding to students 'errors is often cited as anxiety-evoking (Young, 1991, p.429).

1.17.11. Classroom Procedure

Classroom procedure has been counted as another factor related to language anxiety. More specifically, the foreign language classroom involves various activities that may provoke students' anxiety. This concerns specifically the students speaking in front of each other and the instructor. In this respect, Young (1991) posited that "anxieties associated with classroom procedures centre primarily on having to speak in the target language in front of a group". (p.429) Similarly, in their study, Koch and Terrel (1991)found that more than one-half of their respondents announced oral presentations in front of the whole class and oral skits as the most anxiety-provoking activities. They also found that students get more stressed when called upon to respond individually rather than given the chance of responding voluntarily. In the same way, Young (1990) proposed a list of anxiety-producing

classroom tasks:(1) unplanned role-play (2) speaking (3) oral presentations or skits (4) exchange of ideas (5) writing work on the board (6) putting considerable emphasis on grammar or avoiding grammar (Young, 1990, pp.543-544.). Furthermore, Young (1991) postulated that more than sixty-eight per cent of her respondents reported feeling more relaxed when they did not have to get in front of the class to speak.

In the same vein, Young (1990) attempted to identify the main sources of anxiety over speaking in a foreign language classroom. Hence, she administered a questionnaire to 135 university-level Spanish beginners and 109 high school students. The questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first one required agreeing or disagreeing with twenty-four items related to language anxiety; the second part required students to reveal their level of anxiety regarding certain in-class practices; the third part asked learners to identify teacher characteristics and teacher practices that contributed to reducing language anxiety (Young, 1990, p.542). The findings of data analysis suggested, among other things, that the in-class speaking activities that required '*on the spot* 'and "*in front of the class"* performance were the most anxiety-provoking from the students' perspectives (Young, 1990, p.551).In other terms, the student respondents favoured taking part in activities that did not require them to get up in front of the class (Young, 1990, p.545). Additionally, they reported that they are more relaxed when they felt they are not the only persons responding to a question (Young, 1990, p.545). They are favoured also to volunteer answers than to be appointed by a teacher, which seems to be consistent with the above-mentioned findings of Koch and Terrel (1991).

1.17.12. Attitudes

Language attitude is a significant concept as it places a key role in language learning and teaching. Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1991, p.70) refer to attitudes as "a positive or negative feeling, or a mental state of a person resulting from experience and which directs the person's response to others, certain things or attitudes". Interestingly, though seeming stable, attitudes have been proven to be changeable. In this regard, Baker (1999) contended that attitudes are learnt, not genetically inherited; they are acquired from the environment via interactions with significant people surrounding us. This is congruent with the view of Zimbardo and Dieppe (1991) who saw that attitudes are made through direct experience and implicit learning and may project an individual's personality.

Furthermore, the research literature has identified three components of attitudes: cognitive components, affective components, and behavioural components (AL Hamali, 2007; Kara, 2009 as cited in Aliakbari, & Gheitasi, 2017). The cognitive component includes points of view, beliefs, or thoughts about some subject or situation. The affective (emotional) component involves one's feelings and emotions towards an object. The behavioural component is associated with an individual's readiness to carry out actions and certain reactions that are consistent with their attitudes.

Additionally, language attitudes have been classified into categories. For instance, Stern (1983, pp.376-7) identified "three types of attitudes in second /foreign language learning situation:(a) attitudes towards the community and people who speak L2(group-specific attitudes),(b)attitudes towards learning the language concerned; and (c)attitudes towards languages and language learning in general"(cited in Zeinivand et al,2015, p.241). It is worth stating that these attitudes are significantly affected by the type of personality the learner has, for example, whether they are ethnocentric, authoritarian or intolerant. They may be also affected by the peculiar social milieu within which the language-learning process occurs.

Moreover, according to Ustuner et al., (2009), attitudes are characterized by several features which involve "a specific response; b- long-life stability; c-psychological; d-motivation; forming an individual's attitudes by certain assessment; f-attitudes and not be explicitly realized but can be implicitly observed within the individual's behaviour" (Hammad, 2016, p.56).

More importantly, as attitude is a very influential constituent of language learning, several studies have been carried out on language attitude (e.g. Al Hmali, 2007; Ghazali et al., 2009, cited in Aliakbari & Gheitasi, 2017). Moreover, Saidat (2010) contended that language attitude research has been highly estimated in the previous half of the century due to the increasing relationship between language use and attitude towards language (Aliakbari, & Gheitasi, 2017).In this connection, Savignon and Wang (2003) examined Taiwanese EFL learners' attitudes and perceptions regarding classroom practices categorized as primarily meaning-based and form-focused. The results indicated a discrepancy between learner needs and preferences and their reported experience of classroom instruction. Similarly, Chalak and Kassaian (2010, as cited in Aliakbari & Gheitasi, 2017) examined motivation and attitudes towards the target language and its

community. They realized that Iranian speakers of English studied language equally for '*instrumental*' and '*integrative*' reasons and their attitudes towards the target language community and its members were generally found to be highly positive.

There is no doubt that language attitude is one of the most determining factors in the success of foreign language learning. Concerning the relationship between attitude and anxiety, researchers found that they are significantly interwoven. In 2013, Jain, & Sidhu as cited in Skin, and Kartheyan (2014) conducted a study among Malaysian tertiary students and found a significant relationship between anxiety and attitude. In other terms, the high level of anxiety negatively influences attitudes and lowers the level of motivation of the learners regardless of their discipline, gender and even language proficiency. Similarly, the study of Kingsley and Cheng among 224 EFL university students in South Taiwan revealed that good language learners show more favourable attitudes, high levels of motivation, positive belief, utilize more strategies and most importantly appear less anxious when learning English.

1.17.13. Language Proficiency

Many studies have been carried out to examine the relationship between anxiety and language proficiency (Aida, 1994; Gardner 1985; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgonet, 1997). There are considerable differences between high-proficiency and low-proficiency students. Low-proficiency students are likely to reveal more anxiety than high-proficiency students. (Young, 1991) In this respect, Javad Mohammadi, et al., (2014) contended that:

> As the level of proficiency and improved skills in the foreign language increase, foreign language learners are expected to become less anxious in the language classes. Therefore, senior students due to the gradual accumulation of skills and proficiency should experience less anxiety compared with their sophomore counterparts. (p.334)

Notwithstanding, some factors may influence the relationship between proficiency and anxiety. For instance, according to Javad Mohammadi, et al (2014), senior students with a higher level of proficiency may experience more anxiety than sophomore students with a lower level of proficiency. Senior students may feel stressed when they approach their final exams (Javad Mohammadi, et al (2014)). Furthermore, sometimes, the senior course materials are almost harder than those of sophomores. Therefore, the rather harder

contents of the course books evoke anxiety for seniors. Thus, such factors substantially influence the relationship between proficiency level and anxiety (Javad Mohammadi, et al (2014).

1.17.14. Language Aptitude

Language aptitude has been regarded as one of the most significant IDs in connection to FL learning success (Skehan, 1989, 2002). Before exploring its relationship with FL anxiety, it is perhaps convenient to discern the nature of "*general aptitude*", i.e. cognitive ability in general psychological research. One of the well-known researchers in the field is Carroll (1983) who defined it as "any of the one or more non-ephemeral characteristics of an individual that determine the level of individual's performance on a cognitive task when maximal performance is attempted"(p.4). From such a definition, it can be deduced that up to Carroll (1983), one's abilities are fairly stable. Such relative stability, one should note, was later restated by Carroll himself by saying that "to the extent that cognitive abilities are at least relatively stable and relatively resistant to attempts to change them through education or training and at the same time are possibly predictive of future success, they are often regarded as aptitudes."(Carroll, 1983, p.16)

However, the focus here is on language aptitude. Language aptitude has been defined in several ways, and its conceptualization witnessed several changes since it began to be investigated. Carroll (19973) referred to it as some features of an individual which determine the rate of progress that the learner makes in learning a foreign language. In this respect, he said:

> research suggests that individual differences in foreign language aptitude are universal and highly generalized in two senses; first, in the sense that aptitude is equally relevant to any foreign language that the individual might choose to study, and second, in the sense that individual differences in foreign language aptitude are found equally among the native speakers of different languages.

(Carroll, 1973, p.5)

Later on, Carroll himself (1981) rectified his definition of aptitude by proposing that it is separate, on the one hand, from motivation or interest and, on the other hand, from achievement. Therefore, he refers to aptitude as the capacity of the individual that relies on some collection of most *permanent features,* whereas achievement relates to the notion that

the individual can have acquired given capacities of FL acquisition among other necessary capabilities.

Interestingly, in his examination of the concept of language aptitude, Carroll (1959) proposed that aptitude consists of four subcomponents as the following table demonstrates:

Table1. Carroll's Four Component Model of Aptitude (adapted from Dorneyei & Skehan, 2003, p.592)

Component name	Nature and Function
Phonemic Coding ability	Capacity to code unfamiliar sound so that it can be retained over more than a few seconds and subsequently retrieved or recognized
Grammatical sensitivity	Capacity to identify the grammatical functions that words fulfil in sentences
Inductive language learning ability	Capacity to extract syntactic and morphological patterns from a given corpus of a language material and to extrapolate from such patterns to create new sentences.
Associative memory	Capacity to form associative bonds in memory between L1 and L2 vocabulary items

It is worthy to note, however, that this division does not entail that these components are independent. On the contrary, in this division, Carroll (1973, 1981) cleared up the connection they sustain and gradually rectified their conceptualization.

Concerning Carroll's perception of phonemic coding ability, it can be stated that it varied from previous approaches in the fact that it did not only consider simple sound distinction tasks, but coding sounds in a streamline, whether covered or not and retaining them

so that they can be recalled later. In such a manner, phonemic coding ability was connected to memory capacity and the processes of encoding and retrieval of phonemic material.

Grammatical sensitivity was regarded as the capacity to identify the functions that words fulfil in sentences, which is a passive capacity. However, inductive language learning ability was viewed as an active ability, as the learner has to analyse the linguistic material and then infer and generalize them to new linguistic content.

Finally, associative memory was first regarded as independent from phonemic coding ability. Then, it was thought of as just the capacity to connect native language words with their corresponding equivalents, which would be so relevant in speeding up vocabulary growth. (Skehan, 2001)

FL aptitude or learning ability as a potential factor contributing to FL anxiety was highlighted by many researchers, though their findings were quite conflicting. Ganschow and Sparks (1996), for instance, reported a negative correlation between learners' foreign language anxiety and language aptitude as measured by the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT). That is, students reporting high levels of FL anxiety were more likely to have a lower level of language aptitude. However, Tóth (2007) found that FL aptitude and FL anxiety are not significantly correlated. In other words, in a study conducted among first-year Hungarian English Majors, he reported that a weak negative relationship was shown between his participants' anxiety scores and their performance on the language aptitude measure. Low negative correlation coefficients were attained for all subtests as well as for the language aptitude total test; nevertheless, none of them was significant. Indeed, such findings reveal that English major participants' aptitude was not significantly linked to the degree of anxiety they experienced about learning or utilizing the target language.

1.18. The Effects of Language Anxiety on Academic Achievements

The relationship between FLA and learners' achievements has been one of the major concerns among researchers who agreed that FLA affects the students' performance negatively (Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Young, 1991, Kamarulzaman, M. H.et al.2013). Indeed, a considerable number of researchers have found a moderate negative correlation between anxiety and language achievement scores revealing that highly anxious students either expect or receive lower grades than their less anxious counterparts (Gardner,

Smythe & Labonde, 1984; Price, 1991). One common point among these studies is that they assume that low-anxious learners learn better, though previous research has indicated mixed results.

Chastain (1975) examined the correlation between test anxiety and the performance of students studying beginning courses in German, French and Spanish. The findings indicated that test anxiety has a positive relationship with the Spanish language, a negative correlation with the French language and concerning the German language, it was marginally positively correlated. Besides, Bachman (1976) conducted a study on affective variables and adult L2 learners. His findings revealed that there was no association between language anxiety and achievement. Furthermore, Young (1986) explored the relationship between anxiety and the performance of the students in the FL oral test and she found that the level of anxiety does not affect the achievement of the students when they have a good level of proficiency. Nevertheless, in a more recent study on anxiety among true-and false-beginner learners of Spanish and French, Frantzen and Magan, (2005) revealed that true beginners showed higher levels of anxiety and received lower final grades than false beginners.

More importantly, the findings concerning the relationship between anxiety and academic achievement are mixed and they have been tackled in different ways. Up to Ellis (1994), examining the association between students' achievement and anxiety is not a linear one. Regarding the effect of anxiety on performance, Alpert et al., (1960) have divided anxiety into two categories: debilitating and facilitating (see section 1.5). Debilitating anxiety prompts the students to escape the learning activity; whereas, facilitating anxiety prompts the student to battle when encountering new learning tasks. Moreover, William (1991) postulated that these two types of anxiety might annul each other and do not affect the performance of the students. Besides, he argued that anxiety might have a facilitating role when the learners experience a low degree of anxiety while a high degree of anxiety ends in a debilitating outcome.

Additionally, it is worth noting that the difficulty of the learning task and the level of proficiency of the learners influence the impact of anxiety on the student's s achievement. This is consistent with the view of MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) who found that language anxiety did not have any effect on the English performance test but it hurt the French performance test. In other terms, a high level of anxiety is not related to easy activities as

those given in the mother tongue but is related to the difficult task, especially when provided in a second /foreign language, such as English. Furthermore, MacIntyre and Gardner (1980) found that the students who experience a higher level of communicative anxiety could recall fewer French words and learn slower than the other students. Similarly**,** Philips (1992) used an oral test to investigate the effect of anxiety on the student's performance. His results indicated that the high-anxious students tended to speak less, produce short sentences, and rely on independent clauses as opposed to the students who experience a low level of anxiety. In fact according to Norzian, and et al., (2017), nearly half of the students who study a second or foreign language experience debilitating language anxiety. In this regard, Saito et.al., (1996) indicated that the degree of anxiety that the students experience at the beginner, intermediate and advanced levels has a negative influence on the grades that the students obtain in exams. Besides, Kamarulzaman et al. (2013) examined the correlation between anxiety and achievement among gifted learners in Malaysia and the findings showed that anxiety harms the gifted learners' performance as well.

One cannot accomplish things without a particular amount of anxiety, even though too much anxiety might hamper learning. The Yerkes Dodson Law (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908 cited in Takayuki, N. (2008) illustrates the relationship between anxiety and performance using an inverted U shape in a diagram displaying anxiety on the horizontal axis and performance on the vertical axis (see Figure 3). According to Yerkes & Dodson, 1908 cited in Takayuki, N. (2008) whether anxiety is facilitating or debilitating depends mainly on the individual. In other words, this facilitating/debilitating distinction is highly s*ubjective* and *personal*. For example, two learners are about to sit for an exam. One learner may study well to decrease anxiety and to grasp the input well, while another learner may not study efficiently as s/he is too worried and afraid of obtaining negative results (Takayuki, N. 2008).
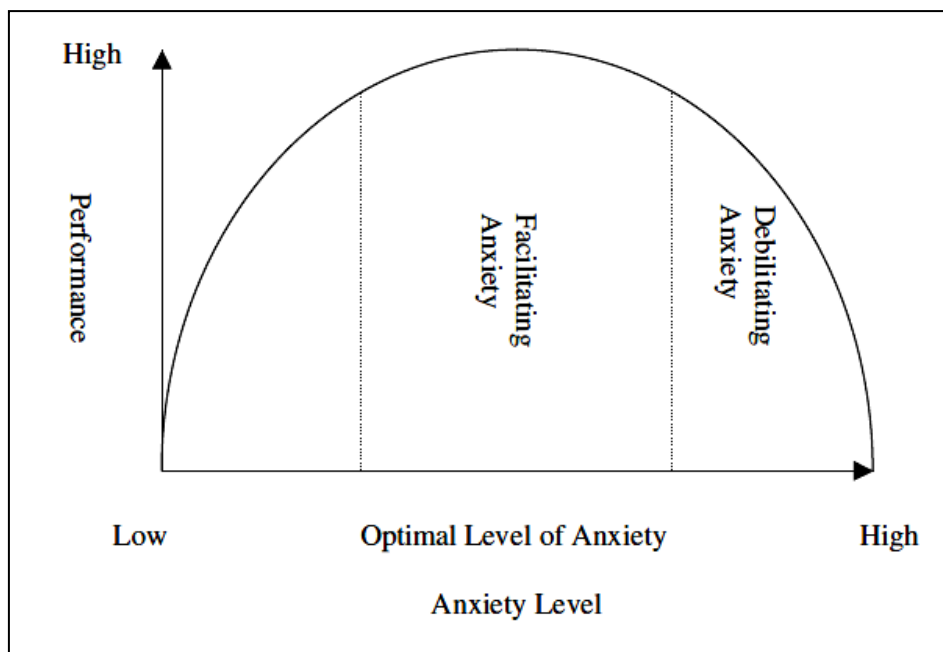
Figure 3: Inverted U-shaped Relationship between Anxiety and Performance (cited in Takayuki, N., 2008, p.14)

In a nutshell, several studies examined the relationship between the degree of anxiety and the learners' achievement. Yet, the results were mixed as the relationship between these two factors is relatively complicated. As aforementioned, several factors influence the learners' performance as the difficulty of the learning activity, and the degree of anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; William, 1991). Concerning, however, the mixed results related to the relationship between anxiety and performance, the research literature has identified some other factors. These include the unclear definition of FLA and the divergence of the measurements (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Nonetheless; many attempts have differentiated between general anxiety and foreign language anxiety. Besides, other researchers have revealed a consistent moderate negative correlation between anxiety and performance which have been measured by the test scores and the final grades of the students (Horwitz et al., 1986; Aida, 1994).

1.19. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

As previously stated, a considerable number of studies have been conducted in the area of language education and psychology to explore the effects of anxiety on second/ foreign language learning (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner 1989; Skehan, 1989; Young 1991). Even though some studies have indicated that anxiety may have a facilitating effect on language learning (Spielman & Radnoysky, 2001) most other studies indicated debilitating outcomes (Cheng et al.1999, Horwitz, 2001) as shown in the previous section.

More importantly, in their attempt to explicate the diverse findings reported by several researchers, Horwitz et.al. (1986) attributed them to the inconsistent conceptualizations of the term anxiety and the lack of valid and reliable anxiety measures peculiar to FL learning. Accordingly, she and her colleagues elaborated on an instrument called the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to predict and measure the level of learners' anxiety. The FLCAS was considered to consist of three domains: communication apprehension (for example, "*I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class*"), test anxiety (for example, "*I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class*"), and fear of negative evaluation (for example, "*I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting*")**.** Up to Horwitz et al. (1986), these three forms of anxiety are crucial to the concept of FLA and together make out of language learning a dreadful experience.

Besides, it is worth noting that up to Rokiah, et.al., (2012), the FLCAS was constructed based on self-reports from students, their own clinical experiences as well as data picked from reviews of similar instruments (such as the French Class Anxiety Scale and the French Use Anxiety Scale, Gardner,1985). The final version of the FLCAS contains 33 items that utilize 5-point Likert-type scales with selections ranging from 1 "*strongly agree*" to 5 "*strongly disagree*". Twenty-four of the items are positively worded, and nine of the items are negatively worded. This instrument was meant to measure foreign language learners' level of anxiety while learning a foreign language in the classroom. A higher score obtained by the instrument would report a higher level of FLA.
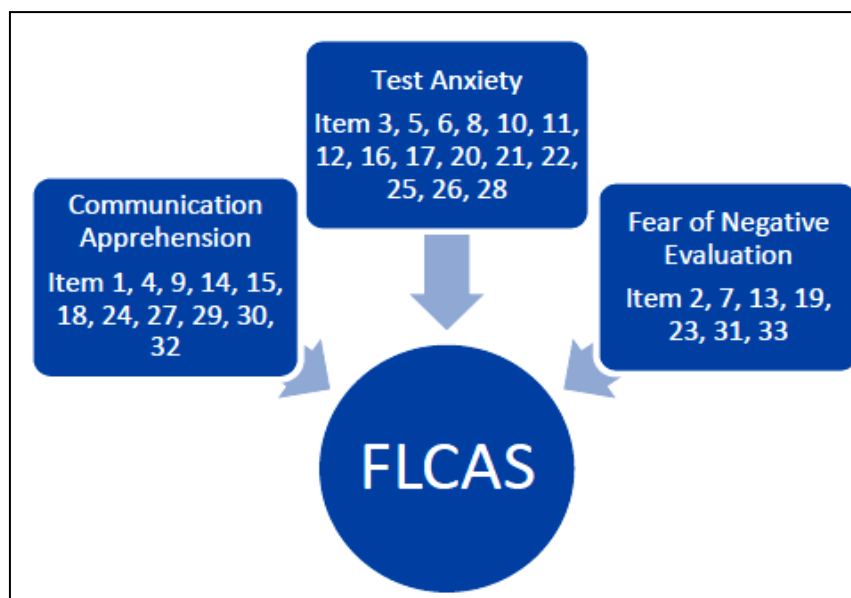
Figure 4. Model 1: FLCAS (Horwitz el.1986) cited in Rokiah Paee et. al., 2012, p.45

It should be noted that with the advent of the FLCAS, several studies emerged indicating inconsistent results with the subdivision of language anxiety as well as the number of factors (domains) that the FLCAS involved. Aida (1994), for instance, attempted to review Horwitz et al.'s three-domain model of FLA by confirming an adapted FLCAS based on students of Japanese to determine the underlying structure of the FLCAS. The study indicated that the adapted FLCAS was capable of making scores that are very reliable at measuring the anxiety levels of students learning Japanese. Aida (1994)introduced four factors instead of three: speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, fear of failing the Japanese class, degree of comfort when speaking with native speakers of Japanese, and negative attitudes towards the Japanese class. It is worth highlighting those six items (items 2, 6, 15, 19, 28, and 30) were eliminated from the final model because they failed to load on any of the four factors. Unexpectedly, the finding in this study was congruent with other studies based on Western languages where all concluded that language anxiety was negatively associated with students' performance in the language they were learning.
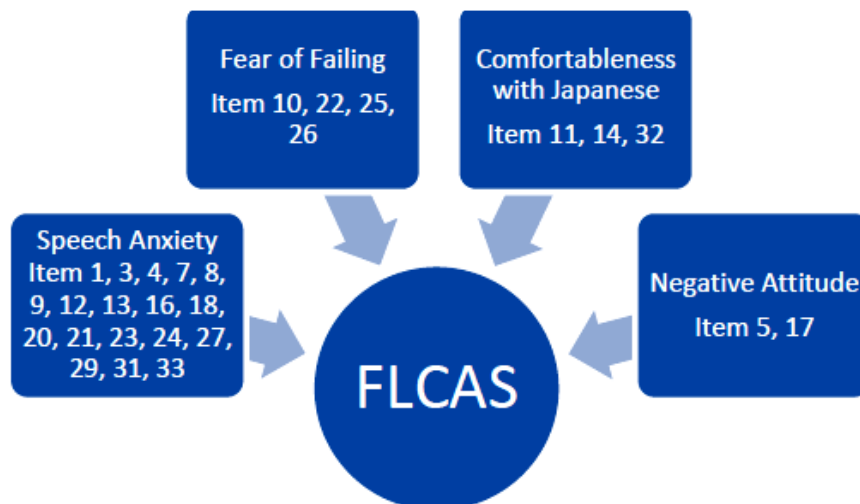
Figure 5: Model 2.FLCAS (Aida, 1994, cited in Rokiah Paee et. al.2012, p.45)

Furthermore, another effort to re-test Horwitz's FLCAS factor structure was made by Zhao (2007) who utilized a Chinese vision and found out that there are four factors as well. These include communication anxiety, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation and anxiety about English classes. The instrument was distributed to a group of 115 second-year High school students learning English as a foreign language in China. Unlike Aida's four-factor model, all 33 items from the original instrument were retained in the final model suggested. Nonetheless, Zhao did not indicate any accuracy measures nor how the items fill load on their respective factors.
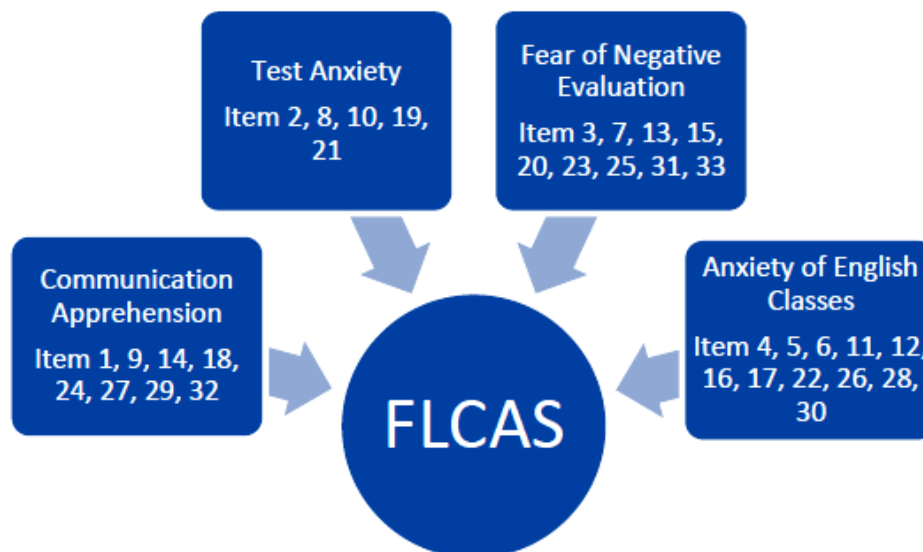
Figure 6: Model 3. FLCAS (Zhao, 2007) cited Rokiah Paee et. al.2012, p.46

1.20. Challenges to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's Theory of FLA

There is no doubt that Horwitz; Horwitz et al.'s theory of foreign language has been extensively accepted. A growing number of consecutive researches have acknowledged the uniqueness of foreign language anxiety and provided evidence that FLCAS is a reliable research instrument when measuring foreign language anxiety (Aida, 1994; Kim, 2009; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010; Noormohamadi, 2009).

Notwithstanding, despite their widespread use and popularity, Horwitz et al.'s theory and the FLCAS instrument (1986) have been challenged and criticized. Four points in Horwitz et al.'s theory have been questioned: (i) the direction of the causal relationship between FLA and language learning difficulties ;(ii) the important role of FLA; (iii)the components of FLA; and (iv) the validity of the FLCAS (Tran Thi Thu Trang,2012).

First, conflicting views have been identified regarding the direction of the causal relationship between FLA and language learning difficulties. While Horwitz et al. maintained the detrimental effects of FLA on language learning, some other researchers considered high levels of FLA to be a consequence rather than a cause of low academic achievement (Argaman & Abu-Rabia, 2002; Sparks & Ganschow, 1995). Up to Sparks and

Ganschow (1995), "One cannot discuss anxiety without inferring a cause" (p.236). Though they agreed that anxiety could hamper learning and students may experience anxiety in learning a foreign language, they regarded anxiety to be more a consequence than a cause of poor achievement in foreign language learning. In line with Sparks and Ganschow's hypothesis, Argaman & Abu-Rabia (2002) explored the impact of language anxiety on achievement in English writing and regarding comprehension tasks and found a significant association between language anxiety and reading and writing skills. Nonetheless, they contended that language anxiety could not be a cause of failure in FL learning, but a consequence.

Nevertheless, in support of Horwitz et al. (1986), MacIntyre (1995b) argued against Sparks and Ganschow, revealing that anxiety arousal could function as a causal agent in creating individual differences in second or foreign language learning. He used the classic example of a student who knows the material but '*freezes up* on a test to argue that anxiety is a cause, not a consequence of poor performance. This view was further supported by Horwitz (2000) who agreed that advanced and successful foreign language learners were also reported having anxiety. Sparks and Ganschow (1995) have highlighted that these distinct views are the chicken and egg phenomenon. In other terms, does the language difficulty cause anxiety or does anxiety cause the language difficulty? The two sides have not fully rejected each other's perspectives.

While maintaining that anxiety both hinders students' learning and makes them unable to demonstrate their knowledge, MacIntyre (1995a) also acknowledged the cyclical relation between anxiety and task performance. He highlighted that students 'anxiety levels might raise even more when students experience more failure. It seems that the answer to the question of whether language difficulty causes anxiety or anxiety causes language difficulty may vary across situations. Sparks and Ganschow (1995) are right to mention that anxiety is prone to result from certain situations such as language difficulty in the case of learning; however, in reality, even good students experience FLA regardless of its frequency. Hence, it is undoubted that anxiety is inclined to be both a cause and an effect of language difficulty. This idea seems logical and it was endorsed by Horwitz (2001) who contended that "it is easy to conceptualise FLA as a result of poor language learning ability…the challenge is to determine the extent to which anxiety is a cause rather than a result of poor language learning "(p.118).

Second, while Horwitz et al. have attributed a very significant affective role to foreign language anxiety, some researchers regarded it as either being independent of or having an inconsiderable impact on FL achievement. Sparks and Ganschow (1991, 1993a, 1993b, 2007) have called into question the importance attributed to FLA in foreign language learning. They questioned the claims made by Horwitz et al. regarding the significance of anxiety and contended that studying anxiety does not help much in the explanation of language achievement. As an alternative, they proposed their Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis (LCDH) to account for poor foreign language learning achievement (see Sparks & Ganschow, 1991; Sparks, Ganschow & Pohlman, 1989). Up to Sparks and Ganschow (1991, 1995). The possibility of disorienting interaction between anxiety and language skills in foreign language learning might occur, and that first-language learning deficiencies are the primary source of poor achievement. In line with this view, Argaman and Abu-Rabia(2002) argued that "if students with high language obtained significantly how grades in every foreign-language skill, the real problem may not be the anxiety but lack of ability in the foreign language arising from a different origin "(p.157). Similarly, Spieldmann and Radnofsky (2001) have also cast doubts on the importance of foreign language anxiety in language learning, proposing that anxiety research should shift the focus from anxiety to tension.

Despite these contradicting views, it seems that a great deal of research has confirmed the detrimental effects of FLA on language learning. Based on such research findings, one may join MacIntyre (1995a) that "the effects *of* anxiety may be more complex than has been implied by Sparks and Ganschow"(p.96). Additionally, it is worth citing that various disciplines may provide conflicting explanations for difficulties that foreign language learners experience (Young, 1995). That being the case, MacIntyre is a cognitive psychologist, consequently, he stresses the need to inquire into the role of cognitive and affective variables to understand how people learn a second or foreign language; meantime, Sparks and Ganschow are learning -disability specialists, so they propose that scrutiny of language aptitude alone can provide explanations for much of the success or failure in language learning. Although their explanations and approaches to the same matter in question are different, it does not necessarily mean that one position eliminates the other. It is worth noting also that a few studies have found no remarkable correlation between first language learning history and foreign language anxiety (Chen & Chang, 2004; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1994a), which does not advocate Sparks and Ganschow's LCDH). As

Horwitz (2001) has contended, *"In addition to contributing to our understanding of second language achievement, language anxiety is fundamental to our understanding of how learners approach language learning, their expectations for success or failure, and ultimately why they continue or discontinue study"* (p.122). Indeed, if we take these arguments for granted, the significant role of anxiety in foreign language learning becomes undeniable.

The third challenge is associated with the components of FLA. Horwitz et al.have combined three related anxieties in their conceptualization of foreign language, including, as already cited, communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation are closely associated with FLA, test anxiety is prone to be a general anxiety problem rather than being peculiar to foreign language learning. This has been confirmed in some studies. In exploring the relationship between test anxiety, general anxiety and communicative anxiety, MacIntyre (1989) found that test anxiety contributed to the general anxiety factor and not to the communicative anxiety factor, hence proposing that test anxiety is a general problem rather than being peculiar to the foreign language classroom. Furthermore, using factor analysis to determine the underlying structure of FLCAS'thirty-three statements, Aida (1994) also reported that the findings did not endorse Horwitz's claim for the comprehension of test anxiety as a component of FLA. These findings have conducted Horwitz (2010) to clear up her position that FLA is related to communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety rather than being composed of them as "misinterpreted" by many researchers (p.158).

Besides, Sparks and Ganschow (1991, 1996, and 2007) have challenged the validity of the FLCAS and claimed that it measures language skills rather than anxiety levels. Up to Sparks and Ganschow, 60per cent of the items (20/33) incorporates comfort level with expressive or receptive language, 15 per cent of the items (5/33) incorporate verbal memory for language, and 12 per cent of the items (4/33) incorporate speed of language processing. They have also criticized the FLCAS which eliminates native language skills or foreign language aptitude. Other researchers such as Aida (1994) and Rodriguez and Abrew (2003) have stated that FLCAS seems to measure anxiety primarily related to speaking situations.

Interestingly, to a certain extent, the above-cited views may be true; however, it is worth noting that each researcher may have his or her way of interpreting the data, which does not necessarily imply that way is right and the other ways are wrong. Furthermore, it is apparent that since the introduction of Horwitz et al.'s FLCAS as an instrument to measure

anxiety levels, the FLCAS has been widely utilized in language anxiety research, and the issue of inconsistent research findings has been considerably solved, which has strengthened its validity and reliability.

Indeed, despite the above challenges, it has become obvious that the distinctiveness and complexity of FLA distinguish it from other anxieties. In this respect, MacIntyre (1999) posited that second or foreign language learning has "more potential for students to embarrass themselves, to frustrate their self-expression, and to challenge their self-esteem and sense of identity than almost any other learning activities" (p.33); hence, anxiety derived from foreign or second language learning is related to but distinct from other kinds of anxiety. As such, an agreement has been attained that foreign language anxiety is a unique type of anxiety, not a transfer of other forms of anxiety.

More importantly, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's theory of foreign language anxiety has played a key role in language anxiety research with a great number of studies using it as the theoretical framework. Nevertheless, it does not necessarily imply that the theory is perfect. As Spielman & Radnofsky (2001) posited, "the most accepted working hypotheses themselves may need revising" (p.261). Certainly, with its complexity and controversy, FLA tends to be and will continue to be a key area of research interest.

1.21. Conclusion

In this chapter, I have attempted to highlight the theoretical framework related to the notion of foreign language anxiety. That was by exploring the nature of the term FLA, its types, sources and manifestations. This chapter also wheeled around the main factors that shape and interact with this crucial affective factor. Various variables such as age, gender, identity, motivation, self-esteem, etc. have been exhibited by accentuating their significance and the way they relate to FLA. This chapter tackled also the different views that researchers proposed concerning the effects of FLA on learners' achievements. Nonetheless, in this piece of work, the relationship between FLA and speaking skills is the most significant point to deal with. Accordingly, the following chapter examines in depth the speaking skill and the way it interrelates to FLA.

Chapter Two

Foreign Language Anxiety

in Speaking

Chapter Two : Foreign Language Anxiety in Speaking

2.1. Introduction

The content of this chapter focuses on speaking as a language skill and the way it relates to FLA. In particular, attention is paid to the nature of speaking and the stages of its enhancement. Besides, the types of speaking tasks and the practice of error correction (which implicates the affective domain in speaking) are also expounded in depth. The closing part of this chapter, however, concentrates on the main coping strategies that both learners and teachers employ to overcome anxiety in the foreign language-speaking classroom.

2.2. FLA and the Four Skills

There is no doubt that much of previous research in literature has focused its attention on the aspect of anxiety related to oral production in L2, but recently interest has been extended to cover all four skill areas: speaking, writing, reading, and listening. A growing number of studies have been conducted on the role of anxiety in the development of different skills. The findings have indicated that students may feel less anxious in some skills, while they may experience a high level of anxiety in some other skills. This urged many scholars to examine the distinguishable aspects of this affective contrast in each of the four skill areas and the nature of anxiousness felt in a specific context.

2.2.1. Reading Anxiety (RA)

Foreign language anxiety has also been associated with reading skills. Recent studies indicated a significant negative correlation between foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) and foreign language reading achievement which reveals a contrary impact of anxiety on student performance during reading activities (Zhao et al., 2013). It is worth noting that FL learners may experience a high level of reading anxiety when faced with unfamiliar scripts, unfamiliar topics, and unfamiliar cultural materials that are likely to figure in authentic texts (Zhao et al., 2013). For such reasons, researchers such as Huang (2013) and Zhao et.al.(2013) mentioned that teachers should incorporate teaching the target language culture. That could be attained by acquainting the students with some cultural topics or organizing visits to the country of the target language. The latter suggestion is not an easy goal to achieve for the majority of classes due to the scarcity of financial resources in some educational institutions. Nonetheless, Zhao et al., 2013 noted that some students have displayed lower anxiety levels after having visited that target language country. Indeed, familiarizing FL students with the target language culture

elevates their level of self-confidence and accordingly, their anxiety level decreases (Mastuda & Gobel, 2004). That is why it is of paramount importance for teachers to promote the teaching of cultural knowledge in their teaching process.

Undoubtedly, most research studies have focused on speaking and listening anxiety while reading anxiety received little attention (Satio et al., 1999, Jafarigolar, 2012; Capanand Karaca 2013). Nevertheless, reading can cause anxiety just as any other skill (Capan and Karaca, 2013). This is what contradicts what some researchers noted about reading as an individual activity and for such reason; it is not expected to evoke anxiety. Nonetheless, Lee (1999) examined this misconception and highlighted those readers feel isolated when they are supposed to read alone. In this connection, he suggested, instead, that teachers should provide reading activities that promote classroom discussion and working in groups. Indeed, group reading activities could be effective for reducing FLRA as students help one another with difficult words and that they are not the only ones facing comprehension problems (Zhao et al.2013). This is because, for some anxious language learners, the aim of reading is "to get through the text, to reach the bottom of the page, or to get to the end of the chapter" (Lee, 1999, p. 53).

As a matter of fact, many researchers have pointed out that reading requires learners to perform certain cognitive tasks such as remembering and memorizing which can be anxiety-evoking. Huang (2013) explicated this point in light of Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis. She clarified how anxiety raises what she labels the "*mental block*" or the affective filter, which in its turn influences the reading intake and understanding.

2.2.2 Writing Anxiety (WA)

Despite not being widely investigated, foreign language writing anxiety also seems to be a concern for a great number of learners. Indeed, very few studies have explored the nature and effect of writing anxiety (WA) on English as foreign language (EFL) learning. According to some researchers, WA is partly because it is not practised in foreign language classes as much as other skills (Lui & Ni, 2015).

It is worth mentioning that writing anxiety (WA) dates back to 1975 when the term "*writing apprehension*" was first introduced by Daly and Miller (1975) to denote **"**the dysfunctional anxiety that many individuals suffer when confronted with writing tasks**"** *(*Cheng, 2002, p.647). By analogy with FLCA, writing apprehension emerged as a different category of anxiety deriving from the uniqueness of the written communication process. In

this respect, Madigan et al. (1996) contended that "distress associated with writing and a profound distress for the process" represent the two main effects of anxiety about writing on potential writers (p.295).

Concerning WA about English, Leki (1999) asserted that writing, though the most private and self-controlling of the four skills causes EFL learners to undergo a kind of "*writer's block***" (p.65). Up to Leki (1999), there are various sources of writing anxiety. For some learners, poor writing skills could be the cause of anxiety while for others the source may be their perfectionist character. On the other hand, the fear of being evaluated by someone else (the instructor) leads to an anxiety-provoking atmosphere. Furthermore, even though, the students do not have such a feeling, anxiety may result from the students 'difficulty in understanding the written feedback that their instructors jot down on their papers. Leki (1999) added another defect in writing courses that leads to anxiety. In other words, until recently, most writing courses were regarded as ways of practising grammar. However, paying much attention to grammar may provoke much prudence and fear, which leads to anxiety.

Continuing with the idea of WA sources**,** Cheng et al. (1999) concluded that "some anxious second language student writers may suffer chiefly from how writing-related self-esteem, some from negative affect toward the writing activity and some from fear of evaluation"(p.436). Similarly, the difficulty of English writing, the desire to write better, worry about exam grades, the lack of vocabulary and the lack of writing practice in addition to the unfamiliarity with the writing genre were also cited as significant sources of writing anxiety (Lui & Ni, 2015).

Besides, Cheng (2002) performed a study on writing anxiety (WA) to explore self-perceived writing anxiety and various learner differences in addition to writing anxiety and different aspects of language anxiety. Her main findings revealed a significant relationship between self-confidence and self-perceived competence in writing skills and writing anxiety. Students with a high level of self-confidence in their writing skills were likely to experience low levels of anxiety. These results correspond to Cheng et al. (1999)'s study which stressed the strong connection between self-confidence and anxiety. Nonetheless, Cheng (2002) posited that students with good writing skills do not necessarily possess high levels of self-confidence. That is why classroom teachers should strengthen the students'

confidence by providing them with a supportive learning environment to reduce their anxiety levels.

Furthermore, Rodriguez, Delgado, and Colon (2009) conducted a study on various types of foreign language Anxiety: general foreign language anxiety, foreign language writing anxiety, and the difference between them. The analysis of the data indicated that foreign language writing anxiety is non-identical to general FLA and L1 writing anxiety although they share some similarities. Additionally, the participants revealed anxiety levels in both L1 and L2 writing which denotes that language anxiety is not connected only to learning a foreign language. The researchers also examined the relationship between gender and writing anxiety and the findings supported preceding research studies demonstrating that females experience higher anxiety levels than their male counterparts. These results apply to both general FLA and foreign language writing anxiety.

Exploring anxiety from a different perspective, Negari et al. (2012) examined facilitative and debilitative anxiety and the way various studies dealt with the studies. The researchers examined foreign language writing anxiety by focusing on essay writing anxiety and writing performance. They also discussed the effect of the learning styles and learning environment on FLA and the teacher's role in this matter. The findings of the study indicated that when put under low and high anxiety situations, students were prone to perform better in the high anxiety situations; the students gave more importance to grammar and vocabulary choice and other skills while sitting for a writing test than when the writing tasks was not graded. The researchers explicated that these findings indicate how anxiety can be beneficial as opposed to the view of some researchers who identified only the negative side of FLA.

Investigating writing anxiety from a different angle, Kurt et al. (2007) performed a study on potential teachers and writing anxiety. They discussed the effects of feedback on the levels of writing anxiety and its importance for both teachers and students. The researchers carried out peer feedback training for an experimental group while the control group was provided only with teacher feedback. The results of the study revealed that the experimental group displayed significantly lower degrees of anxiety compared to the control group. The participants felt relaxed and announced that they enjoyed discussing their essays with their classmates. Besides, they reported that they benefited from their peers 'corrections and that the discussions helped them reflect more on their essays. This

study spotlighted the importance of peer correction in overcoming anxiety, as students displayed a great deal of ease and comfort when receiving feedback from their peers.

Similarly, teacher feedback and anxiety were extremely examined in Di Loreto et al (2013)'s study. They discussed general foreign language anxiety and writing anxiety and the way they were affected by feedback type. The main findings that they displayed were the advantage of supportive feedback in reducing anxiety, which corresponds to other previous research studies (Atashene & Izadi, 2012; Tallon, 2009; Wu, 2010; Xu, 2011). The study also demonstrated the positive attitudes that a great number of students have towards supportive feedback, which they consider both useful and encouraging.

2.2.3. Listening Anxiety (LA)

Although listening activities are not generally regarded as anxiety-evoking, recent research has revealed that listening activities may also lead to anxiety (Campbell, 1999). Indeed, it is common in language classrooms that listening comprehension anxiety represents a problematic area for students just like speaking. In this connection, Krashen (cited in Young, 1992) postulated that though speaking is reported as the most anxiety-producing skill, listening comprehension is also "highly anxiety-provoking if it is incomprehensible"(p.168). In others, as some students believe that they should understand every word they hear, they feel frustrated when coming across unfamiliar words.

Significantly, Vogely (1998) investigated listening anxiety among 140 intermediate Spanish students through a questionnaire. The study aimed to examine whether they experienced listening anxiety or not and to check the main sources of their anxiety. The findings indicated that 91% of the participants experienced listening comprehension anxiety. The results revealed also that 51% of input,30 % process-related factors,6%instructional factors, and 13% of personal factors were related to their listening comprehension anxiety. Despite this fact, Vogel himself mentioned that these findings should not be generalized as influential statistics were not used in this inquiry. On the other hand, Vogely (1999) listed the main sources of listening comprehension (LC) anxiety as follows:

1-The nature of speaking (voice clarity, speed of speech, and variation in pronunciation

2-Inappropriate strategy use

3-Level of difficulty of a passage

4-Fear of failure (p.108)

Besides**,** Atashehe and Izadi (2012) examined listening comprehension to foreign language anxiety and observed a moderate negative correlation between FLCA and listening comprehension. These results were supported by Serraj and Noordin (2013)'s study which displayed a smaller but significant negative correlation between foreign language anxiety as measured by the FLCA and listening comprehension performance. This may lead to the conclusion that as learners' foreign language anxiety increases, their achievement in listening comprehension activities decreases.

2.2.4. Speaking Anxiety (SA)

Research studies on language anxiety have indicated that speaking in a foreign language classroom is the most anxiety-provoking among the four learning skills (Horwitz et al., 1986; Price 1991; Young 1990 as cited in Zhang & Zhong, 2012, p.30). In 1964, Pimsleur, Sundland, and MacIntyre (cited in Donley, 1997) noticed that language courses which required students to speak a foreign language were more inclined to provoke anxiety than courses that did not depend upon speaking. Similarly, Young (1990) conducted a study on students' perspectives on anxiety and speaking. The findings of her study displayed that speaking in front of peers represents the most anxiety-provoking situation for the majority of L2 learners. Indeed, many studies have highlighted that anxious students are less likely to volunteer answers and take part in classroom activities than their non-anxious counterparts (Horwitz, et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Even when they do participate, they tend to avoid difficult linguistic structures and use short responses.

Regrettably, most students display high levels of anxiety when they have to use the target language for oral communicative purposes. Students' anxiety can be evoked in a wide variety of situations such as being called by the teacher to answer orally some questions or present something in front of the class, or practice role-plays. Indeed, this is consistent with the idea that foreign language anxiety is situation-specific and so it can also influence persons who are not characteristically anxious in other situations.

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Significantly, Sparks and Ganschow (1991) spotlighted that anxiety can be either a cause of poor language learning or a result of poor language learning or as a result of poor language learning. They illustrate that a learner can experience test anxiety if he is not able to study as necessary before a language examination. In such a case, anxiety could be regarded as a result. Nonetheless, anxiety becomes a cause of poor language learning if the learner is incapable of learning the target language competently.

Similarly, Horwitz & Horwitz (1986) have revealed that the effects of anxiety are apparent in the foreign language classroom. As a strong sign of academic achievement, anxiety is considered to have a pernicious effect on students' confidence, self-esteem, and level of participation. Horwitz (2001) also maintained that one-third of all foreign language learners undergo some level of language anxiety. Taking into consideration all the above statements, one can say that one of the big problems affecting students' speaking performance is the psychological barrier. Certainly, several studies have shown that psychological factors, such as fear of making mistakes, shyness, and lack of self-confidence and motivation stand behind students' reluctance to speak in the classroom.

More importantly, the research literature has reported many teachers complaining about their students' reticence in class despite their good level of grammar and vocabulary. This may lead to the conclusion that the question is a matter of psychology. Most of them have weak motivation and fail to develop their self-confidence. They are afraid of making mistakes which is often the outcome of their fear of being laughed at by their classmates. Some are shy. Others are reluctant just because they do not feel certain while practising the target language in order de communicate. On the whole, anxious learners believe that their language skills, especially speaking, is weaker than that of their classmates (Young, D.K., 1991). In this conjuncture, Kinato (2001) contended that "speaking skill is the first thing that learners compare with that of peers, teachers and native speakers". Besides, the fear of negative evaluation especially from peers is also a major cause of speaking anxiety (Chengetal.1999; Conway, 2007; Mak, 2011).

In addition to all the above-mentioned factors, perfectionism has also been reported to have negative effects on L2 learners' speaking skills (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Saghamel & Kaya Oglu, 2013). Perfectionism, in psychology, is a personality trait generally characterized by striving for flawless and pursuing unrealistically high goals across any domain, be it in the workplace, in sports, cooking, etc. (Hewitt & Flett,

1991a,b). Besides, perfectionists are people who set excessively high standards of performance and tend towards self-criticalness as an affective factor, perfectionism and its dimensions such as concern over Mistakes (CM), Personal Standards, Doubts about Actions (DA), Organization(o), Parental Criticism (PC) and Parental Expectations (PE) are prominent constructs in the field of psychology (Frost&Marten,1990).

The above-cited dimensions of perfectionism have been identified as follows: Up to Frost and Martin (1990), CM is defined as "so worried about mistakes and reacting negatively to them, avoiding mistakes for avoiding failure, and believing that respect from others is compromised by failure." (p.563). PS is considered as a quest for a high standard (Hamachek, 1978). Frost, Marten, Lahart, and Rosenblate (1990) classified PS as "Setting and striving for high standards were not in itself deleterious and pathological, the tendency to overtly criticize and evaluate one's behaviour was associated with psychological problems concerning perfectionism"(cited in Rastegar, M. , et al., 2017,p.143)

Frost et al. (1990) indicated that there is no sense for task completion manifested in the DA dimension. That is doubts about the quality of actions that are carried out bring a feeling of dissatisfaction to a person when a task is completed (p.451). According to Holender (1965), "perfectionists are too concerned about details and they pay too much attention to orderliness and regularity" (p.98). This emphasis is related to the challenge of attaining standards for self-evaluation of performance and an exaggerated need for order (Frost et al.1990). Frost et al. (1990) referred to as an overemphasis on order, precision, and organization, PC as the impression that parents are overly critical when their standards are not met, and PE as the opinion that one can never conform to his /her parents' excessively high standards. Up to Frost et al. (1990), the first four dimensions are associated with self-evaluative aspects of perfectionism, while the last two constituents of perfectionism focus on socially evaluative reactions to themselves.

In the same context, Hewitt and Flett (1991) suggested another categorization. They divided perfectionism into three types: self-oriented perfectionism (MPS-self), other-oriented perfectionism (MPS-Other), and socially prescribed perfectionism (MPS-social). Individuals with self-oriented perfectionism are prone to set unrealistically high standards for themselves. They impose difficulty on themselves. They try not to commit the least mistakes. Nonetheless, other-oriented perfectionism does not assign tasks to others owing

to fears that others might upset them with imperfect outcomes. In the last category, socially prescribed perfectionism requires the admiration of others.

It is worth highlighting that the relationship between perfectionism and academic achievement has been widely investigated in the literature. Akhondpoor and Pishadam (2011), for instance, performed a study to investigate the role of learner perfectionism in foreign language learning success, academic achievement, and learner anxiety.300 junior and senior students of English in Mashhad Universities participated in this research and answered Ahwaz Perfectionism Scale (2000 as cited in Akhondpoor & Pishghadam, 2011) and Steinberger's State/Trait Anxiety Inventory (1983 as cited in Akhond Poor & Pishghadam, 2011). The findings of the correlational analysis revealed a negative relationship between skills of reading, speaking, listening, GPA, and perfectionism as well as a positive significant relationship between learner perfectionism and learner anxiety. Therefore, as the high standards that perfectionist learners set would create such a stressful and disappointing environment, learners are supposed to replace unattainable standards with logical goals to achieve success in L2 learning (Dashtizadeh & Farvardin, 2016).

To return to speaking anxiety, it is worth mentioning that speech anxiety or communication anxiety is the fear individual experiences during oral communication (Daly, 1985). However, speech anxiety does not take place only in a language class where students have to practise the second/foreign language, but native speakers too experience it while performing a public speech. Certainly, they are not the same; native speakers' anxiety varies from the language learners' anxiety. Ina public speech, an individual shares the same language with the audience and he can express himself easily in his L1. He has just to draw the audience's attention which may affect his/her performance. A language learner, on the other hand, maybe apprehended due to his lack of fluency in the target language, fear of making mistakes, and negative evaluation. All these may lead to poor speaking performance.

Interestingly, most anxiety research has put special emphasis on anxiety about second/ foreign language speaking (Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz et al.1986, Kinato, 2001). This led to the development of questionnaires dominated by speaking-related items. This speaking-centred approach to FLCA raises certain issues relating to the usefulness of these instruments to diagnose learners' anxiety from general classroom anxiety that seems to be

more related to speaking (Cheng, 2004; Cheng et al.1999; Horwitz, 2001). In this conjuncture, Cheng et al.1999 contended that:

> some language learners may feel particularly anxious about speaking in the second language, and some about writing. . . . the discrepancy between a learner's first and second language competence in different skill areas, a language learner's varied experiences in acquiring each of the four language skills, and his or her history of success and failure in performing each skill might lead to differentiated attitudes, emotions, and expectations about each of the language skills. Language-skill-specific anxiety might well be one of the negative emotions and attitudes formed during the process of second language learning. (pp. 438-9)

2.3. Defining Speaking

Researchers have attributed several definitions to the term speaking. As noted by Chaney (1998), speaking refers to "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Cited in Kayi,2006, p.1). This means that speaking is the most widely used form of communication, both in everyday life and in classroom contexts. Speaking has also been regarded as an interactive process of constructing meaning that entails producing, receiving, and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burn & Joyce, 1997). Its form and meaning depend largely on the context in which it occurs, involving the participants themselves, their coactive experience; the physical setting, and the purposes for speaking. Speaking is often spontaneous, open-ended, and ongoing (Burn & Joyce, 1997). Nonetheless, speech is not always unpredictable. Language patterns that are likely to appear in given discourse situations (e.g., expressing an obligation, accepting or declining an invitation) can be recognized and marked out. For instance, when the shop assistant asks "*May I help you*?" the expected discourse sequence involves a statement of need, a response to the need, an offer of appreciation, an acknowledgement of the appreciation, and a leave-taking exchange.

Interestingly, however, speaking requires that learners not only master language features such as grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, or intonation (*linguistic competence*), but also that they understand when, why, and in what way to use this knowledge to communicate successfully (*sociolinguistic competence*).In other terms, being a good learner in speaking means being able to anticipate and then produce the expected patterns of specific discourse situations. That is to be able to decide what to say in the

situations, how to say it clearly and to be flexible when a difficult situation comes out. Besides, the speaker must also handle different elements such as turn-taking, rephrasing, and providing feedback (Burn & Joyce, 1997). For instance, a learner engaged in the exchange with the shop assistant, described earlier, must know the common pattern that such an interview involves and acquire that knowledge as the exchange develops. Furthermore, the learner must select the right vocabulary to describe the item seen, rephrase or emphasize words to clarify the description if the shop assistant does not understand, and utilize suitable facial expressions to denote satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the service.

Certainly, the skills and knowledge that teaching might cover involve the following: sound productions, stress patterns, rhythm, intonation, etc. Indeed clear pronunciation is a crucial aspect of the capability to speak effectively (Brown, 1994). Yet it does not in itself ensure oral proficiency. It is quite possible, for instance, that a speaker might be able to pronounce a perfectly well-performed utterance, which is, however, meaningless or which is inappropriate. This opened the door widely for researchers to question the theory of linguistic competence as proposed by Noam Chomsky, one of the prominent linguists of the 20th century. In fact, his theory revolutionized the field of theoretical linguistics (Barman, 2014). In its simplest form, linguistic competence is defined as the native speakers 'ability to produce "well-formed sentences" (Thornbury, 2006, p.37). Chomsky argued that "an ideal speaker-listener" has complete mastery of the language spoken in his/her speech community and according to him "every speaker f a language has mastered and internalized a generative grammar" that reveals their knowledge f that particular language (Chomsky, 1965, p.p.3-8). Besides, Chomsky made a distinction between what he called "*competence*" and "*performance*". Competence refers to the native speaker's (ideal speaker-listener's) knowledge of the linguistic system (syntax) of their language (Canale & Swain 1980). Performance, however, represents the actual language use (Chomsky, 2006).

In a similar vein, Chomsky maintained that the purpose of the linguistic theory is to explain the mental processes underlying language use, and by this, he means that linguistics should concern itself with the study of competence (Jordon, 2004) that permit native speakers of a language to generate well-structured sentences. Notwithstanding, linguistic competence cannot be regarded as the sole goal of language learning as the

process of communication goes beyond the mere knowledge of producing well-formed sentences (Thornbury, 2006).

Accordingly, Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence was called into question on several accounts. Dell Hymes (1971, 1972) introduced the notion of *'communicative competence'* (Young, 2008) as opposed to Chomsky's dichotomy of '*competence*' and '*performance*'. Dell Hymes' communicative competence refers to one's ability to use language correctly and appropriately in a given context to achieve purposeful communication. As indicated by Douglas (2000*), "Hymes* referred to communicative competence as that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts" (Douglas, 2000, p.246).

What is required for effective communication, Hymes suggested, is four different ways of language use in social contexts, namely *plausibility, feasibility, appropriateness,* and *attestedness*. In the first place, plausibility relates to what is formally possible in a language. It is roughly equivalent to Chomsky's notion of competence as grammaticality. For instance, a communicatively competent speaker knows that the sentence *'me relax now'* transgresses these rules, while "*I am going to relax now*" does not (Cook, 2003, p.42). Second, feasibility is roughly embodied within Chomsky's notion of performance. It is "a psychological concept concerned with limitation to what can be processed by the mind" (Cook, 2003, 43). For example, the rules of English grammar and make it possible to expand a noun phrase and make it more specific, by adding a relative clause. In such a way, "the rat can become "the rat the cat chases.", likewise; the sheep can become "the sheep the farmer bought". Therefore, an utterance might be criticized not on the ground that it is ungrammatical, but rather because it is of little relevance to the practical applications of knowledge about language (Cook, 2003, p.43).

Notwithstanding, feasibility has some crucial outcomes as it encompasses the critical issue of making data easily available. Third, appropriateness is related to the relationship of a particular linguistic performance or behaviour to its context perceived by participants in communicative practice. Thus, certain language use may or may not be appropriate for someone in a given context. For example, it is inappropriate to call a teacher "darling". It is also inappropriate to use slang or taboo words at a conference. Furthermore, not showing care to the elderly is generally inappropriate for specific cultures

(Cook, 2003, p.44). Finally, *attestedness* concerns if something is actually well-formed. That is whether all the aforementioned three types are taken into account by the speaker. Hence, to achieve purposeful communication, one must abide by the four components.

To sum up, it can be stated that the purpose of communicative competence theory is "to show how the systematically possible, the feasible, and the appropriate are linked to produce and interpret occurring cultural behaviour" (Hymes, 1971 pp.23-24). Accordingly, mastery of a language is more than knowing its grammar. Assessing must not be confined to grammatical and psychological factors accentuated by Chomsky but rather it must incorporate those accepts of communicative competence. That is sentences should be assessed by the setting, by how they are performed as actions. In his regard, Cook (2003, p.42) contended that "there would be a kind of social monster producing grammatical sentences unconnected to the situation in which they occur". Similarly, *Dittmar* (1976) explicated that the notion of communicative competence "describes the ability of individuals to communicate with another under situationally and normatively defined conditions which are linguistic, psychological, social and pragmatic in nature" (p.162). This is congruent with Hymes' view that communicative competence theory consists of grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence and "ability for use" (Hymes 1971, 1972). Hymes' communicative competence can be illustrated as follows:
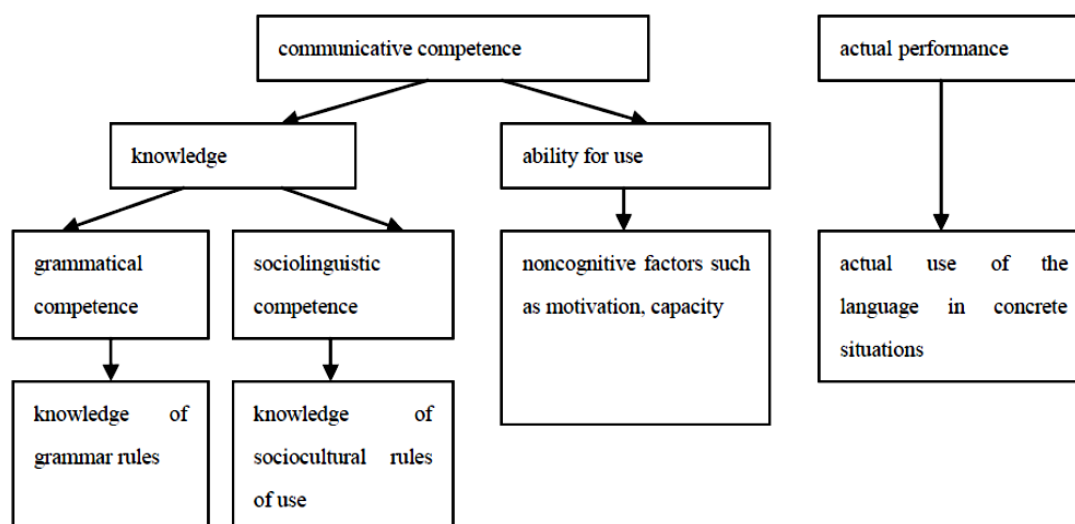
Figure 7:Hymes'Communicative Competence Model

Furthermore, Yule (1996, p.197) regarded communicative competence as "the ability to use the L2 accurately, appropriately and flexibly". For him, the concept can be defined in terms of three components. The first component is "*grammatical competence*". It refers to the knowledge of the language system involving the accurate use of words and structures in the target language. The second component is '*sociolinguistic competence*. It refers to the ability to produce or interpret language appropriately in different social contexts. It enables the learner, for example, to know when to say "*May I have some salt please*? Versus "*Give me some sault!*" depending on the social setting. The third component is "strategic competence". It denotes "the ability to memorize a message effectively and to competence, via strategies, for any difficulties" (Yule, 1996, p.197). It consists of mastery of verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies that may be required to compensate for breakdowns in communication as a result of insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communicative competence or too confining conditions in real communication (Canale, 1983, p.27). For instance, L2 learners will inevitably go through moments where there is a gap between communicative purpose and their ability to express that purpose. In such a case, some learners may just cease talking while others will attempt to express themselves via a communicative strategy. This model of communicative competence was introduced by Canal and Swain in 1980 and revised by Canal in 1983. Along with these three components, Canal (1983, p.2-27) has identified another one in his revised model. It is *"discourse, competence" denoting knowledge of rules required to combine forms and meanings to attain spoken or written texts.* Therefore, this fourth sub-competence may be regarded as clarification and amelioration of Hymes' concept of communicative competence, which Canal and Swain 1980 refer to as:

> a system of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge, knowledge of how language is used in social contexts to perform communicative functions and knowledge of how utterance and communicative functions can be combined according to the principle of discourse. (p.20)

Canal's view of communicative competence can figure prominently via the following

diagram:
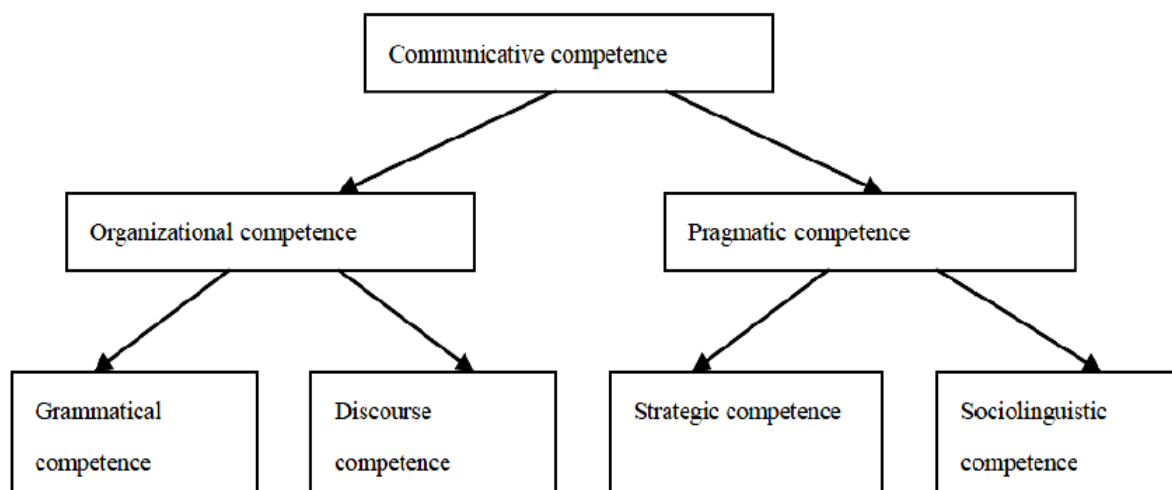
Figure 8: Canal's Model of Communicative Competence (Dongyun Sun, 2014, p.1063)

Besides, a similar theoretical framework for communicative competence was elaborated by Bachman (1988, 1990) and Bachman & Palmer (1982, 1996). In their 1996 model of communicative ability, Bachman & Palmer identified three components *"organizational knowledge"*, *"pragmatic knowledge" and "strategic competence"*. Organizational knowledge involves both grammatical knowledge and textual knowledge (covering cohesion). Pragmatic knowledge involves both knowledge of sociolinguistic rules and functional knowledge ("illocutionary competence" as in Bachman 1990). Strategic competence incorporates the ability to make the most effective use of available abilities to perform a given task. Strategic competence, however, is referred to as "a set of metacognitive components, or strategies, which can be thought of as a higher-order executive process that provides a cognitive management function for language use, as well as in other cognitive activities" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p.70).

Furthermore, three fundamental areas of strategic competence are distinguished: goal, setting, planning, and assessment (Verhoeven & Vermeer, 2002). Bachman's communicative competence model can be checked as follows:
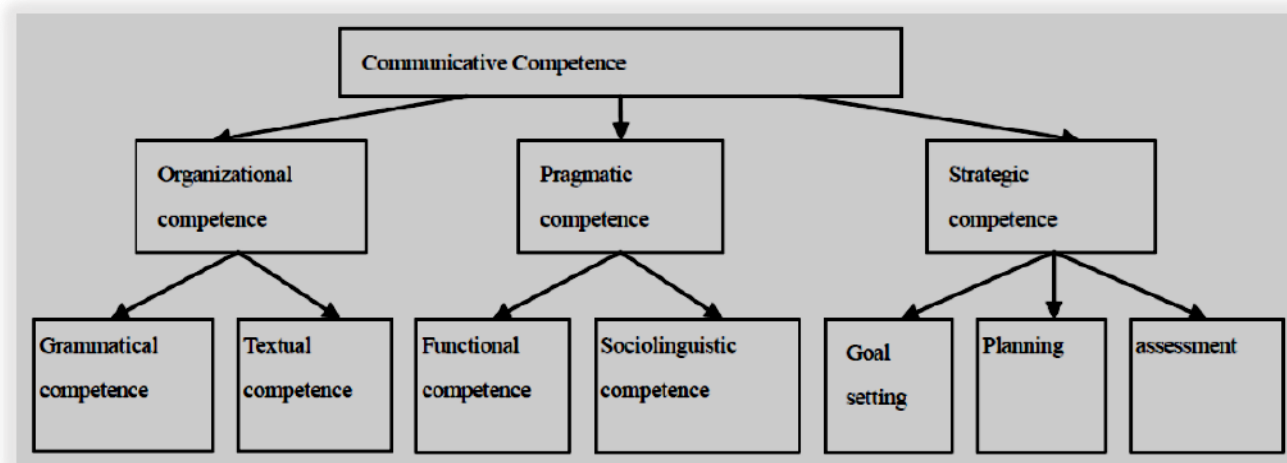
Figure 9: Bachman's Communicative Competence Model (after Bachman & Palmer 1996, p.68)

What is more, Wen (1999) accentuated the significance of intercultural communication in the study of communicative competence. She maintains that the ability to handle misunderstandings and communication breakdowns should be integrated into the study of communicative competence. Based on the analysis of the aforementioned models, Wen suggested her model for "cross-cultural communicative" in which "cross-cultural competence" constitutes a component similar to communicative competence.

Defining intercultural communicative competence (ICC) is not an easy task. The essence of intercultural competence is the preparation of people to communicate appropriately and successfully with those from other cultural backgrounds (Sinecrope et al., 2012). Consequently, understanding culture becomes an essential component of intercultural competence. Nieto (1999) defined culture as **"**the ever-changing values, traditions, social and political relationships, and world view created shared and transformed by a group of people…" (p.48). Such a definition, however, makes it difficult to identify which aspects of certain cultures should be incorporated into classroom instruction. In the same vein**,** Furstenberg (2010 b) argued that"… culture is a highly complex, elusive, multilayered notion that encompasses many different and overlapping areas and that inherently defies easy categorization and classification" (p.329).

Chapter Two : Foreign Language Anxiety in Speaking

In effect, the rapid transformation of society as an outcome of science, technology, and globalization urges intercultural objectives to frequently grow to reflect the needs of modern citizens and communities (Stewart, 2007). It is not surprising, therefore, that there is no accurate definition of intercultural competence in the literature.

Though there is no agreement on an accurate definition for the term intercultural competence, there exist prevailing theories that emerge from the research literature. Bennet's (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) outlines the internal evolution from *"ethnocentrism"* to *"ethnorelativism"* in the setting of intercultural communication. To effectively handle intercultural situations, Bennett (2004) postulates that an individual's worldview must shift from avoiding cultural differences to pursuing cultural differences. Besides, Gudy Kunst's (1993) Anxiety/uncertainty management (AUM) Model explains that those wishing to conform to new cultural situations must learn to "successfully manage their anxiety in new cultural environments" Gudy Kunst's (1998, p.232). Gudy Kunst (1993) indicated that when anxiety in an intercultural situation is so raised, sojourners are less prone to accurately interpret the host's responses. However, when the anxiety level is too low, visitors to other countries carry on conversations assuming that they completely grasp everything about the target culture and consequently do not remain open to belief alternations.

This model is often utilized in training sessions for those planning to live abroad. The training sessions include discussion and role-plays so that attendees manage to cope with their anxiety to interact successfully with those from other cultures. In Byram's (1997) Multidimensional Model of Intercultural Competence the first factor an individual must address is attitude. Byram utilizes such terms as openness and curiosity to expound his conviction that a person has to stay open to learning about new beliefs, values, and world views to take part in relationships of equality. In this vein, Byram et al. (2002) provide a practical proposal for getting learners to examine their perspectives by recording their predetermined ideas about the target culture before the process of discovery starts. This permits the learners to record their perception before the unit of study to have a reference for comparison once the process ends.

Besides, the previously cited models of intercultural competence, scholars stressed the significance of self-awareness and internal transformation in the search for intercultural competence (Furstenberg, 2010a, Green, 1995; Kramsch, 2004). For instance,

in her attempt to seek definitions of intercultural scholars, Deardorff (2006)found out that both groups favoured transformation of attitude, involving self-awareness and openness to new values and beliefs, as an essential first step towards intercultural competence. Moreover, concerning the teaching of foreign languages to secondary school students, Chappelle (2010) stresses the importance of investigating identity with Americans who are studying other cultures. She also points out that several students in the United States attend foreign language classes with no willingness to deal with another perspective in addition to the lack of awareness of their own culture.

Such perplexity was examined further by Fonseca- Greber (2010), who explicated that the main barrier that prevents teachers from seeking intercultural competence in the foreign language classroom is that few Americans favour viewing the world from the viewpoint of "*other*". As a result, language teachers must be inclined to spend some time monitoring learners to consider their preconceived thoughts and perceptions before indulging in the study of other cultures in the classroom. The following table illustrates the four main theories that contributed to the development of intercultural competence.

Table 2. Summary of the Four Major Theories and Factors that Contribute to the Development of Intercultural Competence

. Bennet's (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)	GudyKunst's (1993) Anxiety/uncertainty management (AUM)	Byram's (1997) Multidimensional Model of Intercultural Competence	Deardorff (2006) Process Model of Intercultural Competence
Charts internal evolution from ethnocentricism to ethnorelativism	Focuses on self-awareness as the key component in building bridges to other cultures	Addresses the attitudes, knowledge, and skills needed to interact successfully in intercultural situations	Creates a continuous process of working on attitudes, knowledge, internal outcomes, and internal outcomes

Still, with the notion of *intercultural communicative competence*, Byram (1997) portrays an individual who acquires skills in intercultural communicative competence as someone successful in setting up relationships while speaking the foreign language of the other participant; mediating how to successfully interact so that both participants' communicative needs are targeted; arrange conversations between people of different cultural backgrounds, and carrying on to gain communicative skills in foreign languages not yet studied. This last characteristic emphasizes that when a successful intercultural speaker learns to communicate with those from a particular culture, a basis of language and cultural learning has been set up, and that person has the tendency to collect linguistic data from other cultures to engage her scope of intercultural encounters. Indeed, acquiring intercultural communicative competence (ICC) denotes more than mere exchanges. It revolves around establishing and taking part in communication even when the interlocutors involved do not share the same perspectives (Byram, 1997).

Interestingly, in Byram's Model of Intercultural Communicative Competence (1997), foreign language instructors are requested to monitor learners along the process of gaining competencies in attitudes, knowledge, and skills associated with intercultural competence while using a foreign language. Teachers must select activities that make students consider their attitudes about "the notion". The students, in their turn, should start to question their predetermined ideas before starting the process of discovery about the "*other*" to be more motivated to engage with otherness and ultimately experience relationships interchange (Byram 1997). As students start their analysis of other cultures, given knowledge must be gained. However, foreign language teachers must provide time to investigate the national identity of the home culture and the foreign culture in connection to history, geography, and social instructions (Byram1997). To Byram (1997), once learners are granted time to discover the similarities and differences between their culture and that of a foreign culture, the teacher should design activities that will prepare students to set up relationships with people of various backgrounds and languages (Byram,1997). Next, foreign language learners must be granted time and space to promote skills in interpreting and relating. When students start identifying ethnocentric viewpoints and miscommunications related to cross-cultural situations, they become able to grasp and then explain the source of conflict and mediate situations to avoid communication breakdowns (Byram, 1997). Finally, skills in discovery and communication permit intercultural communicators to identify similarities and differences between home cultures

and target cultures. This will culminate also in fruitful communication and the establishment of meaningful relationships (Byram, 1997).

What is more, according to Byram's Model of Intercultural Communicative Competence 1997, FL teachers must reconsider methods for teaching language and culture in the classroom if the aim is to produce true intercultural competent communicators of the language. Traditional teaching approaches stressed the importance of the mastery of language structures, pronunciation, and vocabulary to be native-like speakers. Nevertheless, as pointed out by Van EK (as cited in Byram 1997), focusing on creating native-like speakers leads to students' failure as they are asked to dissociate from their own culture and accept the fact that the native speaker holds the power in communication. This prevents the development of intercultural competence since the learner is not allowed to show his beliefs in the conversation.

As a result, instead of encouraging learners to become native-like speakers, language teachers should monitor students towards using language that promote discoveries about *'the other'* and about themselves (Byram, 1997). The focus, therefore, shifts from producing students able to communicate without mistakes to students interculturally competent; able to handle communication breakdowns in various cross-cultural situations.

Notwithstanding, one of the most intricate components of getting students ready for intercultural competence is assessing this learning process. As all learners get in the classroom with diverse perspectives and worldviews, it becomes unfeasible to expect learners to grow interculturally at the same pace. This is why several experts in intercultural competence depict the classroom experience as a process (Byram, 1997, Deardorff, 2006). Byram (1997) regards the intercultural learning process as linear. That is learners come into the process from diverse points based on backgrounds, life experiences, and world views, and move at diverse rates (Byram, 1997). To Byram, 1997, there is no predetermined final objective for the students in the classroom; rather each experience represents an objective in itself in interculturality (Byram, 1997).

Moreover, Deardorff, (2006) clarifies further the significance of an ongoing process toward intercultural competence via her Process Model of Intercultural Competence. Deardoff (2006) contends that learning is a journey that never ends as the learner carries on learning, transforming, and progressing; and becomes reconstructed

through time. Her process Model is, however, circular and employs arrows that reveal intersections and movement of the individual between attitudes, knowledge and comprehension, internal outcomes, and external outcomes associated with intercultural communications (Deardorff, 2006). Deardorff's (2006) model –as the coming diagram demonstrates – is open and permits individuals to get in at any point and shift freely between categories.
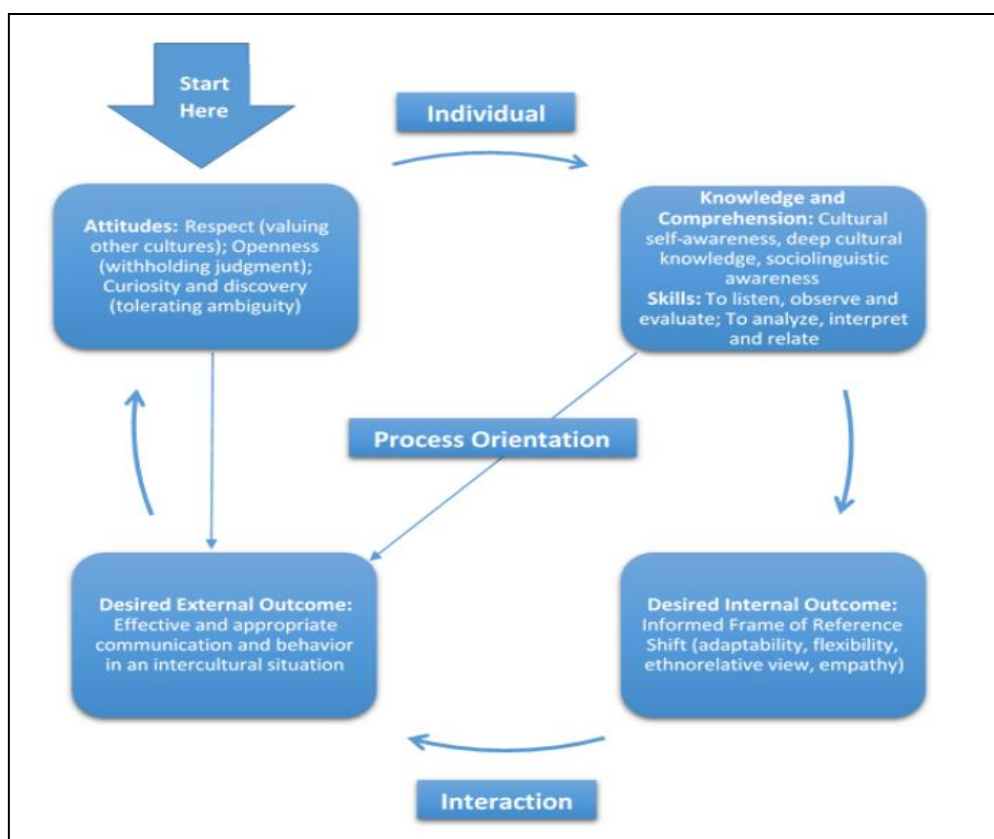
Figure 10: Deardorff's Process Model of Intercultural Competence (2006, p.256)

To sum up, if instructors want to produce successful language speakers, intercultural competence must be incorporated into the foreign language curriculum. When intercultural competence is an integral part of the language classroom, learners experience how to effectively employ the language to establish meaningful relationships and avoid any kind of communication breakdowns.

2.4. Aspects of Speaking

Previous research on speaking has identified two main approaches to defining speaking, the bottom-up and the top-down approach. According to Bygate (1987,p.p.5-6), the bottom-up view regards speaking as the production of auditory signs designed to produce distinctive verbal responsiveness in a listener It is regarded as systematically combining sounds, according to language particular principles to form sensible utterances. This approach has been endorsed by audio-bilingualism. Actually, in teaching speaking, the bottom-up approach proposes to start with the teaching of the smallest units (sounds) and proceed through the mastery of words and sentences to discourse. (Cornbleet & Carter, 2001, p.18).The disadvantage of this approach, however, is that it ignores the communicative and the social aspect of speaking confining it solely to its psychomotor sense. Besides, it is not easy to ensure a suitable transition from supposed learning in the classroom to real-life use of the skill. Alternatively, Bygate (1998, p.23) proposed endorsing a definition of speaking based on communication skills. This is regarded as a top-down view of speaking.

Endorsing this view, Eckard & Kearny (1981), Florez (1999), and Howarth (2001) referred to speaking as a two-way process incorporating a true communication of ideas, information, or feelings. This top-down view regards spoken texts as the outcome of cooperation between two or more communicators in shared time and a shared physical setting. Therefore, the endorsers of this view propose that instead of teaching learners to produce well-formed sentences and then utilizing them in discourse, from the start, they learn the smaller units (Nunan, 1989, p.32). This view was adopted by the communicative approach.

Furthermore, as it is well known, language involves the following four skills: speaking, writing, reading, and listening. If these skills are classified according to the activity of the language user, speaking and writing are active or productive, whereas listening and reading are passive or receptive skills. If they are categorized, however, on the medium, speaking and listening relate to language expressed through the oral medium, and reading and writing are said to be associated with language expressed through the visual medium (Widdowson, 1998, p.57). The table below displays well how all four skills are interrelated.

Table 3: Relationship between Language Skills (Widdowson, 1998, p.57)

	Productive / Active	Receptive / Passive
Aural medium	Speaking	Listening
Visual medium	Writing	Reading

It can be deduced, therefore, that the speaker and the writer have to encode the message they wish to transmit while the listener and the reader have to decipher the message. Byrne (1986) insists on devoting much of class time to production skills mainly speaking. The complex nature of this skill demands plenty of time and interest to be mastered.

Besides, though speaking and writing are productive skills, they diverge in several ways. Brown (2001) observes that due to time constraints, speakers usually employ simple vocabulary, and short utterances, while writers employ more complicated words and long subordinating clauses as they have much time to think about what to write. The spoken language disappears when one terminates speaking. The written language, however, lasts for a long time. Hence, one can read what was written centuries ago. Additionally, spoken language incorporates phonemes, stress, rhythm, intonation, and paralinguistic features. The written language, however, involves punctuation, capitalization, pictures, charts, etc. In this respect, Luoma (2004) observes that a major distinction between speech and writing is that speakers do not speak in sentences. Their speech involves simple grammar than written language because they communicate ideas that listeners need to understand in real-time, as they are being spoken. Writers employ correct grammar in formal sentences or paragraphs. Speakers too can use many language features that are not present in writing such as facial expressions, tone of, voice, and body language. That is, they communicate at several levels, not just with words.

As reported by Van Lier (1995), the major differences between spoken language and written language are shown in the following table:

Table 4: Differences between Spoken Language and Written Language (cited in Nunan, 2003p.48)

Spoken Language	Written Language
- Auditory - Temporary; immediate reception - Prosody (rhythm, stress, intonation) - Immediate feedback - Planning and editing are limited by channel	- Visual - Permanent, delayed reception - Punctuation - Delayed or no feedback - Unlimited planning, editing revision

Furthermore, Thornbury (2005, p.21) outlines the aspects of spoken grammar that are differentiated from written grammar in the following table:

Table 5: Features of Spoken Grammar (**Thornbury 2005, p.21**)

Written Grammar	Spoken Grammar
A sentence is the basic unit of construction	A clause is the basic unit of construction
Clauses are often embedded (subordination)	Clauses are usually added (co-ordination)
Subject + verb+ object construction	Head +body +tail construction
Reported speech favoured	Direct speech favoured
Precision favoured	Vagueness tolerated
Little ellipsis	A lot of ellipses
No question tags	Many question tags
No performance effects	No performance effects, including - Hesitation - Repeats - False starts - Incompletion - Syntactic blends

Concerning its features, speaking needs to be closely examined and taken into account. These features constitute some challenges and point out some recommendations for detecting this skill and hence drafting teaching activities that prepare learners to communicate in real-life situations. Among the main features of speaking are the following:

2.4. 1. Speaking Occurs in Real Time

There is a time constraint that prevents the speaker from having the ability to plan, organize the message and control the language being used. Indeed, speakers often commence to say something and change their minds midway. They also, usually, forget things they planned to say; or they may even forget what they have already stated, and hence, they repeat themselves (Miller, 2001, p.27). Besides, the speakers' sentences cannot be as long o as complex as in writing. This indicates that the production of speech in real-time imposes pressure, but at the same time, permits freedom in terms of compensation for these difficulties. Therefore, *'instances of disfluency'(*Thornbury and Slade,2007) such as false starts, hesitations, word repetitions, unfinished utterances, and repairs make speaking appear less neat and tidy than writing when transcribed. However, they help speakers become more fluent and cope with real-time commands (Bygate, 1987, p.21; Hughes, 2002, p.76). Additionally, one might suppose that speaking is disorganized or even inferior to writing. But this is not true. As Halliday (1989) expounded "the formless of speech in an artefact of the transcription". If assessed from the standpoint of written texts, spoken language will always appear chaotic on paper because basically, " it wasn't meant to be written down" (Halliday, 1989, p.77).

In the same vein, Burn and Joyce (1997) voiced that "[…] speech, far from being disorganized, has its systematic patterns and structures – They are just somewhat different from those in written language" (Burn & Joyce, 1997, p.7). Consequently, assessing speech through measures of writing means denying its basic features and the purpose for which it is utilized. Similarly, written texts like contracts, articles, and reviews are supplied in spoken forms, they also sound unnatural. Besides, they are hard for listeners to follow as they are created to be utilized for a distinct purpose and via a distinct channel (Crystal & Davy 1979).

2.4.2. Speaking is Face-to-Face

Most conversations occur face-to-face. This permits participants to get immediate feedback, i.e. 'Do listeners understand? Are they in agreement? Do they sympathize?" (Cornbleet & Carter, 2001, p.16). Hence, communication via speaking has many aspects such as facial expressions, gestures, and even body movements. Speaking also usually takes place in situations where interlocutors are present. Actually, such factors help in facilitating communication (Widdowson, 1998 & Burns, 1998).

2.4.3. Speaking is Interactive

Whether speaking occurs face-to-face or over the phone, to one person or a small group, conversations generally turn smoothly, with interlocutors giving contributions at relevant moments, with no excessive gaps or everyone talking over each other (Bygate, 1998, p.30; Cornbeet & Carter, 2001, p.27). Turn-taking, an essential aspect of communication, is an unconscious part of normal conversation. Turn-takings are managed and signalled diversely across diverse cultures. This often leads to communication breakdowns among participants of distinct cultures and languages (MC Donough & Mackey, 2000, p.84).

2.5. Elements of Speaking

Second/foreign language researchers admit the lack of an ultimate agreement about an accurate definition for speaking of proficiency. Moreover, knowing some linguistic features, such as vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation does not ensure the learners' ability to speak effectively. In this respect**,** Valdés and Figueroa (1994, p.34) see that oral proficiency "goes beyond simplistic views of good pronunciation, correct grammar, and even mastery of rules of politeness". In the same vein**,** Thornbury (2005,p, iv) maintains that "there is a lot to speaking than the ability to form grammatically correct sentences and then pronounce them,**"** Actually, among the essential elements of an effective speaking production, are the following:

2.5.1. Linguistic Competence

SL/FL learners seeking to attain speaking proficiency need, above all, to master some language features such as vocabulary, grammar, and phonology. Concerning vocabulary, native speakers utilize over 2500 words to cover 95% of their needs (Thornbury ,2005).

SL/FL learners can employ much fewer, especially in the case of casual conversation. In a more specialized context, however, such as business conversations or academic speaking, the learners require more vocabulary. In fact, it is not easy to know exactly which words learners need, but the most useful criterion for selection is frequency. Up to Thornbury (2005), the knowledge of the 1500 most frequent words in English would perhaps help the learner to express his/her basic needs. In this conjecture, Harmer, (2001) argued that speech is characterized by a variety of common lexical phrases. This figures prominently in the performance of given language functions. Hence, he suggested, in this regard, that "teachers should therefore supply a variety of phrases for different functions such as agreeing, disagreeing, expressing surprise, shock or approval…"(Harmer,2001, p.269).

Nevertheless, this is not enough, speaking proficiency requires the learners to be aware of the negotiatory language used for clarification and to show the structure of what one is saying. Indeed, interlocutors usually need to "*ask for clarification*", when listening to someone else speaking. S/F language learners find this of paramount importance to know. In this connection, Harmer (2001) contended that *"a useful thing teachers can do, therefore, is to offer them phrases such as the following:

(I'm sorry) I didn't quite catch that.

(I'm sorry) I don't understand.

What exactly does Y mean?

Could you explain that again, please?"

(Harmer, 2001, p.270)

Interestingly, however, if speakers want to be understood, they need to '*structure their discourse'*. It is especially crucial in more *'writing-like* speeches such as giving a presentation. They are required to employ given phrases to draw attention to their discourse. Up to Harmer, 2001, p.270), speakers utilize "negotiation language to show the structure of their thoughts or reformulate what they are saying to be clear, especially when they can see that they are not being understood". (Harmer, 2001, p.270).

Speakers can structure their discourse through the use of a variety of phrases such as the following:

"The important thing to grasp is that…

To begin with, And finally,

What I am trying to say is that…

What I mean is …

The point I'm trying to make is that**…**

…or to put it another way, etc." (Harmer, 2001, p.270).

Therefore, accurate pronunciation is crucial for FL learners because it influences the clarity of what is said. In the past, the teaching instruction focused on the articulation of consonants and vowels. In recent years, however, the attention has shifted to involve more emphasis on supra-segmental features such as stress and intonation (Goodwin, 2001). Indeed, native speakers of English are likely to shift the pitch and stress of a particular element of utterances and change volume and speed (Harmer, 2001, p.269). Besides, to achieve successful communication, speakers of English are required not only to produce the individual phonemes of English (as in saying I would have come).In connected speech, segments are modified (assimilation), deleted (elision), added (linking r), or weakened (through contractions and stress patterning. Additionally, face-to-face interaction requires the learners to utilize physical and non-verbal signs. These contribute to the extra expression of emotions and intensity. Hence, FL learners have to employ such supra-segmental features and devices, to achieve effective communication.

It is worth noting, however, that most L2 learners get affected by their L1 pronunciation when communicating in the SL/FL. Yet, this is not an issue as long as comprehensibility is not threatened (Thornbury, 2005). Notwithstanding, what might be comprehensible to one listener is not necessarily comprehensible to another. Native speakers, for instance, usually identify the non-native-like use of stress, rhythm, and intonation as being a greater impairment to intelligibility and a stranger marker of an accent than the way single vowel and consonant sounds are pronounced. Besides, the main cause of miscommunication when non-native speakers interact with each other is mispronunciation. The aspects of pronunciation that are significantly important for

intelligibility**,** Thornbury (2005) points out, involve certain '*core'* consonant sounds, the distinction between long and short vowels (as in heel and hill), consonant clusters occurring at the beginning of words such as "pr" in product sentence stress, mainly contrastive stress (as in "*she is my NICE, not my sister*").

2.5.2. Mental/Social Processing

If speaking ability entails knowing the linguistic features mentioned earlier, effective communication relies also on the prompt processing skills that interaction calls for. Successful speakers are required to process language in their minds to make it coherent and appear in a form that is not intelligible but also conveys the intended meanings. According to Hammer (2001) "language processing involves the retrieval of words and phrases from memory and their assembly into syntactically and propositionally sequences."(P.271). Hence, among the principal reasons for involving speaking activities in language teaching is to encourage learners to "develop habits of rapid language processing in English" Hammer (2001, p.271).

Furthermore, speaking entails communication with one or more interlocutors. This implies that successful interaction requires a great deal of attentive listening, an awareness of how the other interlocutors are feeling, and knowing when to take turns and when to permit others to do so (Harmer,2001,p.247). Speakers are also required to process the information they receive on the spot. Actually, the longer time it takes them, the less successful they are as "*instant communicators* (Harmer, 2001p.271). Nevertheless, it is worth stating that such prompt response is very "culture-specific, and is not prized by speakers in many other languages communities" (Harmer, 2001, p.271)

2.5.3. Sociolinguistic Aspects

Speaking proficiency is not a matter of acquiring a wide range of grammatical rules, an abundant vocabulary, and native-like pronunciation. It entails also an awareness of the sociolinguistic aspects. These include mainly sociocultural knowledge, genre knowledge, speech acts, register, knowledge and conversational strategies (Thornbury, 2005). Raising the SL/FL learners' awareness of socio-cultural knowledge is of paramount importance. Up to Thornbury (2005), learners of English for instance should know that the British favour talking about the weather**.** Talking about the weather, for them serves as an icebreaker in conversations. When a British man encounters a stranger, for example, the

weather is a 'safe' topic to talk about. In addition to that 'sorry' and 'please' are among the most frequently occurring terms in British conversations. However, what is more, significant than learning socio-cultural customs might be to enhance the learners' intellectual competence (see section 2.3.1)

Regarding genre, Scrivener (2005, p.163) refers to it as "a variety of speech (or writing) that [one] would expect to find in a particular place, with particular people, in a particular context, to achieve a particular channel (for example, face-to-face [or] by phone"**.** Hedge (2000, p.265) maintains that genre "links the purpose of a particular type of spoken discourse to its overall structure". In day-to-day life, people speak in different ways, depending on who they are speaking to, where they are and the nature of the whole situation. For example, giving a presentation at an international conference is a totally different kind of speaking from giving directions. Indeed, these two examples represent two distinct genres.

The genre can be recognized by the choice of grammar, and words, how much one speaks, how polite they are, how much they talk, and how much they listen. In this respect, Scrivener (2005) identified that the main characteristics of the genre include: style, tone, quality, manner, directness, formality, type of content and choice of words. These represent particular rules that each speaker has to abide by to sound reasonable and appropriate.

Furthermore, what learners need to know in addition to the genre of their conversation is the fact that the words they utter present not only information but also carry out some functions such as order, request, complaint, warning, apology, etc. This is known as the Speech Act theory, which was first introduced by the British philosopher J.L. Austin in his book *'How to Do Things with Words.'* Actually, the Speech Act Theory regards language as a sort of action rather than a medium for conveying and expressing meaning. According to Austin (1962), utterances are said to perform three categories of functions: *locutionary acts, illocutionary acts,* and/or *perlocutionary acts*. For instance, in the utterance '*This forest is full of wild animals.'*, the locutionary act describes a dangerous situation, the illocutionary act functions as a warning and the perlocutionary act refers to the effect that such an utterance has on the hearer/the addressee, which is frightening in this case.

It is worth noting, however, that speakers should know how to adapt the speech act formulas for various circumstances. They should think about the words they choose,

the tone of their voice, and even their body language. An individual may act very differently chatting with a close acquaintance than he would at a formal dinner party or during a job interview. These variations in formality, also known as stylistic variation, are called registers in linguistics. They are determined by such factors as context, social occasion, purpose, and status of the person one is talking to. In this conjuncture, Thornbury (2005) suggests that simulations and role-plays may be useful activities that help learners practise the various register variables, such as the distinctions that social status makes.

Concerning conversational strategies, however, Harmer (2007), contends that they play a major role in the success of any interactive situation. In other words, learners should know how to employ repair strategies when engaged in any conversation. A learner, for instance, should be able to ask for repetition (excuse me! pardon me! etc.). Other repair strategies involve paraphrasing (It's kind of you…What I mean is…That is..), and the ability to request help (*what's the word for something you play golf with ?*). Additionally, Dornyei and Thurell (1994; cited in Harmer, 2007) called attention to the feasibility of other categories of strategies such as conversational openings (*Hey! How are you? How is it going?),* interrupting (*sorry to interrupt, but*…), topic shift (*Oh, by the way,…that reminds me*…) and closings (*It's been nice talking to you… !we must get together some time*).

In the same vein, Thornbury (2005) explicates that since speaking represents an interaction with one or more participants, the speakers are required to manage turn-taking. Indeed, knowing how to handle turn-taking is of paramount importance, especially since conversations are collaborative processes constructed via taking and yielding turns.

Besides, Stivers et al. (2009) expounded that there are several universal tendencies in turn-taking. For instance, numerous languages have the same distinction of the question–to–answer pause time, and in a lot of languages, if the questioner is looking at the other participant waiting for the response, the pause time of the other participant is likely to be shorter. Likewise, Fernandez and Cairns (2010) observe that speakers can be considered effective communicators if they are careful about the signs that indicate when an interlocutor has reached an end of a conversational turn. The speaker may notice a fall in pitch or a drop in loudness. Hand gestures, too, may indicate the yielding of one's turn. Furthermore, turns usually end with the completion of a grammatical unit such as a phrase, clause, or sentence.

2.6. Types of Speaking

Besides its elements and major features, speaking is also known for its various types. In this vein, Brown (2004, p.141-142) has identified five categories of speaking. These include imitative, intensive, responsive, interactive, and extensive (monologue).

2.6.1. Imitative

Imitative speaking denotes one's ability to reproduce words, phrases, and sentences. In the language classroom, such a type of speaking is associated with rehearsals through which the learners imitate some language structures provided by the instructor. Brown (2004) mentions that imitative speaking involves "the ability to simply parrot back a word or a phrase or possibly a sentence" (p.141). Besides, imitative speaking can be prompting for language learners as it permits them to produce a diversity of language patterns. In other terms, this type of speaking is repetitive by nature and aims at creating an interaction between the teacher and learners via Listening and repeating. As humans tend to learn by repetition, such a type is quite useful in training learners to produce correct utterances.

2.6.2. Intensive

Intensive speaking refers to one's ability to produce short stretches of spoken language planned to indicate competence in a narrow band of grammatical, phrasal, lexical, or phonological relationships such as prosodic elements- intonation, stress, rhythm (Brown (2004, p.141). The speaker should be familiar with the semantic properties to be able to reply, however, interaction with an interlocutor or examiner is relative to small scale in particular. Actually, the teacher can assess intensive tasks by using directed response tasks, reading aloud, sentence and dialogue completion; limited picture-cued tasks including simple sequences, and translation up to the simple level (Brown 2004, p.141). It is worth noting that such tasks aim to enable the students to produce the correct grammatical utterance. In this respect, Brown (2001, p.273) contended that "Intensive speaking goes one step beyond imitative to include any speaking performance that is designed to practice some phonological or grammatical aspects of language".

2.6.3. Responsive

Responsive speaking is a type of speaking that requires certain responses such as comments, remarks, or feedback. Indeed, a great deal of learners' communications in the classroom is responsive. In this conjuncture, Brown (2001, p.273) expresses that "a good deal of students imitated questions or comments. These replies are usually sufficient and do not extend into dialogues ». Significantly, in such a category of speaking, the teacher acts as a prompter. He provides some signals that inspire the learners to respond. However, one of the activities that can be classified as a responsive speaking activity is question and answer. In this vein, Brown (2004p.159) identified two categories of questions: *display questions* and *referential questions*.

In ELT classrooms, a display question is a question that the teacher asks to elicit short and low-level answers. It aims to check whether the learners understand or remember certain information. For instance, the teacher may ask « How do we call this in English? » Though display questions lack communicative quality and authenticity, they are a significant tool in the language classroom. That is they not only enable the teacher to check and test his learners but also serve as a source of listening practice. A referential question, however, is a question to which the teacher does not know the answer. Such a type of question requires more thought and generates longer responses. Dalton-Puffer (2007,p.78) stated that *"referential questions are frequently seen as more 'natural' and are expected to generate student answers that are somehow qualitatively better, more authentic, more involved, longer, and more complex than answers to display questions"*. This signifies that referential questions give the students opportunities to think critically and find an answer to the question. An example of a referential question could be "How can you describe a good friend?"

2.6.4. Interactive

Interactive speaking is similar to responsive speaking. However, the difference between them lies in the length and complexity of the interaction, which sometimes involves various exchanges/or various participants. It is worth noting that interaction can take two forms: transactional and interpersonal. The purpose of transactional language is to exchange given information. Interpersonal exchange, however, is employed to maintain social relationships. More importantly, in interpersonal exchanges, speaking production

can turn pragmatically complicated requiring the speaker to utilize *a casual register and colloquial language, ellipsis, slang other sociolinguistic conventions* (Brown, 2004).

2.6.5. Extensive

Also known as a monologue, extensive speaking involves speeches, reports, oral presentations, conversations, story-telling, and any form of speaking that requires a prolonged expression of thoughts and ideas. During extensive speaking, Interaction from listeners is either highly confined to non-verbal responses or eliminated completely. Besides, language style is often planned, more deliberative, and formal for extensive speaking tasks. Yet one cannot eliminate certain informal monologues such as casually presented speech (Brown, 2004, p.142)

2.7. Teaching Speaking: Approaches and Methods

As already mentioned, speaking is a productive aural/oral skill that occurs in real-time (Bailey, K. M. (2005, p.48). It is regarded as one of the most significant macro skills that are necessary for successful communication and language proficiency. However, this oral communication involves not only producing meaningful utterances but also receiving others 'oral production. Speaking plays a crucial role in second/foreign language learning. Indeed language learners' success in learning a language depends largely on their achievement in oral communication (Nunan, 1998; Nunan, 2001).

Significantly, despite its importance, speaking did not receive much attention in language learning and teaching in the past. Actually, during the 18th century and 19th centuries, language teaching was dominated by a great focus on reading, writing, and rote memorization of vocabulary and sentence patterns. Besides, using literary language was regarded as superior to practising the spoken language. Such pedagogical practices were endorsed by the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) (Richard & Rodgers, 2001)

Under the GTM, language was regarded as an arrangement of related elements. Writing was highly emphasized and translation of well-known texts of Latin and Greek literature was used to promote the learner's vocabulary. The GTM also accentuated the teaching of grammar and promoted accuracy. Nonetheless, the focus on the written form of the language rather than the spoken one and the use of the learners' mother tongue in teaching foreign languages culminated in several unsatisfactory results of the GTM. Its inability to produce effective communicative learners in the target language contributed to

its disappearance and paved the way for other methods in language teaching such as the direct method (DA).

The focus on spoken production was introduced in the 1910s with the Direct Method (DM) which came to light to enhance learners' knowledge about what the natives said and how they said it. According to this method, a foreign language should be taught in the same way as the native language. Hence, the teacher exposed the learners to the target language by showing objects and naming them, without passing via the Mother Tongue (M.T.). This method promoted speaking skills, but it was essentially used to expand vocabulary without reference to the mother tongue.

The Direct Method (DA) appeared in Germany and France. It sought to meet the needs of society at that time, mainly achieving communicative skills in a foreign language. That was so significant because the Europeans were travelling and seeking to establish business and personal relations via learning and using the European languages. The DM promoted the oral practice of the foreign language with a considerable focus on pronunciation. The DM innovated certainly the teaching and learning of foreign languages but it caused issues of practice for teachers. The latter were not trained enough to have excellent control of the foreign language to replace the use of the Mother Tongue. It should be highlighted that the D.M. dominated the field of language teaching till the 20th century.

Interestingly, by the end of the 1950s, the audio-lingual method (A.L.M) in the U.S. and Situational Language Teaching in the U.K. dominated the field of language teaching. Both methods stressed speaking and listening skills in language instruction. In the A.L.M., lessons were based on pattern practice and pronunciation practice designed to enhance speech habits similar to those of a native speaker. The A.L.M. appeared during World War II, but it was in the middle of the 1950s that it developed as a method for language teaching. This method is the outcome of two prevailing theories, namely, Structuralism – as established by Bloomfield and Fries – and Behaviourism or Skinner's Stimulus-Response Reinforcement theory. Up to the structuralists, language is mainly regarded as similar to the spoken and not written mode. The structuralists sought that language skills should be presented in the following order: listening, speaking, reading, and then writing. The listening-speaking-reading-writing sequence in ELT was advocated

because the theoreticians asserted that the ear should be trained first to enhance the learners' proficiency (Miliani 2003, p.29).

Notwithstanding, even though this method favoured the spoken language, the focus was mostly on the use of accurate pronunciation and structures while communicating in the target language (Richard & Rodgers, 2001). Subsequently, by the late 1950s, the effectiveness of ALM was put into question. Actually, under this method, little attention was paid to the natural and spontaneous use of the target language in communication. In this vein, Harmer, J. (2001, p.79) noted that "Audio-lingual methodology seems to banish all forms of language processing that help learners sort out new language information in their own minds."

Another succeeding method-silent way, Community of Language Teaching, Suggestopedia- also promoted speaking proficiency. In all of these methods, language mastery meant the ability to use the target language using a native-like pronunciation. However, though these methods emphasized more communication, the structural knowledge of the language was still prevailing.

As a remedy to the inadequacies of the preceding methods, a new approach was born in the early1970s. This was known as the communicative approach (CA). The CA emanated from the work of such remarkable linguists as Hymes and Halliday who viewed language as no more than a set of independent elements to be learnt but as a whole system of communication. The CA revolutionized the field of pedagogy since the introduction of the notion of 'communicative competence' (See section 2.3.1). Within this approach, for instance, the comprehensible pronunciation was favoured over native-like pronunciation. Also, learners were provided with communicative activities to be able to use authentic language. The learners were no longer external observers but real participants in communicative situations.

In CA, the spoken language was highly promoted, "using language to learn it "rather than "learning a language to use it "was a dominant slogan of CA (Widdowson, 1978). Fluency was encouraged over accuracy. The teacher had to have good knowledge of the target language and take his learners 'needs into account. The teacher acted much as a guide, and facilitator, rather than a knowledge provider.

It is worth highlighting that CA had many subdivisions which aimed to frame the principles of CA into more instructional practices. Hence, content-Based Instruction (CBI), project work, and task-based instruction (CBT) were all based on the assumption that language is learnt through using it communicatively. CBI stresses organizing language teaching into content topics or academic subjects that learners have to acquire. The main aim of this method is to simultaneously learn the content via the use of language and acquire the language through the understanding of content. Similar to CA, language is regarded as a means of communication.

Likewise, project work and TBI are aimed at promoting communication in the target language. It should be highlighted that one distinctive feature of all such communicative approaches is the time of focus. In CBI, the language of the content focus may consist of a subject spread throughout an entire term or year. However, project work and TBI are likely to have topical foci of shorter duration (Richard & Rodgers, 2001). To illustrate, a project may last for many weeks while TBI tasks can be accomplished in a class period.

Interestingly, in these communicative approaches, mainly in task-Based Instruction, tasks are means to enhance interaction and real language use. Tasks are viewed as the core of the language learning curriculum in TBI. The role of tasks is to enhance communicative and authentic language use rather than to contribute as a framework for practice on given forms or functions.

TBI has been recognized as a fruitful language teaching methodology for promoting purpose-driven communicative language learning, based on the use of real-life tasks. The main aim of the task is to induce learners to employ authentic language to attain clearly defined outcomes (Richard & Rodgers, 2001; Elis, 2003). Nevertheless, several tasks require learners to utilize language creatively, even if learners are not previously instructed to acquire useful language structures to accomplish the tasks. Such a situation leads to an environment where learners negotiate meaning while producing an appropriate language to complete the tasks (Ellis, 2003; Richard &Rodgers, 2001). To illustrate, in a program outlined by Richard (1985 cited in Richard & Rodgers, 2001), various communicative tasks are based on interactions, telephone conversations, interviews, and service meetings. Task categories involved role-play, brainstorming, ordering, and

problem-solving. As can be observed, oral communication was essential in all five interaction activities.

Since these group or pair activities are based on task completions in TBI, the learners are required to engage actively in oral communication to accomplish the tasks (Ellis, 2003). In other terms, it can be concluded that communication tasks, regarded less as an approach or method, promote oral interaction in the target language and aid learners to acquire the language unintentionally all along content mastery, project completion, or task performance.

2.8. Types of Speaking-Oriented Activities

There is a wide range of activities designed to develop speaking skills in the SL/FL classroom. The most significant types of such speaking-oriented activities include discussions, presentations, role-plays and simulations, conversations, interviews, and speaking games. It should be noted, however, that effective speaking activities should not only enable the learners to retrieve formally gained knowledge but also orient and prepare them for real-life communication outside the classroom (Harmer, 2012).

2.8.1. Discussions

Discussions or debates are among the most commonly employed activities in conversation classes. A discussion can be held for diverse reasons. The learners may intend to arrive at a particular conclusion, share ideas about an event, and find solutions to an issue in their discussion groups. Generally, the learners are presented with a topic through a reading or listening script or videotape and are invited to get into pairs or groups to discuss a given topic to end up with an answer or solution (Lazaraton, 2001). In the end, the class decides on the winning group that defended best the idea and managed to convince their peers. Such activity –one should note- is the most appropriate for intermediate and advanced learners. It calls for critical thinking and quick decision-making. Hence, the learners need to learn how to express and justify themselves politely while disagreeing with others. For effective group discussions, large groups have to be avoided. The group members can be formed either by the teacher or the students themselves. Nonetheless, the groups should be rearranged in every discussion session so that students can work with distinct people and learn to be tolerant and open to different ideas (Macpherson, 2007, pp.11-12)

The major advantages of discussions could be recapitulated in four points (Derradji, 2005). To begin with, the learners can take part in interpreting utterances and responding in an appropriate way immediately to communicate without being obliged to repeat pre-rehearsed patterns. Thirdly, the learners will exchange different opinions and widen their knowledge all along with the give and take of information. Another advantage is that is a chance for further communicative use of a report-back session, to sum up, the main arguments, or when a recorded discussion is played back in a different class for listening commentary.

Discussion, however, as Derradji (2005) stated has shortcomings as well. First, some topics which the learners select may be very technical to the extent that they may make the teacher feel uncomfortable. To deal with such a problem, he proposed, the teacher may invite, if possible, some specialists to the classroom so that they take part in the discussion and inform the learners. Another solution to such a problem, Derradji (2005) further suggested, is not to consider discussion as time filler. That is, the teacher should plan the session and ask the learners to prepare themselves before the discussion session. The learners may prepare, as homework, some notes for and against so that they do not run out of ideas a few minutes after the debate session has commenced. Similarly, Lazaraton (2001) spotlighted that the learners will be engaged and motivated to take part in discussion activities if they are allowed to select the topics and do peer corrections. This is congruent with the principle that learners should be responsible for their own learning.

Interestingly, several forms of discussion can be employed in the classroom depending on the learners' needs, interests and preferences. The following are a few main discussion formats that the teacher can utilize (Thornbury, 2005).

- *Discussion Cards*: The teacher prepares in advance sets of cards (one for each subgroup). On each card, there are statements written on the pre-selected topic. In their subgroups, one learner takes the first card, reads it aloud, and the students discuss it for as long as they need before taking the next card. If a given statement does not catch the students' interest, they can move on to the next one. The aim is not to discuss all the statements; the teacher should decide at which point to end the task. The subgroups who finish early can prepare a recapitulation of the main points that have come up during the activity.

- *Warm-up Discussions:* when presenting a new topic or preparing the learners to read or listen to a script, the teacher introduces some questions for pair or group activities, followed by a report to the entire class. Such discussion questions may address general knowledge about the topic or some personalized replies to the topic (Thornbury, 2005, p.103).

- *Balloon Discussion:* the concept of a balloon discussion is related to the idea that a hot-air balloon with its passengers is dangerously overloaded and to save any of the passengers, at least one of the passengers needs to be thrown overboard. The group members, representing famous people in history, famous living people, or people in various professions, are required to say why they should be saved and why someone else should be sacrificed. This type of activity helps the learners to develop decision-making, influencing, collaboration, and communication skills. It works well if the learners are provided with time to prepare what to say.

- *Pyramid (or Consensus)Discussions:* a pyramid discussion is a speaking activity whereby learners, at first work in pairs to achieve consensus (decision) on a particular issue, then these pairs attempt to convince other pairs before forming subgroups of four, and the like until the whole class reaches an agreement. For instance, the teacher may assign his learners the task of devising some "class rules". Such rules may be related to classroom etiquette, discipline, duties, homework, etc. First, the learners outline a list of about eight rules, compare these rules in pairs and compose a new list of eight class rules these pairs agree on. Once the four-member subgroups have their list, they join another pair, and the process starts again. In the end, the class is split into two halves, and the latter join together until the whole class is involved in one discussion. It is worth noting that pyramid discussions are effective for practising plenty of functions such as agreeing, disagreeing, negotiating, summarizing, and putting forward an argument.

- *Panel Discussion*: this is an activity that involves a group of people, gathered to discuss a topic in front of an audience. Panels usually consist of a moderator who guides the discussion, some students representing the audience, and some others elicit the audience questions. In effect, one way of implementing this activity is to allow the students to first work in pairs to organize their arguments. Then one of each pair takes their sat on the panel, while the others play the role of the audience

who could ask questions once the panel lists have expressed their opinion. It would be more helpful if the classroom furniture is arranged in a way that represents a real panel discussion. Besides, it would be better if the learners are allowed to voice their own opinion rather than having to express a viewpoint they may not endorse. In large classes, however, panel discussions can occur concurrently in subgroups, with the teacher supervising them.

Significantly, discussions could work well if learners are provided with a lot of expressions to demonstrate their strong agreements, strong disagreements, and their halfway opinions. Such expressions could be hung as posters around the classroom, and need to be kept under regular review. In this vein**,** Thornbury (2005) proposed the following useful expressions:

Table 6: Agreement and Disagreement Expressions (Thornbury, 2005, p.105)

Expressing an opinion	Conceding an argument
-If you ask me?... - I think -If you want my opinion	**-**Perhaps, you are right -Ok you win -You have convinced me
Strong agreement **-**Absolutely -I couldn't agree more -I agree -I agree	**Hedging** -I take your point, but… -Yes, but…
Qualified agreement **-**That's partly true -on the whole, yes. -I d go along with that	**Strong disagreement** **-**I don't agree -On the contrary -I disagree

- *Free Discussion*: This is a speaking activity that involves learners discussing a variety of topics that catch their interest and match their opinions and experiences. During free discussion activities, the learners are called. *"to give opinions, agree or disagree, state preferences, and make comparisons"* (Hedge, T.2000, p.277).

However, teachers usually distrust such less "*structured fluency activities*" for several reasons. The students often feel anxious to voice their opinions about topics they are unfamiliar with. Besides, either the teacher or the more proficient and self-confident learners will be dominating the classroom. Additionally, free discussion, though it occurs in small groups, does not guarantee participation from all members. That is why the teacher has to intervene to provide the learners with adequate support. Such support may involve using "a picture and quotation which focus the discussion and provide content and linguistic resources."(Hedge, T.,2000,p.277)

Discussions, then, are activities that consist of either larger groups of learners or a whole class. They encourage the learners, to share their beliefs and voice their viewpoints via a variety of topics (Lightfoot, 2010). Similarly, due to their resemblance to real-life interactions, discussions have often provided success in FL education (Ur1996). That is why she advocates implementing discussions in classrooms as frequently as possible.

2.8.2. Simulations and Role Playing

Searching for ways to enhance the learners' communicative skills, FL teachers have steadily shifted to the field the drama, which is a generic term that comprises both role plays and simulation (Thornbury, 2005). According to Thornbury (2005), though these activities have many common aspects, they do not refer to the same thing. Role plays "involve the adoption of another persona'[identity or personality]‖ (p. 98) like when a learner performs the role of an employer interviewing a job applicant or a shop assistant talking to a client. In a simulation, however, learners play 'themselves in a simulated situation"‖ (Thornbury, 2005, p.98). Such situations may involve phoning a restaurant to make a reservation or planning and presenting a business plan. Herbert and Sturtridge (1979) argued that simulations are made up of three phases: a phase for giving the participants necessary information, the problem-solving stage and the follow-up work. In the same vein, up to O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p.85), "Simulations provide a context or situation in which students tend to interact to solve a problem or make a decision together, [while] role-plays assign distinct roles to each student and ask them to speak through these roles."

Significantly, the learners can perform the simulation as themselves or adopt the role of thoroughly distinct character and voice thoughts and beliefs they do not necessarily share. When the teacher provides the learners with these roles, the simulation turns into a role. It is worth highlighting that learners should perform a variety of roles to have the opportunity to practice several language forms on one hand and gain pleasure, on the other.

It is worth noting that the intention behind implementing such dramatic techniques is that the learners simulate real-life situations. Therefore, they experience autonomy in communication and enhance their intercultural communicative competence, which is significant for the ability to communicate in cross-cultural situations (Reid, 2015). Consequently, role play and simulations have been supported by many researchers such as Forrest (1992 cited in O'Malley and Pierce, 1996) who encouraged teachers to employ them in the classroom. For him, such activities are not only authentic but also provide the chance for using aspects of real-life interaction such as repetitions, interruptions, and role-plays as fun, and hence highly motivating. They also permit hesitant learners to be straightforward in their views and behaviours without assuming responsibility for what they say as they usually do when they speak for themselves.

2.8.3. Conversations

Thornbury (2005) refers to the conversation, also known as *"chat"*, as "casual talk that is primarily interpersonal"(p.105). However, attitudes towards classroom conversations have changed over time. Under the audio-lingual method, for instance, it was warned that:

> the traditional conversation lesson' is of no value at all if the student is not ready for it (…). The student has to be first trained to use patterns in carefully graded aural/oral drills. Only this way will s/he finally learn to speak. The chat stage of the lesson, if it occurred in the first place, was simply there as a curtain-raiser to the main event: the controlled practice of sentence patterns. (p.105)

Furthermore, until recently, one London language school was still recommending students and teachers not to chat during lessons. This school maintained that they should only ask and answer the questions in the coursebook as chatting was just a *"waste of time"*

Not surprisingly, however, such a view is not congruent with the findings that conversation is the most familiar function of speaking. Besides, the development of conversational skills in L1 acquisition, Thornbury (2005), asserted, has been found to precede the development of language itself. In other terms, conversation in an SL/FL is not the outcome of language learning, but a crucial means through which learning takes place. Another reason why conversation is significant lies in the fact that many SL/FL learners admit that their most urgent need is to ameliorate their conversational competence, and they usually choose conversation as their main objective when responding to needs analysis questionnaires.

Accordingly, many language schools provided conversation classes as a way to complement traditional grammar-focused classes. Nonetheless, such conversational classes represent a challenge to teachers and course designers as it is hard to plan or schedule something as inherently unstructured and spontaneous as casual as conversation. Therefore, one way to deal with such a teaching situation, Thornbury (2005) suggested, is to organize conversation classes around a set of themes preferably, these should be discussed by the learners. It would be preferable if these could be discussed by the learners in advance via surveys or consensus debate. Theme-related texts, Thornbury (2005) highlighted, could be employed to set off conversations. They also permit the learners to take turns in making short presentations on the preselected topic, which is followed by an open discussion. Notably, preplanned lessons can incorporate the teaching of practical conversational formulas and routines, as to how to open and close conversations, how to interrupt, change the topic and ask for clarification, etc. The attention may be also drawn to the teaching of "communication strategies, such as paraphrasing, using vague language and pause-fillers" (Thornbury, 2005, p.106).

Thornbury, (2005) proposed three activities that can be employed to integrate conversation '*lesson'* into ordinary classwork: a "*talking circle*", "*sentence star*" and "true/*false sentences*". In a talking circle activity, a group activity that usually occurs at the beginning of the 45-minute conversational English class, the teacher and students assemble in the "*talking circle* "to share and discuss experiences, anecdotes, news, special events, or to introduce the weakly theme, etc. Though the teacher might open the discussion by proposing a general topic, it is assumed that the "talking *circle*" offer a place and an audience for the students with anything that catches their interest (Thornbury, 2005, p.106). In the sentence star activity, all the learners draw a five-pointed star on a piece of

paper. The teacher asks the learners to write on the tip of the first point *'can'* on the second point *'like'*, on the third point *'have the* fourth point used *to 'and on* the fifth *'going to',* these cues could be diverse according to the level of the class and the syllabus. Then, the learners, individually, write true sentences about themselves employing each of the five words on their star and following the teacher's example *(for instance, I can speak Japanese).* In pairs or small groups, they take turns reading each other's sentences; the others in the group are required to ask at least five questions such as where did you learn Japanese? How well can you speak it? Can you write it as well?

Notably, in a final open-class stage, the learners can repeat interesting matters they learnt about their peers *(*Thornbury, 2005, p.106*).* In a *true/false* activity; however, the teacher dictates five or more sentences to the class. Some of such sentences could insert a given grammar point, though this is not necessary. The teacher then informs the class that some of the sentences are true while others are false. The learners work in pairs to guess and then report their guesses with explanations. Next, working individually and using the dictated sentences as a model, they jot down some true and false sentences about themselves and take turns to guess which sentences are true or false in pairs or small groups (Thornbury, 2005)

It is worth noting that Thornbury, (2005) accentuated the point that '*the sentence star'* and '*true/false'* activities can contribute to breaking the classroom ice. However, "little or no conversation will be possible in the classroom unless the teachers can demonstrate their willingness to be conversational partners" (Thornbury, 2005, p.107). This means that they should abandon their traditional pedagogic role to assure a casual conversation with students.

2.8.4. Interviews

According to Klippel (1984), an interview is a form of communication that is usually structured in a way that the interviewees are offered a series of questions or situations to which they have to respond. Before implementing an interview in the classroom, the teacher should make sure about the learner's ability to utilize the necessary question-and-answer structures. A few sample sentences on the board may be helpful for the less able students. With advanced learners, language functions like hesitating (for example, "Well, let me see"), contradicting, and interrupting (for instance, *"Hold a minute…can I just butt in here?"*) Could be practised during interviews.

Three types of interviews can be distinguished in the FL classroom: *individual, pair, and group* (Derradji, 2005). Individual interviews are face-to-face spoken communication between an expert (the instructor) who conducts the interview and the student. Every student has a chance to perform individually in the FL. This may involve talking about his/her learning experience. To achieve an effective individual interview, the teacher should follow specific guidelines. To begin with, an effective interview recommends a clear determination of the purpose. Next, the teacher should always prepare questions for the interview. It should be noted that effective interviews are conducted periodically to monitor the learners' progress. By so doing, the teacher will have the opportunity to adapt their teaching to the learners' needs or make remedial sessions when necessary. Peer/Pair interviews necessitate two students, one as the interviewer and the other as the interviewee. Yet, the students can exchange their roles. Group interviews - as its name indicates- involve a group of students, generally more than two. It should be highlighted, however, that the information collected via interviews –be them *individual, pair* or *group* does not project only students' oral proficiency level but also reveals a great deal about their preferences, styles, motivation, metacognitive awareness, as well as their use of learning strategies.

Derradji (2005) proposed several issues that are to be considered by the interviewer in the course of developing interview skills.

- The interview should permit the students to talk and listen carefully to what is being said. One way to encourage the interviewee to talk is to ask open-ended questions, such as *What do you think? And how do you know that?*
- The interviewer should start with easy and non-controversial questions and give enough time for the interviewee to think. The interviewee must not be interrupted, but he can be asked follow-up questions afterwards for clarification.
- Taking notes is more effective than using a tape recorder because the latter might malfunction.
- Watching the interviewee's body language permits the interviewer to notice signs of discomfort at an early stage.
- It is significant to consider whether the questions being asked are very personal or painful for the interviewee to respond to.

- It is advisable to stop the interview for a break or make an arrangement to continue another day. This relates t mainly to situations where the interviewee is so exhausted or not very keen to continue.

2.8.5. Story-telling Activity

Speaking is a hard task for most FL learners, especially for the anxious, shy, and less confident ones. Hence, teachers often resort to such activities as story-telling to raise the learners' self-confidence and encourage them to speak. Story-telling offers learners the opportunity to tell stories and share their ideas, thoughts, and beliefs using the target language. In this vein, Thornbury, (2005) asserted that "through their stories learners not only practice an essential skill, but they can also get to know one another: we are our stories." (p.95) Indeed, in a storytelling activity, the students may tell whatever they wish to share with their peers. For instance, they may tell stories related to themselves, their families, or their friends. They may also tell about a place they visited, a party they went to, and the various things they experienced. For Harmer (2001) "the best stories are those which are based on personal experience"(p.130). This is because such stories raise the curiosity of the classmates and make them more enthusiastic to know about the details. Accordingly, the teller gets more motivated to clarify and say more using the target language.

2.8.6. Problem-solving Activity

A problem-solving activity is an activity through which the learners are required to find solutions to a given problem.   Up to Klippel (1983, p.103),

> "…… problem-solving activities demand that the learners themselves decide upon the items to be ranked … the language which is used for problem-solving activities depends on the issue that is given to them, and students will have to make suggestions, give reasons, and accept, modify suggestions and reasons given by others."

Hence, the learners struggle to find a solution to the issue that is presented in a problem-solving task. For instance, the teacher asks the students to suggest the best solution for the following situation "You see a fellow worker in your office steals a portable computer, you know, he/she is a single parent of two young children and has financial problems"(Davies, P.et al., 2000,p.86). Each student, here, expresses his opinion

as a solution to the problem. Consequently, the level of participation will increase and the classroom becomes more active and dynamic.

2.8.7. Presentations

Presentations, also known as *"prepared talks"*, *"speeches"* or *"oral reports"*, are prepared and more writing-like than conversational. Nevertheless, presentations are more effective if students speak from notes rather than a script. It is also preferable if the learners are given enough time to prepare and rehearse their presentations. Rehearsal can be done by getting the students to present to each other in pairs or small groups first before they deliver their speech in front of the whole class (Harmer, 2007). Presentations are suitable for all levels of proficiency. However, they may be more appropriate for intermediate and advanced levels. Beginning learners, however, can make oral reports using realia, posts, posters, or other materials (O'Malley and Pierce, 1996**).**

Topics for presentations**,** as Lazaraton (2001) highlighted, differ according to the level of the students and the focus of the class. Nonetheless, granting the learners the chance to choose the content of their talks is highly motivating. In other terms, the teacher can offer the rhetorical genre (narration or description) of the presentation and its time limitations, while the students choose the content. For instance, asking the learners to report unforgettable experience permits them to talk about something personally significant and in the meantime promotes narration and description.

It should be noted that presentations may sound boring to the listeners. Hence, it would be preferable to assign them some tasks during the presentations. Such tasks may involve evaluating the speech or making sure whether the guidelines are being respected. These guidelines may relate to how long to speak, the choice of the topic, and the like.

Furthermore, like discussions, presentations have a variety of formats. These include *show-and-tell, academic presentations,* and *business presentations* (Thornbury, 2005). Regarding the *show-and-tell* format, which involves asking the learners to talk and answer questions about a certain topic, it works well with all levels and age groups except the most elementary ones. The *show-and-tell* format can be set as a "regular feature of lessons, with the learners taking turns and knowing in advance when the turn is due"(Thornbury, 2005, p.94). Besides, the talk as such should not exceed two or three minutes and should not be scripted, though the use of notes could be allowed. Extra time is

allotted for asking questions. The topics may be related to sports, holidays, family and work, etc. For the learners who are not familiar with such a format, the teacher can offer them a model of a *show-and-tell* ask.

Concerning academic presentations, however, they are mainly associated with students who are doing English for academic purposes. Such students certainly need time to give such presentations. In this connection, Thornbury (2005) suggested that it would be useful if the teacher provides the learners with the formal features of such genre and the various language "*exponents*" related to each stage. In this respect, Thornbury (2005) further suggested that "a checklist of features, along with useful expressions, can be displayed as a poster in the classroom, and this can be modified over time as students take turns giving their presentations and discussing their effectiveness" (P.94).

Furthermore, concerning business presentations, they do not differ from academic presentations. On the contrary, they share the same principle of peer presentations including "*collaborative analysis and critical feedback*"

Interestingly, one way to reduce the tension of individual performance is to recommend the learners work in pairs when preparing the presentation and to take turns in its delivery (Thornbury 2005, p.95). It is significant also to permit a question-and-answer at the end as this is usually the most challenging phase of a presentation. The audience, too, should be granted time at the end of the presentation to prepare their questions. This can be followed by a short discussion related to the strengths and weaknesses of the presentations. Thornbury (2005) asserted that the experience of standing up in front of peers and talking continuously for relatively a long time is excellent preparation for learners for-real life communication.

2.8.8. Language Games

Hadfield (1990) defined a game as an activity that involves rules, a goal, and an element of fun. The element of fun in games put the learners in more real-life situations and gives them the chance to express their ideas in their own ways, but under rule restrictions. Similarly, Carlson (1952) argued that games provide an amusing and more relaxed atmosphere, especially in classes where students are learning a second/foreign language. Besides, Malary in Johnson and Marrow (1981, p.37) maintained that games and

game-like activities play a key role in enhancing the learners' communicative competence "*naturally, creatively, and authentically*». Natural denotes that in game-like activities, learners can be themselves. that is, they can involve their personalities with those of their classmates without being recommended to be someone else. Creativity signifies that when interacting with their peers, the students can voice their own opinions by using a wide range of vocabulary in various contexts. Authentic means that the language they employ in conversation is related to real life.

Significantly, games can be played in the classroom individually, in pairs, or small groups. A teacher can choose the way of playing a particular game depending on the class size and the types of activities (Williams & Herd, 1994, p.5). Furthermore**,** Hadfield (1998), differentiated language games based on the techniques used in the games. Hence, he identified the following categories:

a. Sorting, ordering, or arranging games, for example, students have a set of cards with different topics and they sort the cards based on the topics.
 b. Information gap games where one or more people have information and other people need to complete a task.
c. Guessing games that are a variation on information gap games, for example,"20 Questions Game".
d. Search games which are the other variant of two-way info gab games, with everyone giving and seeking information.
e. Matching games where the participants need to find a match for a word, picture, or card.
f. Labeling games are a form of matching, in that participants match labels and pictures.
g. Exchanging games where students barter cards, other objects, or ideas.
 h. Role-play games that involve students playing roles that they do not play in real life, such as a dentist.
i. Board games that mainly involve moving markers along a path.

Indeed, as Chandra (2008, p.1) has pointed out "language games not only function as time-filling activities but also they can bring some educational values…"

In this respect, Kim (1995, p.35) put forward six advantages of using language games in the classroom, which are:

1. games are motivating and challenging.
2. games are a welcome break from the usual routine of the language class.
3. games help students to make and sustain the effort of learning.
4. games provide language practice in various and integrated language skills.
5. games encourage students to interact and communicate with each other.
6. games create a meaningful context for the language that is being learned by the students.

In line with Kim, Mei, and Yu Jing (2000 cited Chandra (2008) also argued that through playing games, learners can learn English the same way as children do and use their mother tongue without being aware they are studying. Therefore, without anxiety, the students can learn a lot in the target language.

To conclude, using games in language teaching is of paramount importance. Games permit the learners to practice the target language in a relaxed way. This will help them overcome their anxiety and build their self-confidence. Whether played individually, in pairs, or in groups, games make the teaching /learning process fun and interesting as it creates an amusing and enjoyable but disciplined atmosphere.

2.9. Principles in Teaching Speaking

As already cited, speaking is regarded as the most challenging skill to master by learners as it involves a variety of sub-skills. However, speaking remains the main focus for most learners as they need it to be actively engaged in various social interactions. Hence, due to its paramount significance, speaking should be taught in a way that takes into account its intricate nature. Accordingly, speaking instruction needs to rely on a set of principles concerning the learners' skills, needs, tendencies, and expectations. In this vein, Komorowska (2001 cited in Roginska (2016, p.73), provided many principles to follow when teaching speaking. These include:

- First, learners need to be provided with several grammar forms and vocabulary items that they can use when discussing a particular topic. This is to increase their fluency during the speaking task.
- Once learners take part in speaking tasks the teacher needs to gradually increase their responsibility for the outcome of the task. This means that first, learners might be exposed to rather mechanical tasks based on simple question-answer patterns, and later on, the tasks they work on might be more and more open-ended so that learners decide what to say, when, and how
- When learners' proficiency level is low it is important not to set too high demands so initially, they should be required to come up with single utterances and gradually build their spoken output.

- It is also important to generate a relaxed atmosphere not only during speaking tasks but also in general. This helps learners to control their inhibition and anxiety in speaking.

- When assessing students' oral performance the teacher should concentrate on one element at a time (either fluency or accuracy) so that learners can focus on this particular aspect as

coming up with fluent and accurate performance constitutes a domain of only advanced students

- Tasks based on speaking should also involve a considerable range of auditory input which functions as a trigger for speaking. At the same time, each task should be based on clear instructions so that learners do not get confused during the task and can focus on their performance entirely.

It should be noted that these vital principles do not represent the whole process of teaching speaking but pursuing them may enable the teacher to create an adequate atmosphere for learners to enhance their speaking performance. A more comprehensive view of teaching speaking can be achieved by looking at the particular stages at which it occurs.

2.10. Stages in Teaching Speaking

There is no doubt that learners get ready to communicate when they first acquire their L2 competence comprising grammar and vocabulary. This entails that they first need a period of exposure to the input before they can begin using various forms of communication. It is also worth citing that each learner should reveal his view of speaking, its significance, and its level of difficulty so that the teacher can consider them at the outset of the teaching process (Gass, 1997, p.93-94). Additionally, William and Burden (1997, p.87) mentioned that the subjective characteristics of personality and particular learning styles which determine the way the learners perceive and process L2 input may also determine their readiness to speak. Therefore some learners require a longer exposure period in comparison with other learners for whom speaking comes naturally. On the whole, however, speaking-oriented instruction consists of three basic stages such as presentation, practice, and learners' output, as the following subsections demonstrate.

2.10.1. The Presentation Stage

Clearly, before learners can be involved in clearly speaking-oriented activities, they need some time to prepare for it and develop the required linguistic background as well as self-confidence. Accordingly, the initial stage in teaching speaking depends largely on input presentation. This period should be as short as possible. That is why the examples of vocabulary and grammar should be understandable and uncomplicated to restrict the

explications as much as possible. Nonetheless, the short duration of the explication should not hurt their efficiency (Byrne, 1986, p.22).

As Bygate (1997, p.62) pointed out, there are certain matters to consider to make this stage efficient. The first one is to adapt the content of the presented input to the current level of proficiency of the L2 learners. The input should be something that learners can understand and imitate. Hence the profundity, as well as the difficulty of vocabulary and grammar, should be adequately examined. Furthermore, the input should be also tailored to the learners' needs and expectations. This will catch their attention and raise the level of their motivation.

Hence, for teenagers, the input should involve rather adventure-oriented content while adult learners recommend survival-oriented examples which do not offer interesting stories but rather real-life situations. Another significant question to consider is that the situations and the content of the input should be as natural and authentic as possible. That means that contracted forms or comprehension checks need to be incorporated as they refer to real life. Finally, the presented input needs to be also adapted in length and scope in order not to overload learners with heavy input.

2.10.2. The Practice Stage

In this stage, the learners become actively engaged in a variety of speaking activities (Byrne, 1986, p.34). It is significant to reassure that the language learners produce is similar, if not identical, to the one presented to them in the previous stage. Indeed, though this strategy makes interaction completely mechanical, it encourages the learners to enhance particular language patterns and get them used to utilising L2 in communication. Furthermore, implementing oral practices in the classroom also permit learners to build their self-confidence when communicating in the target language. In the same way, up to Nunam (1989, p.36-39), drills also allow the learners to contextualize the whole practice by showing them a direct connection between what they learn in class and what they might require in real-life communication. Furthermore, extensive practice can be promoted by the teacher who should encourage the use of L2 and limit his talking time as much as possible.

Actually, during this stage of promoting learners' speaking skills, they can rely entirely on mechanical drills and dialogues or be involved in more authentic and communicative activities. In addition, Bygate (2001, p.18) argued that reading aloud may be also an effective strategy for promoting learners' confidence in speaking. Though reading does not have a direct impact on developing speaking skills, it allows learners to be accustomed to more extended spoken production. Certainly, when learners develop confidence in oral communication, the degree of their anxiety decreases while speaking. On the whole, the practice stage in teaching speaking depends mainly on drills that permit learners to discover various structures that are employed in the spoken language. Certainly, this permits learners to notice the communicative function of structures. However, at this stage, they still give attention to the formal aspects of language.

2.10.3. The Learners' Output

The final stage in teaching speaking is not yet established for extensive and authentic interaction of learners. They are still incapable of speaking continuously and in an independent way. That is why they are still in need of the teacher's supervision and assistance. The first thing to consider is that the context of communication should be meaningful and relevant so that they feel the urge to use the target language. Besides, as Harmer (2001, p.122) proposed, there are specific criteria that the teacher should consider to facilitate speaking-oriented activities through which the learners reveal their speaking performance. One among these is assuming that each learner knows his/her function within the activity. Furthermore, the teacher may also offer reliable data, supervise the learners' progress and help them when necessary. Finally, learners should also be provided with corrective feedback to evaluate their speaking abilities. What is more, Nation and Newton (2009, p.122) proposed the use of different types of activities to help learners to manage various forms of communication and employ a variety of spoken structures in diverse situations. However, such activities have to be contextualized even at the very primary mechanical level (Brown and Yule 1997, p.50). This enables learners to interact more naturally when they arrive at the last stage of developing their L2 speaking skills.

2.11. Sub-skills of Speaking

It is worth stating that besides the aforementioned components of the spoken language, Lackman (2010) distinguished a variety of sub-skills that speaking can be further

divided into. According to Lackman (2010), these sub-skills are more useful for learners than to reproduce real-world conversations in the classroom. That is why teachers should provide learners with an opportunity to master all these skills to turn into autonomous and skilful speakers of the target language.

Table 7: **Speaking sub-skills and their applications (Lackman, K. (2010, p.3)**

Sub-skills	Application
Fluency Students practice speaking with a logical flow without planning or rehearsing.	Activities that require students to focus on meaning in communication without immediate concern for accuracy (errors can be corrected afterwards).
Accuracy with Words & Pronunciation Students practice using words, structures, and pronunciation accurately	Students need to be able to use and pronounce words and structures correctly to be understood. Controlled practice activities are the most common way of working on spoken accuracy
Using Functions Students use specific phrases for purposes like giving advice, apologizing, etc	Activities that stress that verbal communication is for a reason or function. Role plays and simulations are ideal.
Appropriacy Students practice using language appropriate for a situation and making decisions about formality and choice of grammar or vocabulary.	Activities that stress that the purpose of talking determines what language is appropriate. Students are required to make choices about grammar and vocabulary and also other aspects of communication like intonation and length of the turn. For example, "What's the damage?" is inappropriate in a four-star restaurant.

Turn-taking Skills Students practice ways of interjecting, eliciting an interjection or preventing one	Turn-taking skills involve knowing how and when to interject, eliciting an interjection, or preventing one. Students can practice listening for appropriate gaps to take their turns without irritating the speaker. While speaking they can practice techniques such as pausing which purposely allows others to take a turn or they can practice using hesitation devices such as 'ums' and 'errs' to hold on to a turn while they search for the next thing to say
Relevant Length Students practice speaking at a length appropriate to a situation	Activities that demonstrate that the purpose of speaking or the context determines the appropriate length of a turn. For example, a one-word answer is acceptable for a market research survey but would not be sufficient in a job interview. Activities which require students to elaborate or be concise are useful.
Responding and Initiating Students practice managing a conversation by making responses, asking for a response, or introducing a new topic or idea	Activities that get students to practice managing a conversation appropriately with specific words and phrases such as, "What do you think about…", "Speaking of…", "Really?", etc. Gestures and other paralinguistic tools are also used in conversation management.
Repair and Repetition Students practice repeating or rephrasing parts of a conversation when they suspect that what	The spontaneous nature of conversation requires that participants constantly have to make sure that what's being said is understood. When a misunderstanding is

was said was not understood.	suspected, a participant will 'repair' parts of the conversation. The most common form of repair is repetition and individual words or groups of words can be repeated by either the speaker or listener. Students can practice repairing when they suspect they haven't been understood or as listeners, they can repeat to seek clarification or correction from the speaker
Range of Words and Grammar Students practice using particular grammar and/or vocabulary for speaking on a specific topic or for doing a specific task.	Students need to know a range of words and grammar and have the ability to choose from that bank the most appropriate words and structures for a specific task or topic. They are taught or made aware of words or structures appropriate for specific tasks or contexts and then are required to use them appropriately.
Discourse Markers Students practice using words/phrases which organize a talk (e.g. firstly, secondly, on the other hand, to summarize)	When speakers are required to take a particularly long turn, for example when giving a presentation, they use specific words and phrases to help the listener recognize how their talk has been organized. Activities can be used which teach discourse makers and then require students to use them appropriately

2.12. Error Correction and Learners' Attitudes

One factor that is worth highlighting at this stage, since it is closely linked to the above-cited sections, is error correction and students' attitudes. Research on error correction in language learning raised a lot of questions. One of these concerns is when errors should be corrected. This refers to the tasks and specific time of correction. Generally, error correction is desirable during manipulative grammar practice rather than tasks that promote fluency (Discussions, role plays, etc.). Besides, errors that recommend correction are those that significantly hamper communication, errors that can easily fossilize, and errors that appear very frequently in learners' speech or writing (Chaudron, pp. 137-141).

Significantly, however, though corrective feedback can be helpful, over-correction can be discouraging for further spoken production. This is especially so if the learners are attempting to put together their ideas and their flow of thoughts is interrupted by the teacher's correction. In fluency activities, it is hence unadvisable for teachers to correct errors that do not impede meaning. On the whole, it is recommended that correction in such cases is supplied after an activity.

Regarding the moment of correction, research literature tackled also the particular ways in which learners should be corrected. One way is an immediate correction (Nizegorodcew, 2007, p.p.35-36). This involves interrupting the learner and providing him with the correct form whenever he makes a mistake. Such a type of correction –one should note- has positive and negative effects. A positive one is that a problem is identified on the spot and a learner is immediately supplied with the correct form. A negative effect, however, is that if a learner commits a great number of mistakes, the teacher may respond to the errors frequently which is distracting and discouraging for the learners.

Another solution is to rely on the postponed correction. A teacher may note down all the learners' shared mistakes and provide them with corrections after they finish speaking. This can be done either individually or in front of the whole class so that all learners benefit from the correction. Nonetheless, as psychology research literature has revealed, such a form of correction is less effective as the time between the performance of the skill and the feedback increases (Alright & Bailey 1991). That is once the learner has

finished, s/he might not be interested in the correction that much, and s/he might not even remember the mistake discussed by the teacher.

Besides these two basic types of error correction, Han (2007, p.52) also mentioned the *recast* which is a form of implicit correction. Apart from recasts, teachers can also employ *clarification requests* as an indirect way of error correction. This involves the teacher formulating a question to indicate that the utterance has been ill-formed and that a reformulation is required. However, though these may be effective ways of error correction, they inhibit the learners from noticing the mistake and discovering the correct form.

Significantly, the three types of error correction mentioned above affect learners' affective states in various ways. Therefore, immediate correction seems to be more useful when learners are highly motivated in order not to discourage them by the teacher's interruptions. Postponed correction, in turn, helps in protecting learners 'self-esteem and creating a positive atmosphere in the classroom, but it is less effective as a form of correction. Similarly, a recast can is also a form of correcting that protects learners' self-esteem in that the mistake is not pointed out directly but learners might not perceive the correction at all. It may be, therefore, stated that the more indirect correction, the less efficient it might be.

Furthermore, Edge (1990, p.25-26) argued that learners can benefit from *self* and *peer correction. The teacher* should give the learners the chance t*o self-correct* by pointing at the error. This can be done by facial expression, asking an additional question, or shaking your head. Self-correction is effective as it enables learners to remember the correct form, but it can be used only when learners' L2 competence is high enough. *Peer correction*, in turn, comprises more than one learner in a correction which means that correct forms reach the whole group. What is more, it helps learners be independent of the teacher in learning. Nonetheless, this form of correction recommends a positive classroom atmosphere or else it might be embarrassing for a learner to be corrected by a classmate. For some learners, it is only the teacher who has the authority to correct them.

Finally, it can be stated that deciding on whether and how to respond to learners' errors depends mainly on the type of the mistake (e.g. grammar or meaning), the type of the activity (e.g. fluency vs. accuracy focused), and the learner's perception of error

correction. The last factor is very significant because some learners feel threatened when corrected and may be reluctant to speak. Others, however, request correction and feel that they are not learning if not corrected. This makes the issue of error correction even more complex and teachers have to decide how to deal with individual cases.

2.13. Assessing Speaking

Measuring learners 'skills and checking their performance constitutes an integral part of enhancing their L2 competence. However, speaking in a foreign language classroom is the most challenging skill to assess. One of the main reasons for it is that oral exams cannot be taken by the whole group of learners as is the case with written exams. Besides, oral examinations depend on dynamic communication which means that teachers might easily overpass a mistake made by a learner. Additionally, it is not feasible to assess only speaking as listening skills are part and parcel of oral communication. In other terms, the answer provided by a learner to a certain question (or the arguments in a conversation s/he came up with) is based to a great extent on how well they have seized the question or the arguments of their interlocutors (Butler and Stevens 1997, p.215).

Indeed, assessing speaking raises many issues. It is a very time-consuming task where numerous learners have to be tested quickly. Besides, there are various levels on which performance has to be tested. In this connection, Weir (1995) provided an example of a rating scale elaborated for a test called TEEP (Test of English for Educational Purposes). This test points out four levels of performance -0,1,2and 3. The categories for rating are:

A. *Appropriateness*

B.*Adequacy of vocabulary* for purpose

C.Grammatical accuracy

D.*Intelligibility*

E.*Fluency*

F.*Relevance and adequacy of the content*

An issue, however, that such a rating scale may raise is that it is time-consuming and by focusing on details, the tester may overlook global learner performance. One solution is to employ an overall impression scale. Also known as holistic scoring (Thornbury, 2005, p.127), this is quicker and permits the tester to form a general impression of performance, and base grading on that. In such a case, guidelines can be provided to aid the tester structure their impressions (Keith, J.2008, p.317). Nonetheless, one problem with this rating scale is the amount of training that is required to ensure the reliability of grading (Keith, J.2008, and p.317). Besides, it also requires the involvement of more than one scorer, and any difference in score is discussed and negotiated (Thornbury, 2005, p.127). In addition to that, it is so hard to make objective judgments about the learners' speaking ability when testing them face to face. In this vein, Hughes (1989, cited in Keith, 2008, p.319) asserted that "scorers should not be influenced by such features as candidates' pleasantness, prettiness, or the cut of their dress. The truth is that these are hard to exclude from one's judgment-but an effort has to be made!"

As a resolution to such problems and challenges in assessing speaking, Thornbury, 2005, pp.125-126 proposed particular types of activities that instructors can resort to. These involve:

- *Oral interviews*: This is where the examiner asks the learners questions about themselves or a topic, they tackled beforehand. Interviews are easy to establish as they do not require any advanced preparations. Therefore, a learner at a time can be interviewed and assessed while the rest of the class is engaged in some reading or writing tasks for example. Nonetheless, interviews may be challenging for the assessor who is required to keep the flow of communication in the meantime, to concentrate on mistakes made by a learner.

- *Live monologues*: These are direct presentations that learners give on a certain topic. Such spoken tests show the examinee's ability to speak at length and remove the tension present during interviews. What is more, such monologues permit one to notice whether or not examinees can handle long turns in speaking. To make such an activity more interactive, the teacher may ask some follow-up questions.

- *Recorded monologues*: These might be less annoying for learners compared to a presentation in front of the whole group which might raise the level of apprehension and

anxiety. Furthermore, recordings facilitate for the teacher the task of assessment as it is possible to go through it several times and detect all the positive and negative aspects.

- *Roleplays*: Implementing role play for testing and assessing learners' speaking abilities calls for topics that the learners are interested in. This will permit them to concentrate on how to express themselves rather than on what to say. Role plays work well with more advanced learners yet they can also contribute to reducing the anxiety and tension that most examinees experience when being assessed during conversations

- *Collaborative tasks and discussions*: Such activities may generate the highest level of authentic interaction as learners utilize language that approximates their real life. These activities suit well-advanced learners. However, they are not without a problem as the performance of one learner might be based on how well the other student has handled his/her part.

As can be noticed, the activities that facilitate the assessment of speaking also involve challenges and obstacles. In the meantime, learners' overall performance level frequently should be at a relevant level for some tasks to be implemented.

The final issue to highlight concerning assessing students' performance in speaking involves the components or the parts of speaking which are assessed. Generally speaking, the elements tested in oral performance are fluency, accuracy, and pronunciation. However, researchers such as Skehan (1998) or Ellis (2003) also suggested rather distinct components such as *complexity*, *accuracy,* and *fluency*. Accuracy and fluency remain the same, but complexity denotes the sophistication of the language utilized. The more sophisticated vocabulary learners employ and the more significant set of grammatical forms the oral performance involves the higher score is (Foster et al.2000, p.355). Robinson (2001, p.29) expounded that such elements work as constructs in measuring learners' speaking performance, yet in many situations, there is still an issue with highlighting what exactly they involve.

Hence, accuracy encompasses abiding by the rules of grammar, semantics, or phonology. Regarding fluency, it denotes the flow and efficiency with which ideas are expressed. A few grammar mistakes here and there do not matter as long as the speaker manages to give a clear talk considerably without pauses or hesitations. Another problem, however, relates to the notion of complexity. Complexity refers to the regular use of complex sentences consisting of at least two classes, i.e., the main clause and the subordinate clause. This notion of complexity also encompasses the capability to voice rich and sophisticated ideas.

It should be noted, however, that formal examinations involve a wide range of test types that depend on distinct assessment criteria. For instance, the CELST Test of speaking comprises four categories: 'Grammar and Vocabulary 'Discourse Management', 'Pronunciation and Interactive Communication' (Thornbury, 2005, pp.127-129).They are described as follows:

- *Grammar and vocabulary*: On this scale, examinees are given grades for the accurate and appropriate use of grammar, and syntax as well as the adequate choice of vocabulary.

- *Discourse management*: On this scale, testers seek evidence of the candidate's capability to convey ideas and *views* incoherent *connected speech*. The CELS tasks request candidates to formulate sentences and produce appropriate sentences to transmit information and voice or justify a point of view. It should be noted that the examinee's ability to retain a coherent flow of language with relevant vocabulary is tested here.

- *Pronunciation*: This denotes the examinees' capacity to produce intelligible utterances to meet the task's requirements. That is, it signifies the production of individual sounds, the appropriate linking of words, and the use of stress and intonation to convey the intended meaning. It is worth stating that L1 accents are acceptable provided that communication is not impeded.

- *Interactive communication*: It denotes the candidate's capacity to communicate with the interlocutor and the other examinees by initiating and responding appropriately and at the required speed and rhythm to fulfil the task requirements. It involves the capacity to employ functional language and to preserve or repair interaction, for instance, in "*conversational turn-taking*, and a *willingness to extend the conversation and move the task towards a conclusion*"(Thornbury, 2005, p.129). Candidates ought to conserve the *coherence* of the conversation and might if required, ask the *interlocutor* or the *other candidate for clarification*.

It is worth emphasizing also that when assessing learners' performance in speaking, the examiners should take several factors into account. One among these is the learners' level of proficiency. In this conjuncture, it is of paramount importance to shed light on the *ACTFL proficiency guidelines*. These offer detailed data about the performance described for listening, speaking, reading, and writing

at each main level of proficiency*: novice, intermediate, advanced, superior-and sublevel-low, mid, and high.* Actually, such criteria-referenced descriptions are empirically founded, demonstrating how speakers specifically function at diverse levels of capability (Judith et al. 2000, p.247). This is well illustrated in Table 8 which displays the *assessment criteria for speaking* at significant levels concerning global tasks and functions, context/content, accuracy, and text type associated with various types of speaking proficiency.

Table 8: Speaking Proficiency: Assessment Criteria *(Judith et al.2000, p. 249)*

PROFICIENCY LEVEL	GLOBAL TSKS AND FUNCTIONS	CONTEXT/ *CONTENT*	ACCURACY	Text Type
SUPERIOR	Discuss topics extensively, support opinions, and hypothesize. Deal with a linguistically unfamiliar situation.	Most formal and informal settings/ *Wide range of general interest topics and some special fields of interest and expertise.*	No pattern of errors in basic Structures. Errors virtually never interfere with communication or distract the native speaker from the message.	Exten ded discou rse
ADVANCED	Narrate and describe in major time frames and deal effectively with an unanticipated complication.	Most informal and some formal settings/ *Topics of personal and general interest.*	Understood without difficulty by speakers unaccustomed to dealing with nonnative speaker	Paragr aphs
INTERMEDI ATE	Create with language; initiate, maintain, and bring to a close simple co by asking and responding to simple	Some informal settings and a limited number of transactional situations *Predictable, familiar conversation topics related to daily activities.*	Understood, with some repetition, by speakers accustomed to dealing with nonnative speakers.	Discre te senten ces

	questions.			
NOVICE	Communicate minimally with formulaic and rote utterances, lists, and phrases.	Most common informal settings/*Most common aspects of daily life.*	May be difficult to understand, even for speakers accustomed to dealing with nonnative speakers.	Indivi dual words and phrase s

2.14. Strategies to Cope with FL Speaking Anxiety

Before diving into anxiety-coping strategies, it is of paramount importance to discern the nature of the term strategy. Firstly, it is worth clarifying the difference between styles and strategies since there has been confusion in the use of the two concepts. Actually, styles, as Brown (2000) refers to them, are "those general characteristics of intellectual functioning that pertain to you as an individual and differentiate you from someone else. For example, you might be more visually oriented, more tolerant of ambiguity, or more reflective than someone else" (p113). Accordingly, learning styles are an individual's favoured way to absorb process, comprehend and retain information. If one attempts to enumerate all the learning styles that exist in the literature, one will end up with a very long list. However, visual, auditory, tactile, and kinaesthetic are the four major learning styles that educators and psychologists have identified.

Notwithstanding, learning strategies are the specific techniques that individuals utilize to solve problems posed by second or foreign language learning. According to Brown (2000), "strategies are specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating

certain information" (p.113). Furthermore, strategies vary across individuals. That is, each one has his own way to solve a given problem. Strategies also "vary from moment to moment, or day to day, or year to year." (Brown, p.113). It is worth noting also that unlike styles, which are unconsciously used, strategies are conscious steps to attain particular objectives. Undeniably, the fact that learners employ a variety of language learning strategies (LLSs) urged many researchers to confirm the consciousness of LLSs. Etymologically, the term 'strategy' emanated from the ancient Greek' Strategia' which meant the art of war. Simply put, strategy entails management, planning, manipulation, and seeking a particular goal. In a similar line of thought, Schemeck (1988) argued that "a strategy is the implementation of a set of procedures (tactics) for accomplishing something" (Ching-Yiet.al., 2007, p.230).

More importantly, many studies have been conducted on language learning strategies (LLSs) whose significance is reflected in the various ways they have been defined and categorized. In this regard, Oxford (1990) contended that there is "no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist; how they should be defined, demarcated and categorized" (p.17).

Elaborating on what is stated above, O'Malley et al., 1985 (in Brown 2000) classified LLSs into *metacognitive, cognitive,* and *socio-affective*. Besides, the field of second or foreign language acquisition identified two broad categories of strategy: *learning strategies* and *communication strategies.* The former is associated with input, processing, storing information, and retrieving it from others. The latter, however, relates to the output, that is the way we convey meaning, and the way we transmit messages to others (Brown, H.D., 2000). Regarding learning strategies, they are divided, in turn, into three major categories. Metacognitive strategies entail the awareness of one's thoughts and ideas while the learning process is taking place and control of one's production or comprehension. This strategy requires knowledge that is utilized to solve problems and most importantly to evaluate learning after a learning task is completed (Purpura, 1997 as cited in Brown HD, 2000). Cognitive strategies are mental procedures for achieving cognitive goals such as solving a given problem, understanding what is being read, etc. Furthermore, using a dictionary, reading aloud, summarizing, and analyzing are recognized as cognitive strategies.

Communicative strategies, however, involve *affective strategies* and *social strategies*. Though some researchers such as Rubin (1981) did not recognize affective strategies as a category in their own right and O'Malley and Chamo (1990) combined social and affective strategies to produce *socio-affective strategies*, Hsiao and Oxford (2002) maintained, from a study they carried out, that they should be detached or separated.

Affective strategies are concerned with handling emotions. They are employed by learners to set a positive mood for learning and diminish the difficulties they encounter when learning the language. As affirmed by Dememe (2008), "affective strategies help regulate emotions, motivations and attitudes" (p.84). Actually, it is undeniable that a positive learning environment helps learners increase their motivation, and manage their feelings and all negative attitudes related to the language learning process.

More specifically, coping with FLSA with methods such as listening to music, using relaxation exercises and deep breathing are useful affective strategies that the learners may utilize. Similarly, the teacher's creation of a relaxed and friendly atmosphere dominated by laughter and a sense of humour; his provision of positive reinforcement and indirect rather than direct correction are all effective teaching strategies that can help students overcome their in-class speaking anxiety.

Social strategies, however, involve mainly cooperating with others and being aware of others' thoughts and feelings. Up to Brown (2000), "they have to with social mediating activity and interacting with others" (p.124). Social strategies permit learners to learn through collaboration with others. They involve three main strategies. Firstly, requesting help, correction, or clarification. Second, cooperating with others, i.e., coordinating with peers who are proficient in the target language he is attempting to learn. Finally, empathising with others involves being sympathetic to them and understanding them (Brown, 2000).

To return to anxiety-coping strategies, research about them has been insufficient. Yet despite the lack of empirical studies that tackle anxiety-coping strategies, extensive research has been done to assist students to alleviate their anxiety in the foreign language-speaking classroom. More specifically, based on a study conducted on 209 students enrolled at two universities in Central Japan, Kondo and Yang (2004) identified 70 key

strategies for coping with FLSA. These were summed up into five strategies: *preparation, relaxation*, *positive thinking*, *peer seeking*, and *resignation.* By the same token, Marwan (2007) also introduced four strategies that students frequently employ to overcome their FLSA: *preparation relaxation, positive thinking,* and *peer seeking*. Indeed, when learners practice better the FL and prepare more before attending the speaking class, their FLA will decrease (Liu, 2007). Moreover, practising positive *self-talk* is also a fruitful way to reduce FLA., especially *'state anxiety*. To demonstrate the role of positive *self-talk* in overcoming FLA, the following example (from the Learning Resource Center at the University of Texas, Austin) is worth indicating:

Situation: Walking toward the front of the room for an oral presentation.

Anxiety-Provoking Self-Talk: "I can't talk in 431 public. I'll forget everything. I've always stumbled over my words when it really counts. Last time I was so nervous I sounded like a robot .."

Productive Self-Talk: "I can handle this .... Just relax . .. take a deep slow breath and I'll start as I rehearsed it."

(Young, 1991, p.431).

Furthermore, as the teacher represents another major source of anxiety for the learners based on his behaviour, in-class practices, and activities to name a few, research literature proposed several teaching strategies to help instructors create a low-anxiety/less threatening classroom environment. To begin with the teacher's behaviour, the FL instructor should be aware of his new role within student-centred classrooms. In other words, he is neither the strict, authoritarian figure of the classroom nor the only source of knowledge who prevents his students from expressing themselves and asking questions. The instructor, however, needs to be friendly, empathetic, and with some sense of humour. In this respect, Young (1991) maintained that «instructors who had a good sense of humour and were friendly, relaxed and patient, who made students feel comfortable, and who encouraged students to speak out were cited as helpful in reducing foreign language class anxiety " (p .432).

What is more, to reduce his students' FLSA, the classroom teacher should also reconsider his attitudes towards learners' errors and his manners of correction. This was confirmed by Young's (1990) study whose participants proposed that " instructors can reduce language anxiety by adopting an attitude that mistakes are part of the language

learning process and that mistakes will be made by everyone" (p.432). Indeed, language errors are a natural part of learning. They are signs indicating that the learning process is taking place. Accordingly, instructors should have a positive attitude towards them and should know when and how to correct and which errors to be corrected. Simply put, before deciding to react toward their learners' spoken errors, instructors should consider many aspects of language learning, mainly, not hurting their feelings. Within this context, Young contended that "Students felt more at ease when the instructor's manner of correction was not harsh and when the instructor did not overreact to mistakes" (p.432).

Besides, to reduce, FL anxiety related to classroom practices and activities, teachers should be *creative* in choosing their in-class speaking activities (Liu, 2007). They can, for instance, employ group work and language games to tailor their tasks to the affective needs of the students. This was affirmed by Margret (2012) who concluded that "discomfort [in the classroom] arose because of what students were asked to do, how they were asked to do it, or who they had to do it with" (p.1)

Essentially, permitting students to work in groups contributes to increasing their interest, and motivation, and alleviates their speaking anxiety. Indeed, when working in groups, students of various personality traits (anxious and non-anxious) will mingle. This will allow the transference of knowledge, confidence, and pleasure from the relaxed students to the anxious ones. This is congruent with Long (1991) who asserted that "group work not only addresses the affective concerns of the students, it also increases the amount of student-talk and comprehensible input" (p.433). Likewise, Dornyei (2001) maintained that "Cooperative situations generally have a positive emotional sense, which means that they generate less anxiety and stress than other learning formats" (p.101).

In a similar vein, implementing games in the FL classroom can also decrease the students' speaking anxiety. According to Saunders and Crootall (1985),

> If the learning of a new language provokes inhibition and caution on the part of the adult who fears ridicule because of incompetence in a real situation, the activity of play within game scenarios has great potential. In effect, the person at play can be more easily forgiven for errors of judgment and poor communication. There is always the excuse of unfamiliarity with the social rules, roles, and norms of a game for novice players (p. 169).

Indeed, it is common knowledge that learners who learn through games are more motivated and have positive attitudes toward learning. To add, games bring fun for the

learners, thus enabling them to learn and retain new words more easily. Also after practising a new language via games, students have the chance to employ language in a non-stressful way(Uberman,1998). Actually, games are motivating as they usually involve friendly competition and create a collaborative learning atmosphere. It is worth noting, however, that using language games in the FL classroom does not necessarily imply using classical, competitive games such as *Jeopardy*, *password,* or *Hangman* (Young, 1991). Language games may involve using the target language to solve a problem. As Young (1991) suggested, for instance, student A has a diagram and has to describe it in the target language well enough for Student B to draw it. Diagrams are compared afterwards to check for similarity. In this kind of "game", students focus on communicating information to each other for an ultimate purpose. (p.433)

Interestingly, using language games, especially in problem-solving situations, as proposed by Saunders and Crootall (1985), can be useful to create interest and motivation among students, boost their participation, and decrease their language anxiety. They recommended, however, that instructors have to be cautious when implementing games. This is especially the case when some games are highly challenging and competitive that "have the potential of arousing too much excitement, anxiety, or competition amongst more experienced or critical participants" (Saunders and Crootall,1985, p. 171).

2.15. Conclusion

This chapter is an endeavour to provide an overview of the theoretical framework related to speaking as a major FL skill. Besides its main features, speaking is examined in terms of its stages of development, teaching principles, and the status it occupied throughout ELT history. FLA was also highlighted with the various language skills, mainly speaking. The last part of this section, nonetheless, revolved around the main tactics used by both students and instructors to overcome the learners' foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA).

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

Chapter Three : Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This chapter constitutes the empirical phase of the dissertation. It consists of the research methodology and the methods of data collection and analysis. It seeks to arrive at a consistent analysis of the teaching/learning atmosphere regarding Mostaganem University EFL learners' experience with foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA). It aims at collecting and analysing data related to the first research question. That is whether second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University experience FLCSA and whether they use any strategies to cope with it. To answer the first research question, three research instruments were utilized: two questionnaires and classroom observation. Both questionnaires were administered to students to respond to. The first is a background questionnaire that aimed to gather background information about the student participants. The second, which is a modified version of the foreign language classroom anxiety scale (Horwitz, et al.1986), sought to measure the student participants' level of FLCA and to identify its main sources in the first stage of the study. To grant more validity and credibility to the research work, a structured classroom observation was conducted to identify the anxious students' symptoms of FLCSA.

3.2. Research Design

This research study is carried out to explore the affective state of Algerian university students when learning to speak in the EFL classroom. This issue was drawn from the fact that many classroom teachers have confirmed the apprehension and discomfort experienced by their students who were attempting to acquire and use a foreign language. Such a feeling of fear or anxiety becomes particularly even worse as students are required to speak in the FL classroom.

To obtain reliable data about the current study's research questions, a mixed-method approach was adopted. This involved two questionnaires addressed to students and classroom observation. This study was carried out in an Algerian University where English is taught as a second foreign language to help students attain an advanced level of proficiency that permits them to communicate effectively. However, from a personal professional experience, only a few EFL learners feel at ease when being called to speak in the FL-speaking classroom.

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To fulfil such an investigation, the researcher aimed, in the first stage of the study, at seeking answers to the following research question:

- To what extent do Second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University experience FLCSA?

  1- What are the sources/ causes behind their FLCSA?

  2-What are the symptoms/manifestations of their FLCSA?

  3-Do Second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University use any coping strategies to overcome their FLCSA?

Based on the aforementioned questions, the researcher set the following hypotheses:

  1- Second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University might experience FLCSA.

  2- The sources of these students' FLCSA could be attributed to their lack of linguistic competence, low self-confidence, and fear of negative evaluation.

  3- The students may manifest their FLCSA through various signs such as silence, refusing to speak, hiding, speaking quietly, etc.

3.2.1. Participants

This study was conducted in the Department of English at Abdelhamid Ibn Badis University of Mostaganem during the academic year 2018-2019. Within this context, 50 second-year EFL students were purposefully selected to take part in the study. They were 19 (38%) males and 31 (62%) females, their ages ranging between twenty and twenty-one years. Taught by the researcher herself, these student participants had one hour and a half a week of Oral Expression class during the whole academic year. The major aim of this course consists of practising and enhancing the EFL students' speaking skills. The participating students had learned English for at least eight years before reaching this level. Four years spent in middle school, three years spent in secondary school, in addition to one year spent at university as first-year students. The researcher has chosen second-year students purposefully to conduct her study. In other terms, students at such a level are supposed to have an intermediate level and to be more acquainted with the nature of the Oral Expression module than their first-year counterparts.

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The researcher explained to the participants the nature of the study and its purpose. She also clarified the significance of their contribution to the study. Moreover, she asserted that the identity of the participants would remain confidential so that they would respond as honestly as possible. All the student participants in this study responded to two questionnaires. The first was a background questionnaire that aimed to collect background information about the student participants and their experiences with FLCSA. The second was Horwitz et al. (1986)'s MFLCAS. The latter was distributed to them in the first stage of the study to identify their level of speaking anxiety and to detect the main sources of it. It is worth noting that the same scale would be utilized once again with the same participants to examine whether or not the application of the anxiety-reduction teaching strategies was effective in alleviating the student participants' FLCSA.

3.2.2. Data Collection Tools

It is worth mentioning that the researcher employed a variety of research tools. These include a students' background questionnaire, MFLCAS (Horwitz et al, 1986), and classroom observation.

3.2.2.1. The Student Background Questionnaire

The questionnaire is a method of data collection. According to Blaxeret al., (2006), "questionnaires are one of the most widely used social research techniques" (p.172). Consisting of a set of questions to be addressed to given participants, questionnaires can be either structured or unstructured. Structured questionnaires involve definite, concrete, and predetermined questions. Besides, such questions may be either closed-ended (i.e., the type of 'yes' or 'no') or open-ended (i.e., inviting free response). Structured questionnaires may also involve fixed alternative questions in which the answers of the informants are limited to the stated alternatives. Hence, they have just to select the convenient response by crossing out box(es). Essentially, when these features are not present in a questionnaire, it can be called an unstructured or non-structured questionnaire. Questionnaires are an effective tool for collecting data. They can be dispatched and gathered quickly from a large population without pressure.

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In this study, the student questionnaire was adopted to get better insight into the informants' acquaintances with the FLCSA and the coping strategies they employ to overcome it, in addition to their preferences in terms of in-class speaking activities and the teacher's personal characteristics.

The questionnaire consists of 19 questions and is divided into five sections. Section 1 is composed of 9 closed and open questions. It aims to collect background data about the informants' age, gender, and attitudes towards speaking skills. Section 2, which involves closed questions, intends to elicit from the participant's situations of their speaking anxiety. Section 3, however, contains six questions, five are closed and one is open. It aims at exploring the main causes of the informants' speaking anxiety. Section 4 comprises two closed questions. It intends to gather information about the strategies that the informants use to overcome their speaking anxiety. Section 5 involves two closed questions. It targets the informants' preferences in terms of the in-class speaking activities and the teacher's personal characteristics.

3.2.2.2. The Pre-study MFLCAS Questionnaire, (Horwitz, et al, 1986)

As already cited, the Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was designed by Horwitz et al. in 1986. It consists of 33 statements about three performance anxieties: *communication apprehension*, *test anxiety*, and *fear of negative evaluation*. Notably, each statement on this scale is rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (*strongly agree*) to 5(*strongly disagree*).

However, in this study, the scale has been shortened and slightly modified by the researcher to serve the purpose of the research and to make it more comprehensible for the students. Therefore, instead of 33 items, this Modified Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (MFLCAS) consists of only 22 statements within which the term foreign language in the original version of FLCAS is replaced by the *English language*. Furthermore, instead of a five-point Likert scale, the respondents are required to rate each item on only a three-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (I agree), 2 (I neither agree nor disagree), and 3 (I disagree) (See appendix B).

Essentially, this study used MFLCAS because English is a foreign language for the student participants. Moreover, the FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) had already been

employed in previous studies on foreign language anxiety, proving to be a valid and reliable measure of language anxiety. Specifically, the MFLCAS (Horwitz et al, 1986) was adopted in two stages in this study. In the first stage, which covers chapter three of the dissertation, this instrument was employed to measure the level of the student participants' anxiety and identify the main sources that provoke it. In the second stage, as chapter four will indicate, it was used to check whether the implementation of the anxiety-reducing teaching strategies was effective in coping with the student participants' classroom speaking anxiety.

3.2.2.3. The Pre-study Classroom Observation

Observation is another significant data collection tool. It *"involves the researcher in watching, recording and analysing events of interest"* (Blaxer et al. 2006, p.178). Furthermore, as opposed to other research instruments, classroom observation allows the researcher to examine a situation in its natural setting and allows him/her to collect *"live data"* from *"live situations"* that she cannot reach using other research methods (Cohen et al. 2000).

Observation consists of many types depending on the way it is undertaken and the level of the researcher's involvement. If the researcher plans with careful precision what particular elements are to be observed, then the observation is termed structured (or systematic) observation. But when the observation occurs without these features being taken into account, such observation is termed unstructured (or non-systematic) observation. Besides, specialists distinguish between participant and non-participant observation. This distinction is determined by the observer's involvement or no involvement in the life of the group he is observing. If the observer observes while being a member of the group he is observing, the observation is called participant observation. It is "observation undertaken by a researcher who is also part of the action being observed." (Kellett, 2005 , p.48). However, when the observer detaches himself from the life of the group being observed, such a type of observation is called non-participant observation.

This study involves a structured participant observation. It is structured because the researcher has specified the elements of students' behaviour to be observed, namely the symptoms of their speaking anxiety. Moreover, it is a participant observation because the observer (researcher) is also the teacher of the class being observed. This allowed her to be directly involved with the activities of the students who were being observed or used as

data sources. It is worth mentioning that the researcher has chosen second-year Oral Expression students purposefully to conduct the classroom observation. First, they represent the two groups whom she taught during the academic year (2018-2019). Also, this would allow her to observe them without them being aware, and hence increase the validity and the reliability of the study. Second, these students represent the same informants who completed the student background questionnaire and the MFLCAS questionnaire (Horwitz et al.1986). Consequently, the observation findings could help the researcher cross-validate the data obtained using the already mentioned student questionnaires.

Indeed, being a participant observer permitted the researcher to teach her students speaking by introducing several topics during their expression sessions and to take field notes about their behaviour, frequency of participation, state of being, and their reactions to the teacher/researcher's various types of corrective feedback. Notably, ten classroom observations were conducted by the teacher /researcher. Yet, when she could not take the field notes during the Oral Expression session, she took them just at the end of it and before leaving the classroom. By so doing, she managed not to miss any useful remarks for the research development.

Hence, during the academic year (2018-2019) and during the ten sessions of regular Oral Expression classes, where each session lasted for one hour and a half a week, the researcher attempted to collect observable data about her students focusing on the symptoms of their FLCSA. To facilitate her task, the teacher/ researcher prepared in advance an observation checklist (see appendix c). Slightly adapted from Gregerson's (2009), this observation checklist consists of three sections. The first involves information about the class organisation, the number of students, and their seating arrangement, in addition to the duration of the speaking session. The second section includes a table displaying the topic, the situation of anxiety, and the types of activities used in class in addition to a list of expected visual and auditory signs of classroom speaking anxiety that could be noticed by the researcher. The third section, however, encompasses a set of questions to better examine the sources of the student's anxiety and the type of feedback that evoked their speaking anxiety.

3.3. Data Analysis and Findings

The data collection of this first stage of the study took place during the first semester of the academic year (2018-2019). It was during this period that the researcher administered the two questionnaires to the students and conducted her classroom observation which lasted for ten weeks. The observation started in October 2018 till December 2018.

3.3.1. The Student Background Questionnaire

Item1:Is studying English at university a personal choice or imposed on you?

Table 9: Whether Studying English at University Was the Students' own Choice or Imposed on them.

	N° of students	Percentage
Personal Choice	46	92%
Imposed	4	8%
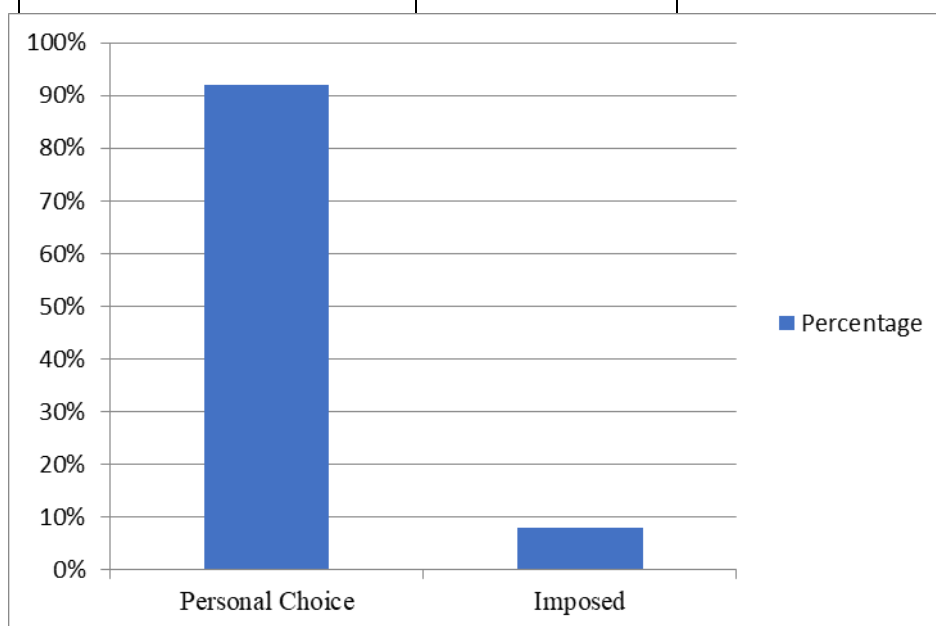
Figure 11. Whether Studying English at University Was the Students' own Choice or Imposed on them.

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This question was meant to investigate whether studying English at university represents the students' free choice or something imposed on them by parents or the administration. As displayed in the table below, the large majority of the informants 46 (92%) disclosed that English was their first choice when stepping into university. Only a minority of them (8%) admitted that it was imposed on them.

Item 2:Do you like to attend your Oral Expression Class (O.E)?

Table10: Students' Degree of Liking for Attending the O.E. Class

Yes	No
47	3
94 %	6 %
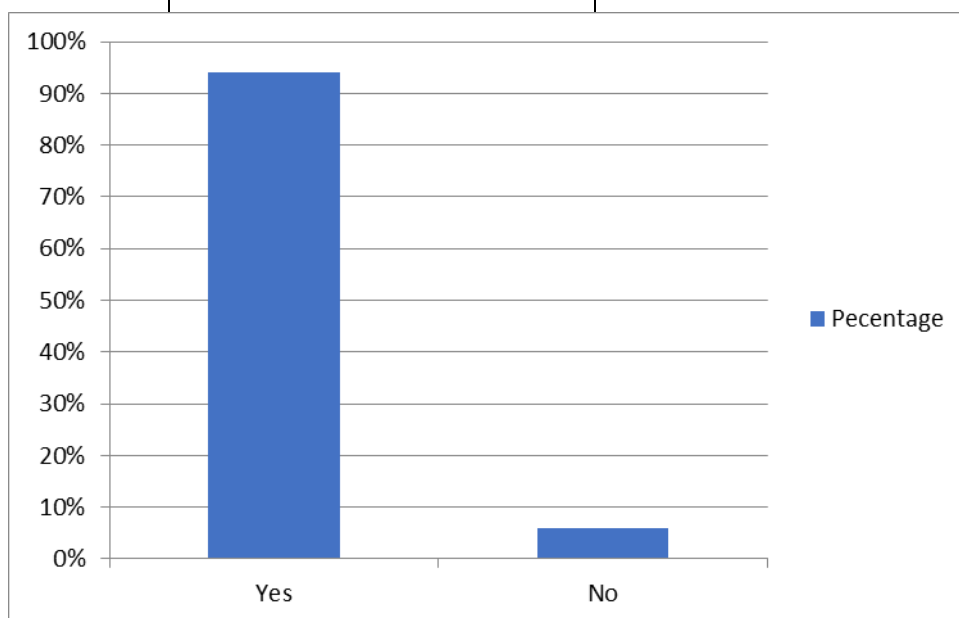
Figure 12: Students' Degree of Liking for Attending the O.E. Class

This question was mainly asked to point out whether or not the students like to attend their Oral Expression class. As indicated in Table 2, the majority of the student respondents (94%) expressed their liking for attending their O.E class, while only 6 % showed reluctance towards attending the OE class.

Item 3: Which of the four skills do you consider the most stressful?

Table 11: Students' Most Stressful Language Skill

Listening	Writing	Reading	Speaking
3	6	2	39
6%	12%	4%	78%
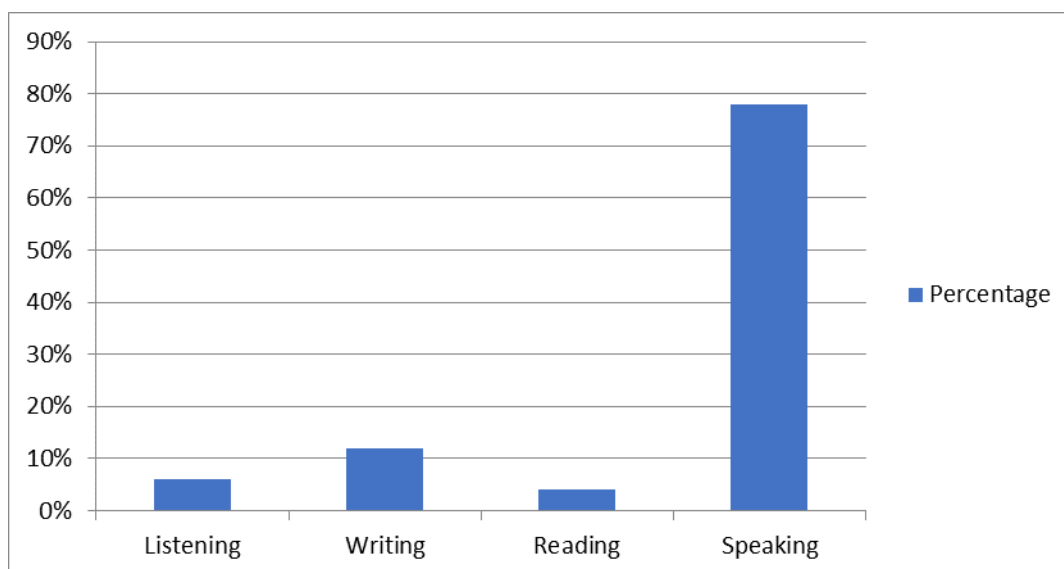
Figure 13: Students' Most Stressful Language Skill

This item aimed to ask students about the language skill they consider the most stressful. As Table 3 displays, the great majority of the students (78%) considered speaking the most stressful language skill. In parallel, 12% reported writing as the most anxiety-evoking. However, 6% cited listening as the most frustrating, and only 4% regarded reading as the most anxiety-provoking.

Item 4:What do you like best in your Oral Expression Class?

This question aimed to ask students about their appreciation of the Oral Expression class. The majority of the student participants mentioned that what they appreciate is that such a speaking classroom permits them to convey their ideas about various topics and share them with their teacher and classmates. Also, this class is an opportunity for them to practice English and hence promote their speaking skills.

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Item 5: What do you hate most in your Oral Expression class?

This question was meant to investigate the students' derogation of the Oral Expression class. A great number of participants indicated that they hate when the speaking topic is hard, boring, or unfamiliar to them. Moreover, the students detest it when their classmates interrupt them or laugh at their speaking mistakes. What students abhorred also is when the peers talk over each other and break inappropriately into other students' turns. The participants reported also their disgust at being stared at by their peers, especially while speaking.

Item 6: Where do you prefer to sit in Oral Expression Class?

Table 12: Students' Preferred Place for Sitting in the O.E.Class

Front	Middle	Back
17	22	11
34%	44%	22%
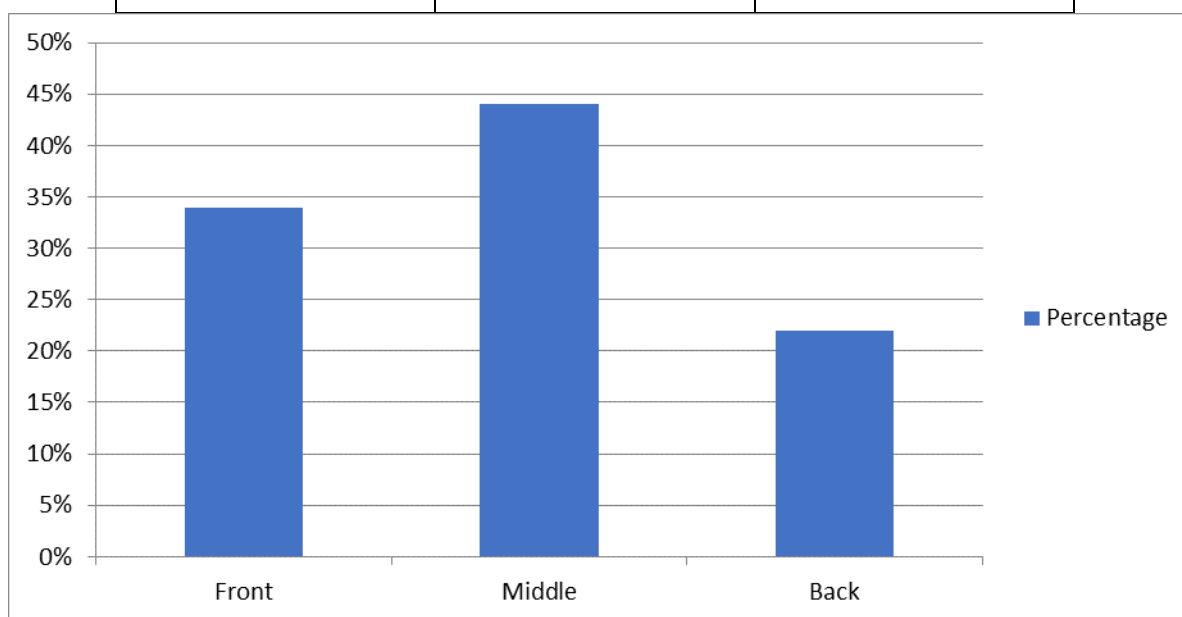
Figure 14: Students' Preferred Place for Sitting in the O.E. Class

This question aimed to examine the students' preferred place for sitting in the Oral Expression classroom. As Table 6 shows, the majority of the student participants (44%)

preferred to sit in the middle, 34% favoured sitting in the front, and 22% went for sitting in the back.

Item 7: How often do you participate in your O.E. class?

Table13: Students' Frequency of Participation in Oral Expression Class

Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
13	11	24	2
26%	22%	48%	4%
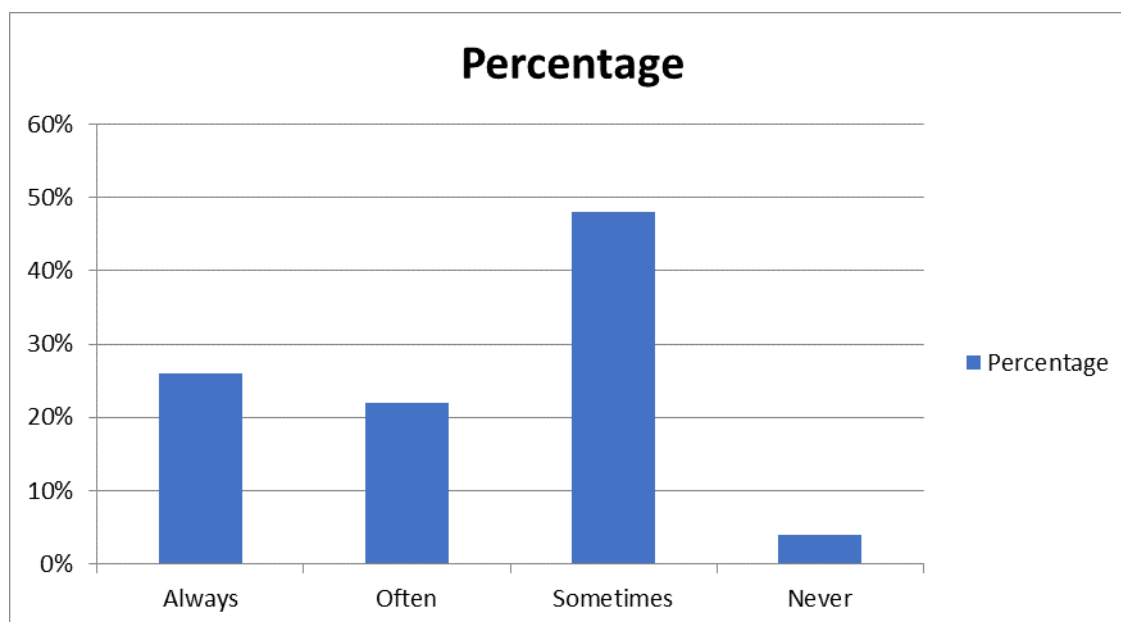
Figure15: Students' Frequency of Participation in Oral Expression Class

This question was mainly asked to gather data about the students' frequency of participation in the O.E. class. As indicated in Table 7 below, 48% of the students reported that they sometimes participate; 26% indicated that they always take part in the speaking activities, 22% often participate and only 2% admitted that they never participate.

Item 8: Do you feel anxious when it is needed to speak in your O.E. class?

Table 14: The Extent to Which Students Experience FLCA in the O.E.

Class

Yes	No
35	15
70%	30%
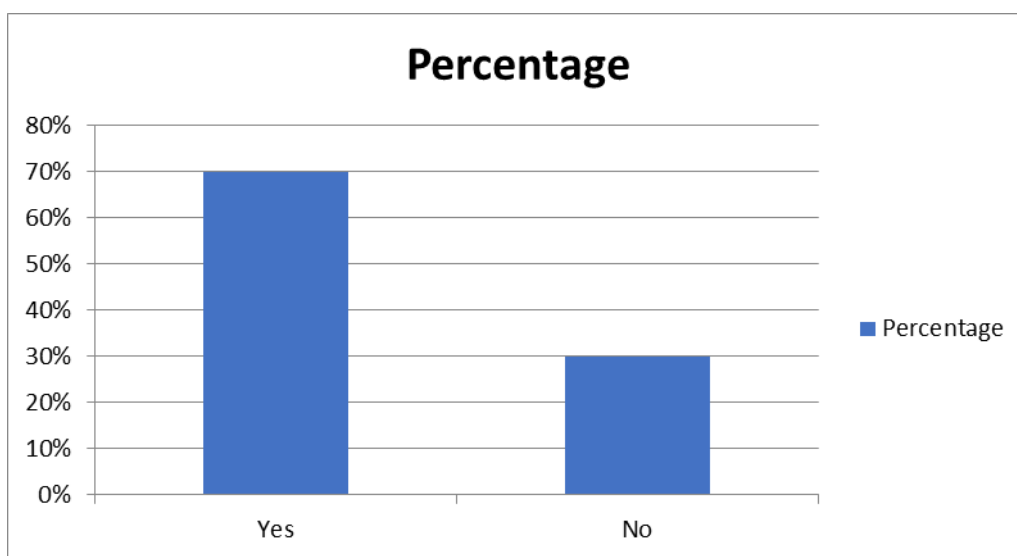
Figure 16: The Extent to Which Students Experience FLCA in the O.E.

Class

This item was intended to investigate whether the student-respondents experience FLCA when they are required to speak in the Oral Expression (O.E.) class. As Table 1 indicates, the majority of the students admitted that they experience FLCA when they are needed to speak in the O.E. classroom. In parallel, only 30% of them denied that they feel anxious when speaking.

Item 9: In which situation do you feel anxious to speak?

Table 15: Students' Situations of Speaking Anxiety

When you respond voluntarily	When called by the teacher to respond individually	When presenting in front of your class.	Oral tests	When you participate in formal discussions	When speaking in front of the other gender	Others
11	28	22	20	3	6	5
22%	56%	44%	40%	6%	12%	10%
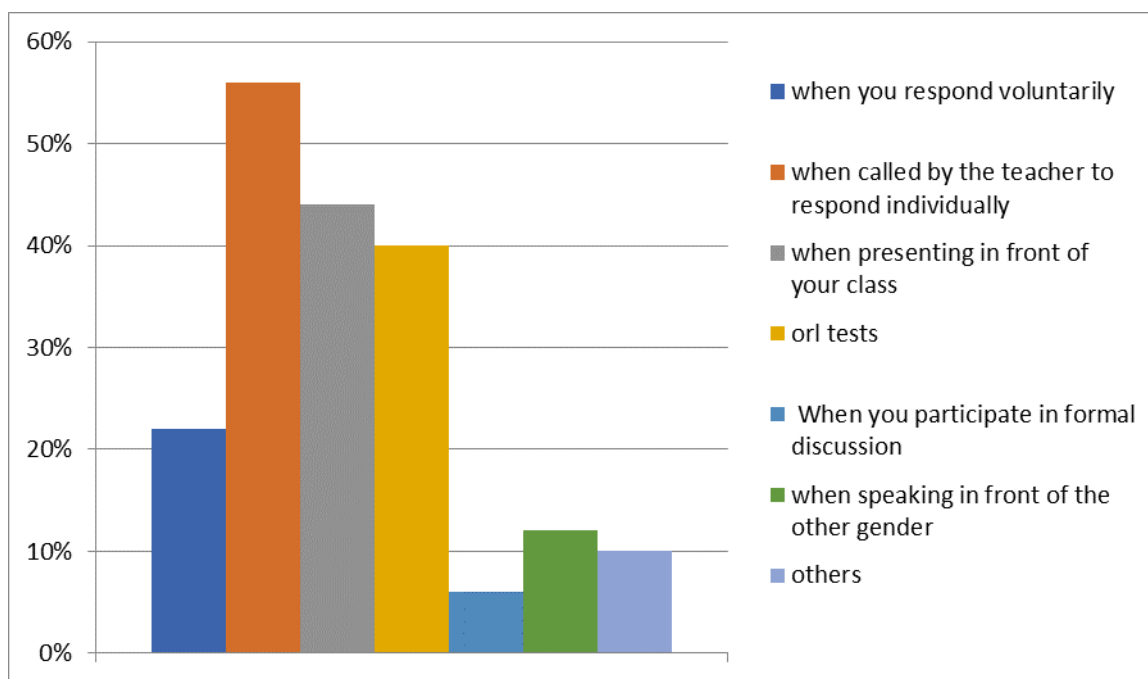
Figure 17: Students' Situations of Speaking Anxiety

The purpose of this item was to ask students about the situations that evoke their anxiety in the O.E. classroom. As Table 9 displays, 56% of the student respondents considered being called by the teacher to respond individually as the most anxiety-evoking situation. In parallel, 44% admitted being anxious when presenting in front of the whole

class. Similarly, 40% of the respondents disclosed being stressed during oral tests. Besides, 22 % of the participants regarded responding voluntarily as being anxiety-provoking. In parallel, 12% of the students admitted being nervous in front of the other gender,6% get stressed when participating during formal discussions, and the remaining 10% feel concerned about other situations.

Item 10: Why do you feel anxious?

Table16: Students' Causes of Classroom Speaking Anxiety

Lack of vocabulary	Poor pronunciation	Lack of self-confidence	Fear of making mistakes	Being unfamiliar with the topic
8	15	9	22	21
16%	30%	18%	44%	42%
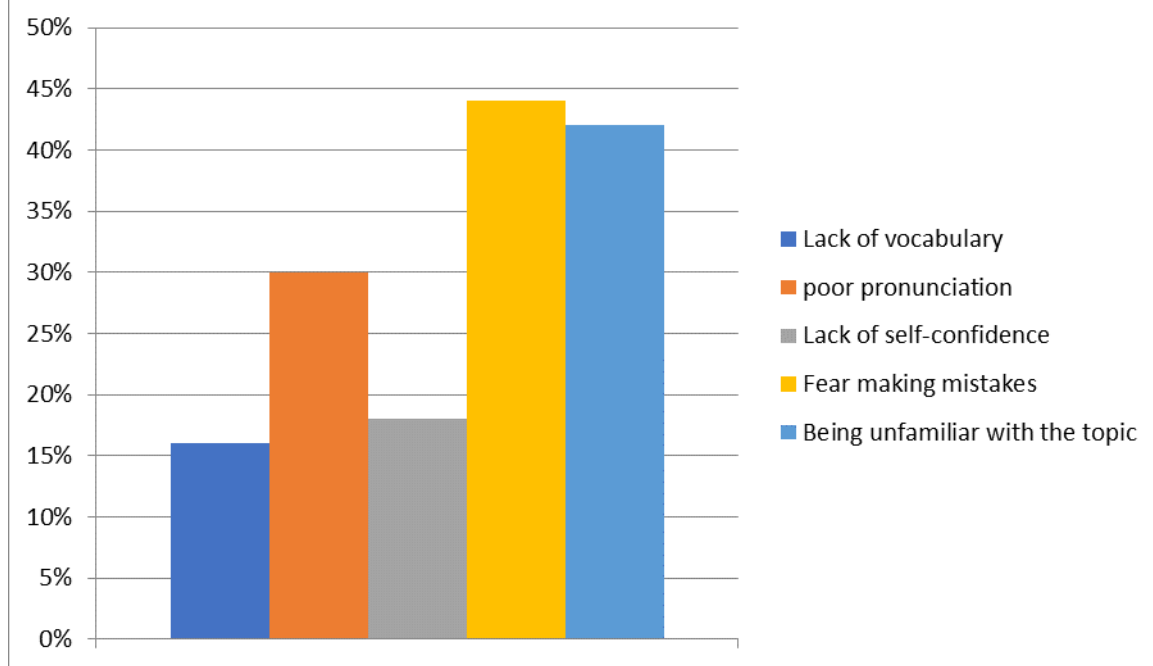
Figure18: Students' Causes of Classroom Speaking Anxiety

This question was mainly asked to gather data about the reasons that stand behind the students' speaking anxiety. As displayed in the table below, 44% of the students attributed their anxiety to their fear of making mistakes, 42% associated it with their unfamiliarity with the topic, and 30 linked it to their poor pronunciation. In parallel, 18%

of the respondents claimed that anxiety is caused by their lack of self-confidence, while 16% of them related anxiety to their lack of vocabulary.

Item 11: Do you worry about making mistakes in front of your classmates?

Table 17: The Extent of Students' Worry over Making Mistakes in Front of Their Classmates

Yes	No
29	21
58%	42%
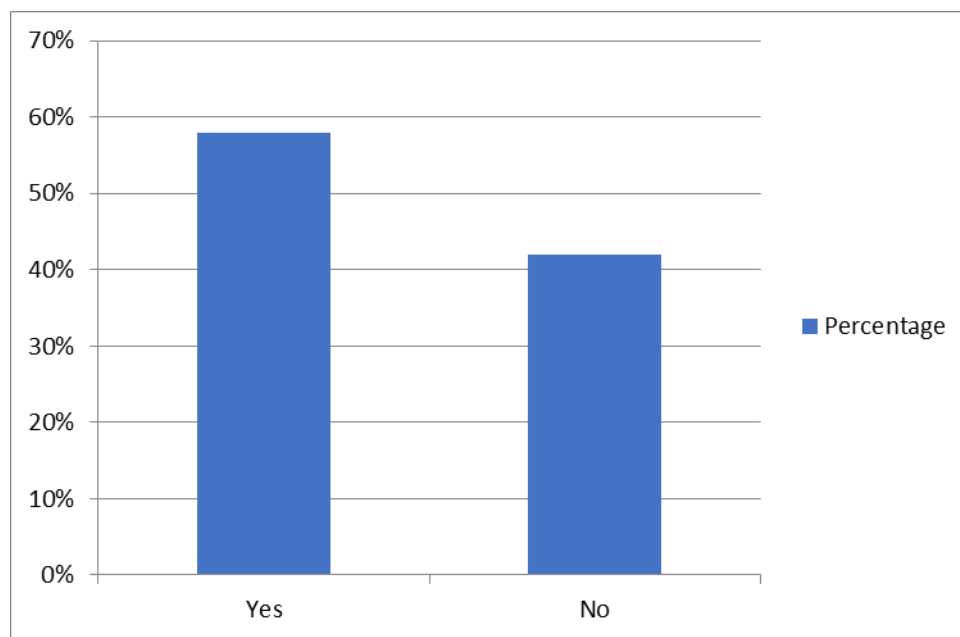
Figure 19: The Extent of Students' Worry over Making Mistakes in Front of Their Classmates

This question aimed to investigate whether or not the students worry about making mistakes in front of their peers. As Table 4 shows, the majority of the student respondents stated that they worry about making mistakes in front of their peers. However, 42% negated worrying about making mistakes in front of their classmates.

Item 12: Do you think that comparing yourself with other classmates makes you more anxious when speaking in the classroom?

Table18. Whether or not Comparing themselves with the other Classmates Makes the Students More Anxious

Yes	No
35	15
70%	30%
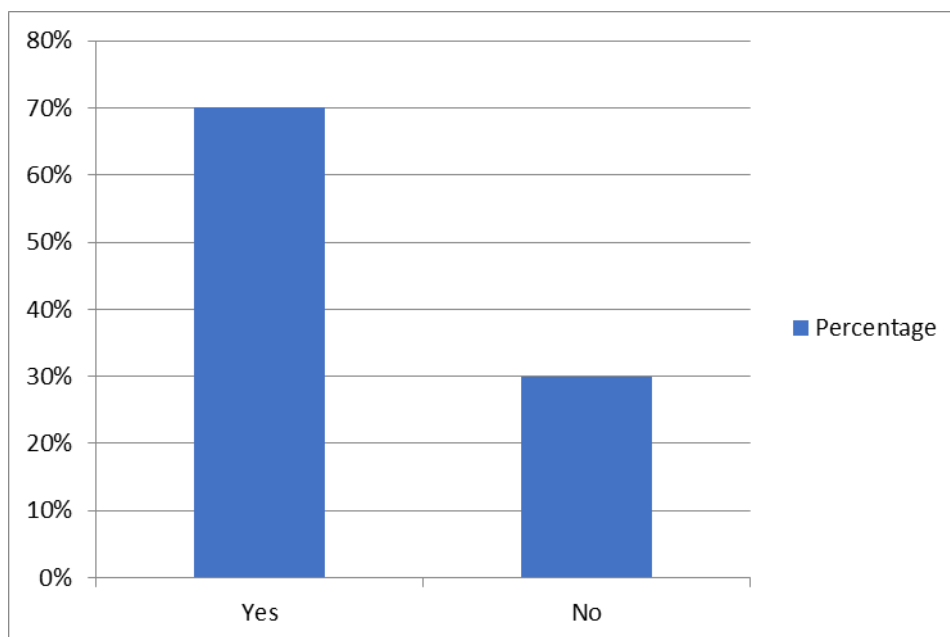
Figure 20: Whether or not Comparing Themselves with the Other Classmates Makes the Students More Anxious

This question is intended to point out whether or not the students think that comparing themselves with other classmates renders them anxious when speaking in the classroom. The findings obtained disclose that a large majority of the respondents (70%) confirmed that comparing themselves with their peers arises their anxiety in the speaking classroom. However, only 30% negated being anxious in such a situation.

Item 13: Mention some topics that make you more stressed/anxious when speaking in your oral Expression class.

The purpose of this question was to limelight the topics that evoke students' classroom speaking anxiety. Only a few participants affirmed that there is no particular topic that provokes their anxiety. The majority of them, however, avowed that political, historical, religious, and scientific topics were the most stressful for them. In parallel, some of the participants confided that they get anxious over unfamiliar topics and those that tackle relationships and overtly address their private life.

Item 14: If you are suddenly called by the teacher, will you answer comfortably or anxiously?

Table 19: Students' Responses on their Affective State When Called Suddenly by the Teacher

Comfortably	Anxiously
19	31
38%	62%
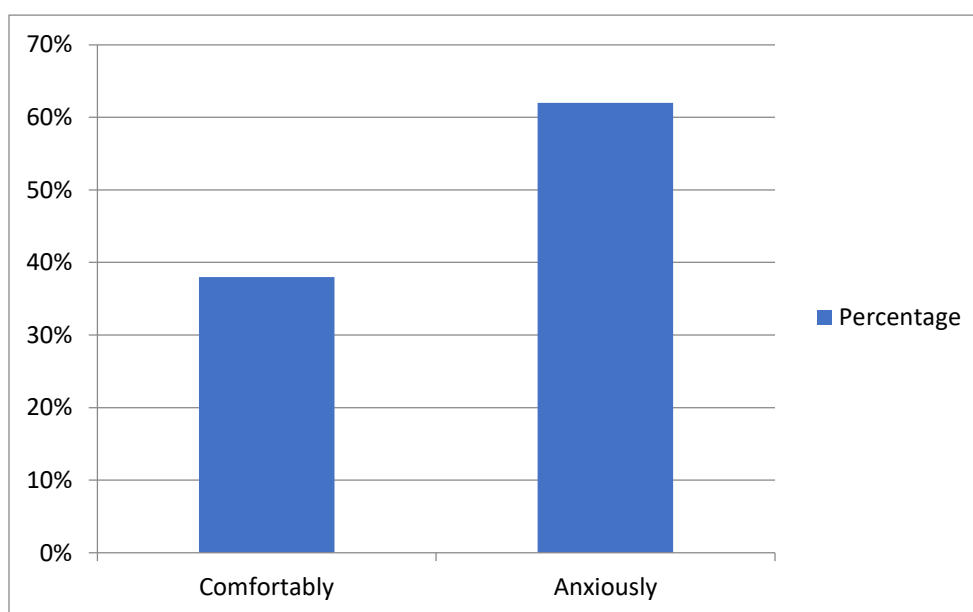
Figure 21: Students' Responses on their Affective State When Called Suddenly by the Teacher

   This question aimed to investigate whether the students answer comfortably or anxiously when suddenly called by the teacher. In fact, as Table 6 displays, 62% of the students confessed that they respond anxiously to the sudden calls of the teacher; while 38% affirmed that they answer comfortably in such a situation.

Item 15:How would like your teacher to react to your speaking mistakes?

Table 20: Students' Preferences of the Teacher's Reactions to Their Speaking Mistakes

To correct mistakes directly	To correct indirectly	Not to correct
26	22	3
52%	44%	6%
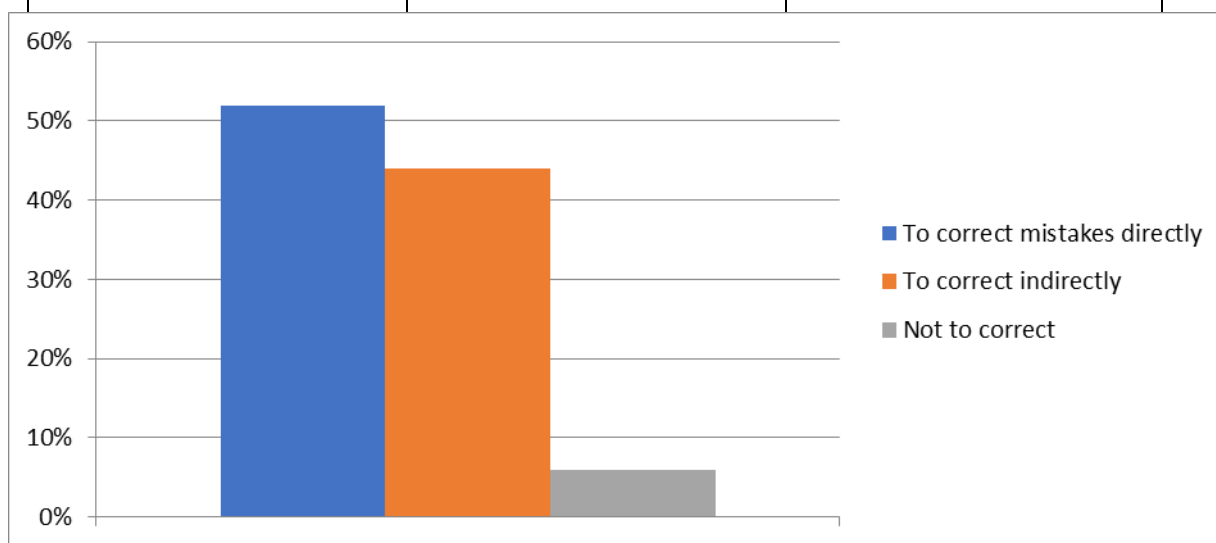
Figure 22: Students' Preferences of the Teacher's Reactions to Their Speaking Mistakes

       This question was meant to examine the way students like their teacher to react to their speaking mistakes. As indicated in Table 7, 52% of the students expressed their preference for direct correction; while 44% favoured indirect correction, and only 6% preferred not to be corrected at all.

Item 16: How do you consider coping with anxiety?

Table 21: Students' Reflex ions on   Anxiety-Coping Strategies

Very important	Less important	Not important
37	10	3
74%	20%	6%
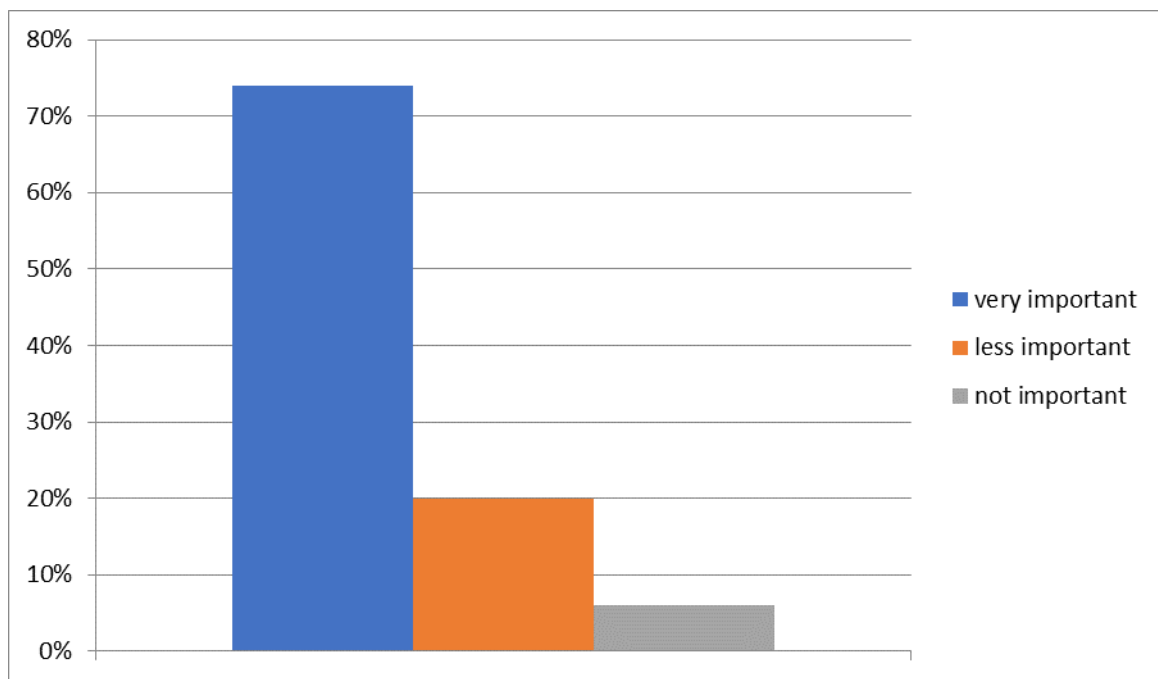
Figure23: Students' Reflexions on Anxiety-Coping Strategies

The purpose of this item was to examine the extent to which the students consider coping with anxiety as important. As Table 16 reveals, 74% of the participants admitted that coping with anxiety is very important, 20% regarded it as less important, and only 6% of them denied its importance.

Item 17: How can you cope with your speaking anxiety?

Table 22: Students' Strategies to Overcome Their Speaking Anxiety

More preparation and practice	Building self-confidence	Encouraging yourself to take risks	Others
3	27	22	24
6%	54%	44%	48%

48
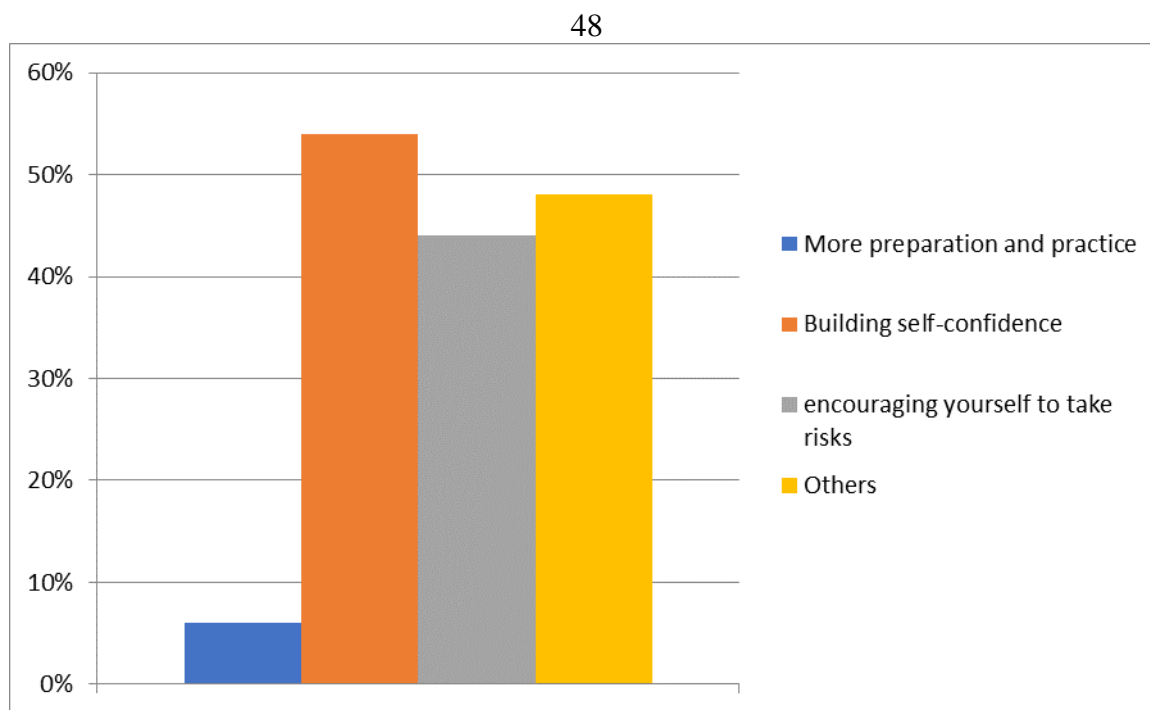
Figure 24: Students' Strategies to Overcome Their Speaking Anxiety

This question aimed to identify the strategies that the students utilize to cope with their speaking anxiety. As disclosed in Table 17 below, 54% of the student-respondents highlighted the importance of more preparation and practice, 48% admitted that anxiety can be overcome by encouraging oneself to take risks, 44% pointed out the importance of building self-confidence, and only, 6% of them suggested other anxiety-reducing strategies.

Item 18: Which of the following activities helps you overcome your anxiety and encourage you to speak in your oral EFL classroom?

Table 23: The Students' Responses on the Most Effective Activities to overcome their Speaking Anxiety

Story-telling	Story completion	Group Discussion	presenting in front of the whole class	Role plays	interviews	Picture Describing	Information Gap	Games
14	6	40	7	6	16	10	8	20
28%	12%	80%	14%	12%	32%	20%	16%	40%
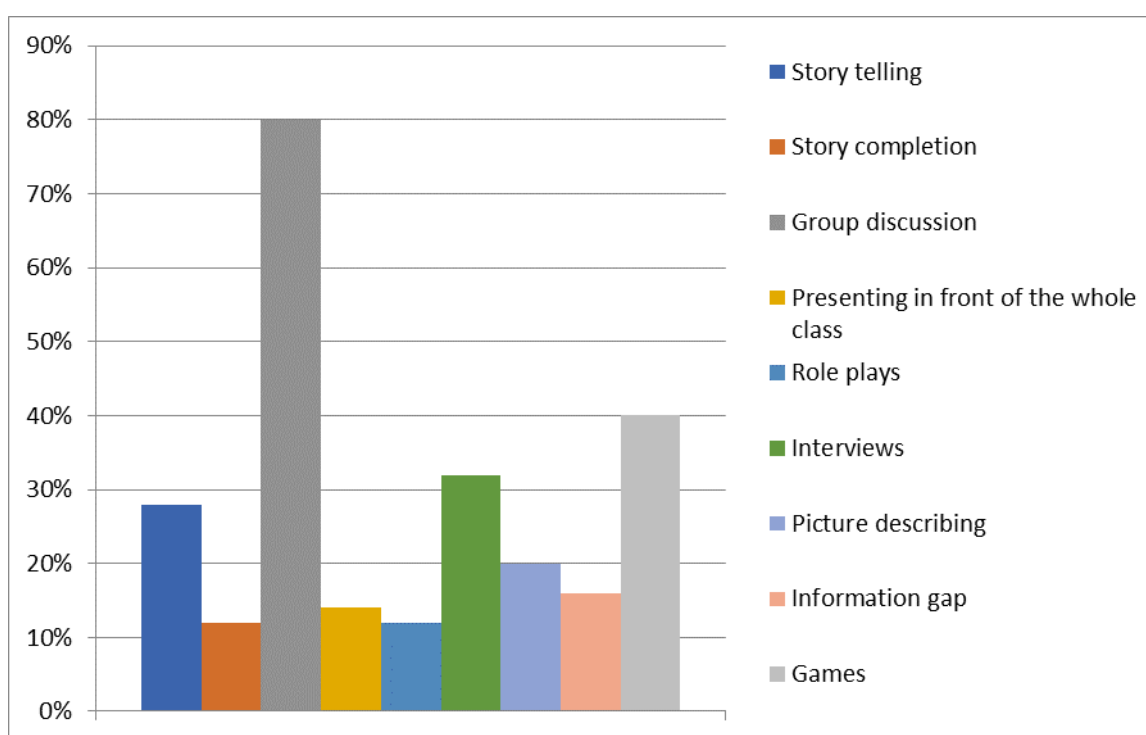
Figure 25: The Students' Responses on the Most Effective activities to overcome their Speaking Anxiety

The aim lying behind this item was to identify the activities that the students consider effective in overcoming their anxiety and encouraging them to speak in the EFL-speaking classroom. As Table 18 displays, the great majority of the student- participants (80%) preferred group discussions, 40% favoured games, 32 % opted for interviews and 28% went for storytelling. In parallel, 20% of the participants liked better picture-describing, 16% embraced the information gap, and 14% leaned towards presentations. In

the end, it is worth noting that an identical percentage (12%) was in favour of each story completion and role-play activity.

Item 19: What do you expect your teacher to do to help you cope with your speaking anxiety?

Table 24: Students' Expectations from Teachers to Help Them Overcome Their Speaking Anxiety

Being friendly	Creating an enjoyable/relaxing atmosphere	Using a variety of speaking activities40%	Encouraging pair/group work	Others
25	29	20	20	6
50%	58%	40%	40%	12%
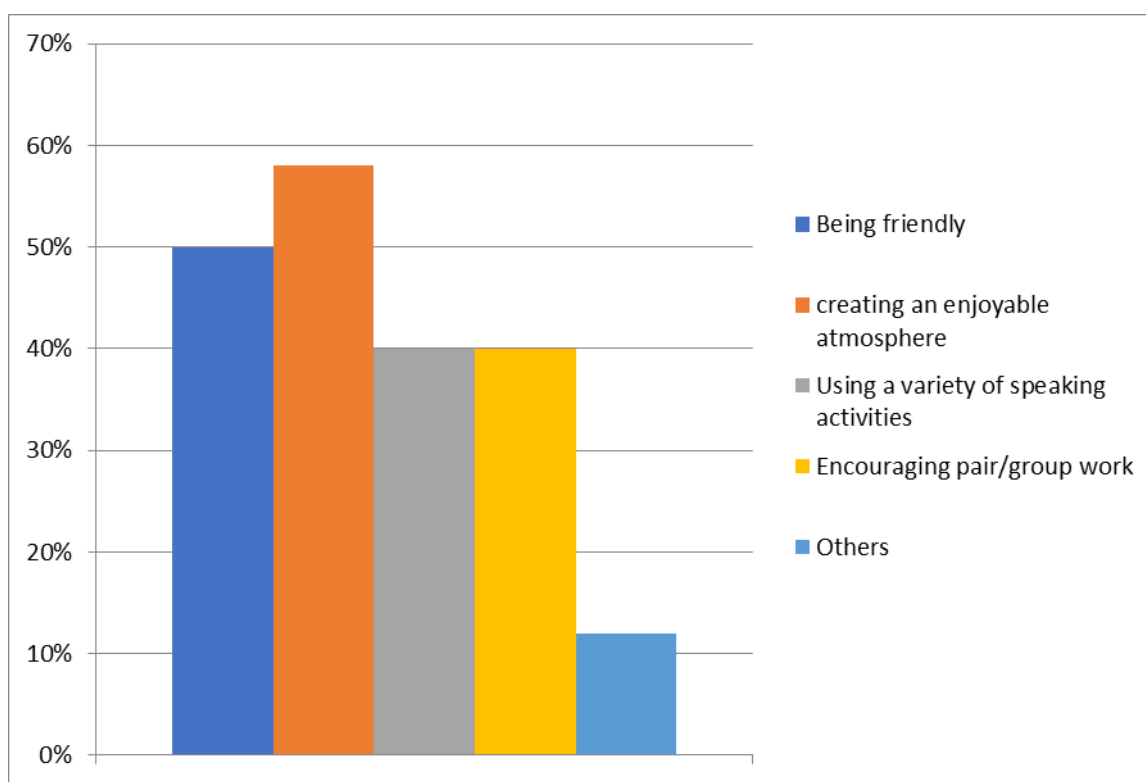
Figure 26: Students' Expectations from Teachers to Help them Overcome their Speaking Anxiety

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This question was asked to elicit the students' expectations from their teacher to help them overcome their speaking anxiety. As Table 19 exposes, 58% of the participants wanted their teacher to create an enjoyable and relaxing atmosphere for them. Similarly, 50% expected him to be friendly. Besides, 40% thought it better for the teacher to use a variety of speaking activities. The same percentage was registered among those who encourage group work. In parallel, only 12% supposed other expectations from the teacher.

3.3.2. The Pre-study MFLCAS Questionnaire, (Horwitz, et al, 1986)

Table 25: Students' Responses on MFLCS Questionnaire (Horwitz 1986 et al) Based on Percentage

Statements	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.	50%	22%	¨28%
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	32%	18%	¨50%
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.	64%	8%	28%
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	54%	20%	26%
5. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	¨52%	20%	28%
6. I am usually at ease during tests in my English language class.	36%	26%	38%
7. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	56%	20%	24%
8. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.	62%	22%	16%
9. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	68%	8%	24%
10. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	34%	22%	44%

11. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.	42%	22%	36%
12. I often feel like not going to my English class.	44%	16%	40%
13. I feel confident when I speak in a foreign language class.	52%	26%	22
14. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	36%	20%	44%
15. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.	62%	20%	18%
16. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	50%	20%	30%
17. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.	22%	18%	60%
18. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	42%	24%	34%
19. When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	54%	30%	16%
20. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	58%	18%	24%
21. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	26%	14%	60%
22. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions that I haven't prepared in advance.	50%	24%	26%

As the above table demonstrates, a large number of participants admitted that they experience speaking anxiety in the English classroom. Indeed, half of them (50%) agreed on the statement '*I never feel quite sure of myself when I am in my English class*" (item 1). Similarly, more than half of the participants agreed that they get nervous and confused when communicating in the English classroom.

Fear of negative evaluation may render students less enthusiastic to speak in the FL classroom. The majority of the participants confessed that they worry about making mistakes in the English classroom. This is well illustrated when 50% of the participants disagreed on the statement "*I don't worry about making mistakes in the English classroom"* (item 2) and agreed on the statement "*I get nervous when the teacher asks*

questions which I have not prepared in advance" (item22). Significantly, however, a considerable number of participants (44%) disagreed on the statement "*I'm afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make*" (item 14). This reflects, in fact, the students' awareness of the significance of error correction; though they may differ in the manner they prefer to be corrected.

Furthermore, testing the students' speaking skills in a foreign language may evoke their anxiety. Actually, by looking at Table 8, it is clear that a great number of participants admitted that they experience test anxiety in the English language. This is well demonstrated when 62% of the participants agreed on the statement "*I worry about the consequences of failing my English class*" (item 8). Moreover, table 8 shows also how most of the participants agreed on feeling nervous and frustrated during tests regardless of whether or not they prepared for them (item3, 6, 9, 11, 12, 15, 17).

It is worth highlighting that the other items listed in the *MFLCAS questionnaire (Horwitz, et al 1986)* were related to general class anxiety, preparation, and learners' competitive attitudes. Most of the participants agreed that they feel tense and uneasy when they speak without preparation (item 7). What is more, almost half of the participants asserted that they get annoyed when they find out that their peers speak better than they do (items 5, 16). Notwithstanding, 26% of the participants provided neutral answers on whether or not they feel confident when speaking, and at ease during tests (item 13, 6).

In short, the participant's responses to the *MFLCAS (Horwitz, et al 1986) questionnaire* revealed that anxiety influences the learners' eagerness to participate in classroom speaking activities. The responses showed also that fear of negative evaluation, apprehension towards tests and the need to be prepared all the time when attending the speaking class are the major concerns that affect the students' capability to communicate in the English classroom.

3.3.3. The Pre-study Classroom Observation

To cross-validate the data obtained using the students' questionnaires, a classroom observation was conducted by the researcher during the first semester of the academic year (2018-2019). This qualitative data collection tool attempted to determine students' behaviours indicative of FLCSA during the Oral Expression session. In doing so, the

researcher relied on a classroom observation checklist. This could serve to report any sign of FLCSA that her students might display in the speaking classroom.

Significantly, however, as part of her teaching speaking procedure, the teacher/researcher used to write the speaking topic on the board and ask the students to think about it for ten minutes before the discussion is launched. After that, she asked them to express their opinions individually one after the other. Concerning the seating arrangement, a traditional one was utilized.

Notably, while the students were given time to think and reflect on the topic, the teacher/ researcher could notice the majority of her student participants resorting to a piece of paper to write what they were going to say on it. Only a minority of them, however, started thinking about the topic without writing their ideas. They looked calm, certain, and relaxed, and watched occasionally the teacher/researcher, anticipating her to give them the floor. Essentially, when the time allotted to thinking was over, the teacher/ researcher requested her students to start discussing the topic. At this particular moment, the teacher/ researcher noticed two categories of students. The first category, which constituted the minority of the class, maintained good eye- contact with the teacher/ researcher. They revealed willingness to volunteer answers and remarkable comfort and easiness while responding to the questions. When they started speaking, they did not look down at a paper. They also displayed a relaxed posture. This finding is congruent with Greegerson's (2007) study which confirmed that non-anxious learners lean somewhat forward and maintain a relaxed and open body position. In addition, these participants used a strong loud voice and smiled and laughed naturally whenever necessary. These were rated as non-anxious participants. The second category, however, which represented the majority of the class, resorted to silence. Despite the teacher's/researcher's efforts to prompt them, they remained hesitant throughout. This has already been approved by Horwitz et al. (1986) who argued that anxious students lack the desire to take part in in-class activities or volunteer answers.

Notwithstanding, silence was not the only symptom of anxiety that the researcher detected. When pointing at them to speak, the researcher could identify various reactions and anxiety-related behaviours from the anxious student participants. To begin with, one of the anxious participants made several pauses while speaking. He tried hard to recall his forgotten words.

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In addition, he wrinkled his nose and smiled a lot. Similar findings were already highlighted by Greegerson (2005) who stated,

> In general, the few movements made by the anxious individuals in this study consisted primarily of nose wrinkling when searching for words. Otherwise, tense facial muscles precluded any other type of facial expression, including smiling. (p. 391)

Furthermore, a second participant refused altogether to speak when called by the teacher/researcher. However, when the latter insisted on her, she replied simply "*I do not know*". Notably, however, when the speaking session was over, this student participant explained to the teacher/researcher the reasons for her avoidance behaviour. She said," *I like English. I have good ideas about the topic too. Yet, I cannot speak English in front of my classmates because they may laugh at me"*. Essentially, this student's negative affective state highlights her care about social image and her concern with her peers' attitudes towards her speaking performance. Another source of her grievance and fear of negative evaluation lies in her belief that she should produce error-free utterances. This finding seems consistent with Greegerson's (2002) proposal that anxious learners tend to focus on form rather than on content. This is why the majority of them prefer to remain silent than produce an erroneous utterance.

Importantly, as a way to escape the speaking assignment, another anxious participant hid behind her classmate. Yet when the teacher/researcher pointed at her to speak, she started stuttering and repeating her words. She used very limited eye contact with the teacher and her voice was distorted as well. Indeed, this student suffers from high-level anxiety that affected negatively her speaking performance. Such anxiety stems from two factors that can be classified as linguistic and non-linguistic. Under the linguistic factor, this participant was anxious about making mistakes and worried about the negative feedback that her teacher would make on her grammatically flawed utterances. On the other hand, the non-linguistic factors constitute her failure to speak English in public, that is in front of the teacher and her peers. This finding is in agreement with Amiri and Putch (2018) who carried out English-speaking anxiety research on a group of international students enrolled in several Malaysian universities.

They found out that students' anxiety was due to insufficient linguistic competency, and inadequate knowledge of the speaking topic, in addition to other factors such as the participants' low self-confidence.

It should be noted that some anxious participants resorted to procrastination on speaking assignments. For instance, one of the students replied "*Ask me later please*", when the teacher pointed at her to speak. Through such behaviour, this student wanted to be given extra time to think more about the topic and organize her ideas before she spells them out. Interestingly, some of the anxious participants blushed when it was their turn to speak. These were the shy participants who suffered also from communication apprehension, especially in front of the teacher and peers. Another sign of anxiety that the researcher could signal among the anxious participants was nervous laughter. Indeed, one of the male participants used to laugh nervously whenever it was his turn to speak. The teacher/researcher could notice that his laugh was not natural, but an artificial one. It served to hide his negative affect in front of the class.

3.4. Discussion

The purpose of this first stage of the study is to provide an answer to the first research question. In other words, it aims to investigate whether FLCSA exists among second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University and to identify its main sources and manifestations, along with the strategies that the student participants employ to overcome it. Therefore, this section is devoted to the discussion of the main findings obtained, using the student background questionnaire, the MFLCAS questionnaire (Horwitz et et.al 1986), and the classroom observation respectively.

The students' questionnaire findings showed that second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University experience FLCSA during their Oral Expression class *(item 8)*. In fact, a large majority of them (78%) confessed that they find speaking the most stressful language skill (item 3). Regarding the items they endorse as sources of their anxiety, they resemble the three variables identified by Horwitz et al. (1986), namely, *communication apprehension*, *fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety*. Essentially, this experienced speaking anxiety derives from two factors that can be classified as linguistic and non-linguistic

(Item 10). Under the linguistic factors, the participants admitted as well that their apprehension was due to their unfamiliarity with the speaking topic and their communication apprehension and their lack of sufficient vocabulary.

These findings are consistent with that of Liu (2007) whose participants affirmed that lack of vocabulary was a major cause of their anxiety in English conversation classes. A feasible explanation for this is that students cannot understand others or convey their ideas without sufficient lexical repertoire. This is true for Wilkins (1972) who argued that "… while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed" (pp. 111-112). Indeed, individuals can imagine themselves experiencing various languages; even without grammar, with a few useful words and expressions, they can manage to communicate. In the same line of thought, Schmitt (2010) also contended that "learners carry around dictionaries and not grammar books" (p.4). Therefore, vocabulary plays a key role to enable students to use English and communicate with others.

Under the nonlinguistic factors, however, the participants admitted that their anxiety was caused by their fear of speaking in public, i.e., in front of a teacher who may embarrass them with his/her negative comments and peers who may mock their spoken errors. Their apprehension was also due to their lack of self-confidence. Though this constituted a minor source according to the participants' reported findings (18%), the lack of self-confidence or self-perception still constitutes a major barrier that prevents the students from overcoming their speaking anxiety and enhancing their speaking skills. This was confirmed by Piechursha-Kuciel (2015) who argued that students who estimate their language capabilities at high levels tend to engage in communicative activities confidently and successfully. Yet students who are dominated by perfectionist tendencies and negative self-thoughts tend to remain hesitant in their speaking classroom. This was confirmed by most participants ((70%) of this study who reported that they feel more anxious when comparing themselves with their other classmates (item12).

Furthermore, a considerable number of participants (44%) in this study reported that their anxiety was caused by their fear of making mistakes. Such fear derives basically, from their sensitivity to their instructors' corrective feedback. This finding is congruent with Ohta (2005) who confirmed that fear of negative evaluation was a source of language anxiety for Japanese ESL college learners. Likewise, Mak's study (2011) indicated that fear of negative evaluation caused speaking among Chinese ESL university students. Zhiping

and Paramasivam's study (2013) also revealed that fear of negative evaluation and communication contributed to classroom speaking anxiety of EFL international postgraduate students of a Malaysian university.

Additionally, the majority of the student participants reported that their speaking anxiety is also evoked by some specific topics mainly those related to politics, history, religion, and science. Such topics are unfamiliar ones; hence they are boring and demotivating for them. This is in line with Amiri and Putch (2018) whose participants were anxious due to many factors among them the insufficient knowledge of the topic being presented.

The last part of the questionnaire was concerned with the learning and teaching strategies that the participants consider useful to cope with their FLCA. In fact, the majority of the participants (54%) confirmed that their speaking anxiety can be better alleviated with more preparation and practice. Indeed, when students are granted time to think and prepare before they are called to speak, they succeed to boost their self-confidence and overcome their worries, especially when required to speak in front of others.

In the same way, a considerable number of participants (48%) admitted that they should encourage themselves to take risks in the speaking classroom. In other terms, they should bear in mind that no one can learn without making mistakes. On the contrary, they can learn when they make mistakes. So, they should encourage themselves to feel safe taking risks and pushing the boundaries of what they know or think they know. Furthermore, the participants believed also in the effectiveness of building their self-confidence which enables them to dismiss any negative thought that may belittle their linguistic abilities (item 17).

Regarding classroom interventions, however, the questionnaire participants expected their instructor to employ specific activities that could/would help them overcome their worries when speaking English in the classroom. Among the activities that the findings revealed, were group discussions. Indeed, the majority of the participants mentioned that during group discussions, they feel relaxed, secure, and more comfortable. As they share the speaking task with their classmates, less attention is focused on them. One of the questionnaire participants argued, "*Group discussion makes me feel more secure and*

confident as I'm not the only one concerned by the speaking task". Actually, key researchers who are often cited in group discussions are Larkin and Pines (2003). They contend that group discussion is so useful teaching strategy, especially with learners who show avoidance behaviour. While working in groups, these learners can feel more secure, therefore, they overcome their fears and embarrassment.

What is more, language games were also among the highly scored items in the student questionnaire. Essentially, a great number of participants agreed on the effectiveness of language games in the reduction of their FLCSA. According to them, games are enjoyable and exciting. They permit them to relax and have fun. Subsequently, this makes them more motivated and eager to take part in speaking activities. The findings of this study are parallel with the related literature**.** Bartle (2004) for instance affirmed that individuals play games because they favour having fun. Likewise, Gee (2007) pointed out that pleasure cannot be detached from profound learning and working hard. This may validate the first research hypothesis.

Furthermore, the data collected from the MFLCAS questionnaire (Horwitz et al.1986), which was addressed to the same participants who completed the student background questionnaire, displayed that a great number of students experienced FLCSAS. This figures prominently when 50% of the MFLCAS questionnaire respondents reported that they felt anxious when required to speak in class. The students reported as well that their anxiety was evoked in situations such as being called by the teacher to respond individually, in formal discussions, and oral tests. What is more, many reasons led students to experience speaking anxiety in the aforementioned situations. In other words, the large majority were anxious due to the direct questions asked by the teacher requiring them to respond individually, their lack of linguistic competence, in addition to the teacher's direct corrections of their errors. Comparing oneself with the other mates was also another significant reason that evoked the students' speaking anxiety and drove them into paralysis in their speaking performance. All these findings are complemented and seem to be congruent with the ones obtained using the students' questionnaire.

Concerning the classroom observation conducted in this study, its findings revealed that the second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University experienced FLCSA. Indeed, as mentioned earlier, the participants manifested several physical and behavioural symptoms that indicated their struggle with anxiety in their English-speaking classroom. In this respect, Horwitz et al. (1986, p.126) confirm that "subjective feelings psycho-

physiological symptoms and behavioural responses of the anxious foreign language learner is essentially the same as for much specific anxiety". The signs were noticed in situations that were specific to foreign language learning such as *speaking with the instructor in front of peers, while having formal discussions*, etc. Besides, speaking anxiety was due to a set of factors: some of *them* "are associated with the learner, some with the teacher, and some with the instructional practice*"* (Young, 1991, p.427). In other words, the instructors tend to urge their students to speak by asking them direct questions, without even granting them to think and prepare. Then, the severe way of correcting students either embarrassed them so that they stopped speaking, or escaped from the speaking situation completely "A harsh manner of correcting student errors is often cited as provoking anxiety" (Young, 1991. p. 428-429). Students lacked sufficient linguistic competence in the English language, they lacked preparation and practice, teased each other, and competed with each other. All these causes were associated with the student participants and were reported through the findings of the three previously mentioned research tools.

3.5 Conclusion

The present chapter was devoted to the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data obtained through three distinct research instruments. The analysis of the students' questionnaire, the MFLCAS questionnaire (Horwitz et al., 1986), and the classroom observation (data triangulation) displayed that second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University experienced FLCSA when speaking in the Oral Expression class. Concerning the sources of their speaking anxiety, the findings revealed that the participants' anxiety was due to *communication apprehension* (CA), *fear of negative evaluation* (FNE), and *test anxiety* (TA). Concerning the symptoms of anxiety, the participants revealed many behaviours indicative of speaking anxiety which is related to the literature. Finally, the findings confirm the hypotheses suggested by the researcher previously.

Chapter Four

Implementing Teaching Strategies to Cope with Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

Chapter Four: Implementing Teaching Strategies to Cope with Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

4.1. Introduction

This chapter represents the second stage of the study. It discusses the methods of data collection instruments in the same study background. It attempts to respond to the second research question. For this purpose, four research tools were employed: a teacher interview, a post-study student classroom observation, a post-study Horwitz et al's (1986) MFLCAS, and a post-study student interview. The teacher interview intended to collect data about the teacher participants' insights into FLCSA and their attitudes towards coping with it. The post-study student classroom observation, the post-study Horwitz et al's (1986) MFLCAS, and the post-study student interview were conducted to check whether the application of the anxiety-coping teaching strategies was useful in handling FLCSA of second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University. To end, some limitations and recommendations are provided for more inquiries in the field of FLCSA, FL speaking instruction, and anxiety coping strategies.

4.2. Research Design

This research is conducted to investigate the effectiveness of anxiety-reducing teaching strategies in coping with the second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University. To collect data about the present study's research question, a mixed-method approach has been utilized. This consists of an interview directed to EFL teachers, a post-study classroom observation, a post-study student MFLCAS questionnaire (Horwitz et al, 1986), and the post-study student interview.

To achieve such inquiry, the researcher aimed, in this second stage of the study, to obtain answers to the following research question:

➢ How far is the implementation of anxiety-coping teaching strategies effective in coping with the FLCSA of second-year EFL students at Mostaganem University?

Based on the above-mentioned research question, the researcher set the subsequent hypothesis:

➢ Implementing the anxiety-coping teaching strategies might be effective in alleviating second-year EFL students' in-class speaking anxiety.

Chapter Four: Implementing Teaching Strategies to Cope with Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

4.2.1. Participants

Both students and teachers participated in this study. Concerning the student participants, they were 50 second-year EFL students, who already took part in the first stage of the study (see section 2.1). They were all enrolled in the English department at Abdelhamid University of Mostaganem during the academic year (2018-2019). They were selected purposefully once again to examine whether the application of anxiety-coping teaching strategies was effective in overcoming the student participants' in-class speaking anxiety. Specifically, all the participants responded to the post-study Horwitz et al's (1986) MFLCAS and received a post-study classroom observation. Additionally, seven highly anxious students, among them, were further interviewed.

Regarding the teacher participants, however, they constituted fifteen EFL teachers from two universities in Algeria. Eight teachers were from the University of Mostaganem and seven were from the University of Tiaret. The purpose of such selection was to enlarge the scope of the investigation and obtain consistent data. The participants were informed clearly of the aim of the study and their consent was sought for the accomplishment of the study. All the participants were full-time EFL teachers, varying from full professors to instructors. Their teaching experience ranged between five to forty years. Though none of them was a specialist in teaching speaking, they possessed significant experience in teaching Oral Expression in their respective English departments. This is why they were purposefully selected for the interview.

4.2.2. Data Collection Tools

As already mentioned, this study involved two stages. In the first stage, data was collected about the student participants' experience of FLCSA before the implementation of anxiety-coping strategies (see section 3.2). The second stage of the study, however, was conducted to verify whether the application of anxiety-coping teaching strategies was effective to handle the student participants' in-class speaking anxiety. Hence, a mixed methods approach, whereby both qualitative and quantitive research tools were utilized. These involved: a teacher interview, a post-study classroom observation, a post-study student MFLCAS questionnaire (Horwitz et al, (1986), and a post-study student interview.

4.2.2.1. Teacher Interview

The interview is one of the significant data collection instruments. Up to Ary, D. et al. (2006),

> Interviews are used to gather data from people about opinions, beliefs, and feelings about situations in their own words. They are used to help understand the experiences people have and the meaning they make of them rather than to test hypotheses. Interviews may provide information that cannot be obtained through observation, or they can be used to verify observations (p.438).

Significantly, interviews can be structured, unstructured, or semi-structured. The structured interview relies on a set of standardized questions elaborated on before the interview. It is designed to gather given data from the respondents who are asked identical questions, though the length of their responses may vary. Besides, qualitative structured interviews differ from quantitative structured interviews. In the qualitative interview, the set of questions is usually shorter and most questions can be answered with a simple yes/no or few words. Notably, in between the structured and unstructured interview lies the semi- or partially-structured interview. In such a type, the interviewer formulates questions but he may change them as the interview progresses (Ary, D. et al. 2006).

The current study involves a structured qualitative interview. It consists of ten questions divided into three sections. Section one is composed of two questions (items 1, 2). It attempts to gather data about the respondents' experience, especially in teaching speaking. Section two, which involves open and open-ended questions (item 3.4.5.6.7.8.), aims at collecting data about teachers' perceptions of FLSCA, its causes, and its effects. It also investigates the type of activities they use in the speaking classroom, in addition to the type of error correction they provide. Section three (items 9, 10), however, deals with the way teachers handle FLCSA. This section aims at examining whether EFL teachers use any strategies to help students cope with their in-class speaking anxiety.

4.2.2.2. The Post-study Student Classroom Observation

This post-study observation was conducted by the teacher/researcher to verify whether the implementation of anxiety-coping teaching strategies was effective in overcoming the students' FLCSA. It involved the same student participants of the first stage of the study but with a focus on the anxious ones. Hence, exploiting the second-semester sessions of the Oral Expression module in the same academic year (2018-2019), the teacher/researcher applied four specific anxiety-coping teaching strategies.

The first was related to the teacher's personal characteristics and behaviours. It aimed to create a friendly and supportive atmosphere in the classroom. It involved a set of qualities such as the teacher being a friendly, humourous, patient and encouraging person. The second concerned error correction. It was based on the teacher's attitudes towards errors and error correction. The third consisted of the use of group work activities. The fourth was associated with the implementation of the turn-taking strategy. In other terms, by requiring the students to participate in turns, the teacher/researcher meant to provide them with more time for preparation and practice. Similarly, splitting them into groups aimed at enabling them to share ideas and feel confident when responding. Furthermore, regarding error correction, the teacher/researcher reconsidered her attitudes towards errors and error correction. That is instead of considering it as part of her classroom routine; she became more tolerant towards errors and provided indirect correction only when errors caused problems of intelligibility. Furthermore, the teacher/researcher tended also to provide positive reinforcement whenever she was satisfied with her student participants speaking performance.

Notably, to assure a systematic and persistent application of the already cited coping strategies, the teacher/researcher relied on an observation checklist in a form of a table of two columns. The first column was devoted to the strategy applied, while the second was allotted to the effect of the strategy on the students' affective states. It is noteworthy that such a checklist permitted the teacher/researcher to take field notes about her student-participants' emotional states on the spot, otherwise just after the session and before leaving the classroom. This prevented her from forgetting any significant detail while progressing in her research.

4.2.2.3. The Post-study MFLCAS Questionnaire (Horwitz et al.'s 1986)

As already cited, the same MFLCAS questionnaire used in the first stage of the study was utilized in the second stage. It addressed the same student participants who responded to the background questionnaire and the pre-study MFLCAS (Horwitz et al's 1986). It was utilized to verify whether the application of the anxiety-coping teaching strategies was fruitful in handling the student participants' FLCSA.

4.2.2.2.4. The post-study Student Interview

To cross-validate the data obtained using the above-cited research tools, the researcher invited seven students to respond to the interview. These students were purposefully selected as they demonstrated significantly lower anxiety levels in the second stage of the study compared to the first one. The post-study student interview comprised four questions. Question 1 aims at inquiring about the teacher's personal characteristics that helped them overcome their FL speaking anxiety. Questions 2 and 3 investigate whether the implementation of turn-taking and group work strategies helped them handle their FLCSA respectively. Question 4, however, attempts to collect data about the effectiveness of using indirect correction in handling the students' FLCSA. (. (See Appendix D)

4.3. Data Analysis and Findings

As previously noted, the data collection of this second stage of the study occurred in the second semester of the academic year (2018-2019). It was during this period that the researcher implemented the aforementioned anxiety-reduction teaching strategies on her student participants to verify their effectiveness. The research relied on four research tools: a teachers' interview, a post-study students' classroom observation, a post-study Horwitz et al's (1986) MFLCAS, and a post-study student interview. The aim of using such a mixed-method approach was to add more validity and credibility to the research work.

4.3.1. The Teacher Interview

Question 3**:** What is, according to you, foreign language speaking anxiety FLCSA? Does it have a positive or negative influence on students' achievements? Explain.

This question aimed to investigate the teachers' perceptions of FLCSA and their attitudes toward its effects on students' achievement. From the gathered answers, all teacher participants agreed that FLCSA is the feeling of fear and unease that students experience while learning or using a foreign language. Similarly, almost all of them confirmed the negative impact of FLCSA on students' achievement. One participant expounded that "*it refers to students' worry nervousness, and insecurity when speaking in a foreign language*". When asked about its impact, this participant replied "*It is only*

negative. It is a real hindrance to students' advance in learning". However, only two among the fifteen participants believed that FLCSA can be positive with few students. To illustrate, the first claimed, *"It has a positive influence on students in a way that it encourages them to improve their level. This happens with a small number of serious students*". While the second replied by saying, *"It depends on the students and how they think. If the students surrender to their anxiety, it can be really devastating, however, if they use it as a motif to push back to make themselves stronger, and less embarrassed, I think it can be positive"*. Actually, the negative effects of FLA on students 'academic achievement were previously approved by many researchers (Horwitz et al 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner 1991; Aida, 1994). As added by one of the participants, *"Anxiety paralyzes learning"*. It represents a real obstacle to progress if not remedied by the teacher's constant encouragement and "students' motivation".

Question 4: What are, according to you, the causes of FLCSA?

The purpose of this question was to see if teachers are aware of the causes of the FLCSA. In this regard, the majority of the teacher participants confirmed that some psychological reasons such as lack of self-confidence and low self-esteem in addition to shyness are the major causes of students' FLCSA. Indeed, when one disbelieves in his abilities or is timid enough, this makes him worried and afraid and therefore unable to take part in classroom speaking activities. Besides, one participant attributed FLCSA to the student's prior hard life experiences. He said, "*Hard moments that students experienced during childhood and adolescence can trigger anxiety problems*". This is congruent with Sigmund Freud (1923) who believed that the events in one's childhood and adolescence contribute to shaping his personality. Lower levels of speaking proficiency, limited preparation, and practice were other reasons highlighted by the participants. The latter claimed that some students suffer from vocabulary shortages and little mastery of grammatical rules. Others are not used to expressing themselves orally in English as in their former education (middle and secondary school), they were tested in the written form only.

Besides, other students neglect practising English at home or with their peers outside the class. Furthermore, distress over making mistakes and fear of negative evaluation (FNA) were other prominent causes of FLCSA as highlighted by the participants. That is, according to them, some students feel very anxious about making mistakes, especially in front of their

teacher and peers. Their negative affective state becomes even worse when receiving correction. Though the aim behind feedback is to assist learners, feedback may not always be taken positively. In fact, any word used for correction can be regarded as negative and may hurt learners. Therefore, they may develop a feeling of fear of negative evaluation (FNA) which is a significant source of FLCSA.

Question 5**:** Do you think teachers have positive or negative effects on students' FLCSA? Why?

Throughout this question, the researcher intended to know whether teachers have a positive or negative impact on students' FLCSA. Actually, the large majority of the interviewed teachers claimed that teachers can have either positive or negative effects on students' FLCSA. This depends basically on their personal behaviour, teaching practices, and the coping strategies they employ to overcome their students' FLCSA. In other terms, in case teachers are friendly, outgoing, and tolerant towards spoken' errors, students will feel comfortable and more at ease. They will manage to handle their anxiety and enjoy taking part in classroom discussions. Therefore, their teacher's impact is positive. However, in case the teacher is authoritarian, manipulator, and intolerant towards errors by overcorrecting or scolding his students, the latter will feel more concerned, and paralyzed and their anxiety will increase. As an illustration, one of the teacher participants stated,

 "Teachers may be a great reason for students' anxiety. If they are pursuing them to be correct all the time, and if they are less tolerant of students' mistakes. The student will avoid answering or will be under great mental pressure to respond which causes anxiety. Students also do not like being judged, mocked, or belittled in front of peers. Thus, if teachers' practices were as such, students will be anxious all the time"

Interestingly, however, another participant thought that teachers usually exert a negative impact on students' speaking anxiety. In this regard, he said, "*generally speaking, teachers have negative effects on those anxious students, because they often associate such problems with behavioural rather than emotional difficulties*". In other words, up to this participant, some teachers focus their attention on the cognitive side of learning and ignore the affective one. Therefore, they regard students' anxiety as a negative behaviour to be blamed for rather than a significant emotional state to be taken

into account. In such a case, teachers contribute to breeding anxiety rather than overcoming it.

Question 6: Which speaking activities (individual/pair/group work) do you use in class? Which of them is comforting for your students?

This question was mainly asked to investigate the activities that the teachers implement in class and highlight the ones they consider the most comforting for their students. In this vein, almost all teachers stated that they utilize a variety of activities (individual/pair/group work). According to one teacher, the choice of activities depends on the students' learning styles and preferences. While some students prefer working alone, others favour working in groups. However, almost all the participants maintained that group work is the most comforting for students. According to them, during group work activities, students feel more relaxed, safe, and secure. Besides, when students work collaboratively, they have more opportunities to develop high-level thinking skills, to boost their self-confidence and self-esteem as well.

In contrast, the majority of the participants stated that individual activities are the most stressful for students. In this regard, one teacher participant stated, "*Out of my own modest experience, individual activities are the most to cause anxiety for students. Pair and group activities serve as a better choice offering students much more time to speak freely and comfortably. In fact, during such activities, students feel more relaxed*". Likewise, this was voiced by another participant assuming that "*individual activities are more anxiety-provoking than the rest because students feel the only responsible for their mistake*". Indeed, while collaborative learning permits learners to share responsibilities and create a better learning experience, individual activities are more stressful as they "*put more pressure on students who would be held on account for every detail*" as expounded by one of the participants.

Indeed, when working alone, students may feel isolated as they are deprived of the opportunity to learn from their peers. Furthermore, as not all of them are capable of working to their full potential, they may get bored and may run the risk of idling when involved in an individual activity.

Question 7: Do you correct your students' spoken errors? If yes, what type of corrections do you provide? Direct? or indirect?

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The purpose of this question was to see if teachers correct their students' spoken errors and spotlight the type of corrections they provide. In this respect, all the teacher participants admitted that they correct their students' spoken errors. Regarding the type of correction they offer, six teachers stated that they provide both types: direct and indirect. For them, this depends on the situation, the student's character, and the error itself. In this connection, one teacher said, "*Yes I do, but it depends on the case, the mistake, the topic, the focus, sometimes I focus on fluency so that I don't, and sometimes, I focus on accuracy and I correct them from time to time*". Seven teachers, however, confirmed that they use indirect correction. Up to them, correcting students directly undermines their self-confidence and lowers their motivation. This is especially true when teachers interrupt the students before they have finished speaking. In this connection; one teacher confirmed, "*I use indirect feedback in order not to inhibit students' participation*". Similarly, another teacher maintained that errors are a natural and unavoidable part of the learning process. That is why "*they should be dealt with in a subtle way...whenever errors are made by my students, I proceed by using what is called implicit feedback(recasts) which involves a reformulation of the student's erroneous utterance in a correct way.*"

In fact, only two participants among the teachers interviewed admitted their use of direct correction. One of them said," *I give direct correction, through strongly emphasizing the mistake*" According to such participants, ignoring or delaying error feedback is quite harmful as it inhibits learners from recognizing their errors and the correct form as well. Therefore, an immediate correction is more useful especially if provided in a non-harsh manner or left for the student to identify his own mistake (self-correction).

Question 8: Do you think the teachers' corrections cause FLCSA? If yes, what type of corrections? Why?

Deeply related to the previous one, this question intended to examine whether or not teachers' corrections contribute to FLCSA and identify the type of feedback that evokes students' FLCSA. Actually, a large majority of teachers admitted that the teacher's corrective feedback contributes to the students' FLCSA. In this conjuncture, one teacher stated, "Error correction can be a source of anxiety especially when it concerns oral skills. Systematic corrections of all errors can be discouraging and harmful to their enthusiasm, self-esteem, and confidence. Similarly, another teacher highlighted the other harmful effects of correction notably when it is done inappropriately. According

to this participant," *If the teacher yells or humiliates his learner, this will cause him anxiety and drives him to cease participating or attending class altogether*".

Furthermore, for most teachers, it is the direct correction that evokes students' FLCSA. In other terms, most FL learners are not aware of the purpose of corrective feedback in enhancing their language skills. On the contrary, they consider it as direct blame and humiliation, notably when interrupted to be directly corrected in front of their peers. Additionally, as speaking occurs in real-time, learners do not have enough time to compare their erroneous utterances with the provided feedback and to notice the gap in their oral performance. This will -in fact-raise the affective filter, provoke their anxiety and accordingly inhibit their FL learning. To prevent such negative effects of direct correction, one participant provided an alternative whereby he avoids direct correction and provides feedback after the class session. *He claimed, "I correct their mistakes after the session is done by taking notes. I jot down all the errors they do and then comfort each one of them individually…"*

Question 9: How do you usually deal with anxious students in your classroom?

Via this question, the researcher intended to know the way teachers deal with their anxious students in the speaking classroom. Actually, most teachers agreed that they try always to encourage their anxious students to take it easy and express themselves freely without worrying about mistakes. They said that it is also important to give students enough time to prepare and gather their thoughts before speaking. Furthermore, they stressed the necessity to avoid overcorrection and to resort to indirect correction only when required. Some teachers integrated anxious students within group work activities to share responsibilities and feel more comfortable. Additionally, another teacher stated that he helps anxious students overcome their fears by providing them with an adequate classroom atmosphere. He specified, *"I generally try to create the appropriate environment that is conducive to learning, for instance, to avoid nerve-racking, I turn around and share answers with pairs instead of the whole class. I provide cool-down moments so that stress and anxiety can be broken down"*. Indeed, this research seeks to end up with some strategies for teachers to enhance their FL speaking skills and help students overcome their FLCSA in the FL classroom. This is well demonstrated in the following question:

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Question 10: What kind of strategies should teachers use to reduce students' anxiety in the FL-speaking classroom?

The purpose of this question was to disclose other strategies that participants think they should employ to help students cope with their FLCSA. In fact, the participants proposed a variety of anxiety-coping teaching strategies. One among these is creating a safe and secure atmosphere in the FL classroom. This can be achieved by building a good rapport with students. In other words, teachers should be friendly, permit students to express themselves freely and tolerate their mistakes as they are a natural part of the learning process. Another strategy is to employ pair and group work. This will allow students to share responsibilities and boost their self-confidence. Furthermore, according to one participant, providing students with positive reinforcement is so significant in raising their motivation and self-esteem. Moreover, another participant stressed the significance of granting students adequate time for preparation and practice. Indeed, these were the main strategies that the participants proposed to make students feel at ease while interacting in the foreign language-speaking classroom.

4.3.2. The Post-study Classroom Observation

To confirm the subsequent data gained via the post-study student MFLCAS Questionnaire, (Horwitz, et al, 1986) and the student post-study interview, the teacher/researcher conducted a post-study classroom observation during the second semester of the academic year (2018-2019). Involving the same participants of the first stage of the study, this qualitative instrument focused on anxious students and was meant to verify if the anxiety-coping teaching strategies were effective in alleviating the student participants' FLCSA. As already cited, the teacher/ researcher utilized an observation checklist. This enabled her to take notes about the effects of each of the aforementioned strategies on the students' affective states.

As previously stated, during the pre-study stage, the teacher/researcher taught her students without strategies. She used to provide them with a speaking topic at the start of each session and ask them to reflect on it individually for a short time before the start of the debate. When no one volunteered answers, she pointed out at some to say something even if

they were not ready to say it. Moreover, when anyone of them committed an error, she used to interrupt them to provide a direct correction. Besides, when the students showed a good performance, she nodded at them wordlessly. Actually, except for a few ones, the majority of the students looked worried and showed an anxious posture and a great deal of silence and hesitation to volunteer answers. However, when applying the coping strategies, the teacher/researcher noticed a considerable change in the behaviour of the anxious students.

Essentially, throughout the post-study sessions, the teacher/researcher maintained a good rapport with the students. At the outset of each speaking session, she greeted them with a smiling face before introducing the topic for discussion. Moreover, unlike previously when students were required to work individually, she integrated collaborative learning whereby the participants were requested to split into groups of four or five before completing any speaking task. Furthermore, the teacher/researcher turned into a friendly, humorous, patient and encouraging person who provided positive reinforcement whenever satisfied with the students' speaking performance.

Specifically, when being friendly with her students, the teacher/researcher managed to create a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere. This enabled them to feel inspired to participate in oral tasks without worrying about being negatively evaluated. Indeed, by applying this strategy, the teacher/researcher noticed that the students became more relaxed and managed to overcome their FLCSA. In fact, a similar study was conducted by Young (1990) whose findings indicated that by creating a friendly and relaxing atmosphere, FL learners would manage to handle their FL speaking anxiety, especially when speaking in front of an audience.

Furthermore, the use of humour was meant to cheer up all students, notably the anxious ones. By implementing this strategy, the teacher/researcher managed to spread joy among students and handle the apprehension of the anxious ones. Indeed, the teacher's humour was acknowledged to reduce students' speaking anxiety by many researchers. According to Wanger & Urios-Aparisi (2008), the teacher's humour not only reduces the students' tension but also stimulates their desire to take part in speaking activities by creating a comforting classroom environment.

What is more, using humour in education has been shown to have both psychological and physiological impacts on learners. Psychologically, humour and

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laughter have been revealed to decrease anxiety, lower stress and boost self-esteem and raise motivation (Berk, 1996). Similarly, humour can act as a bridge between teachers and learners by showing a common understanding and a shared psychological tie (Glenn, 2002). Physiologically, humour and laughter assist learning through better respiration, bloodstream, reduced blood pressure, and more prominent oxygenation of blood (Berk1996).

Important to emphasize, however, humour should be used carefully as it may be counterproductive at times as well. In other terms, humour can either serve as a powerful means of communication or as a social barrier in pedagogical contexts (Garner, 2003). The use of humour can be problematic since it may be too personal, subjective, and context-dependent and one cannot constantly guess the way it will be interpreted. Indeed, something that one might perceive humorous or funny may be regarded by another as banal. Precisely, every person has his own perception as to what is humourous or funny. Therefore, educators should be cautious when implementing humour in the FL classroom. That is anything that mocks, ridicules or is too personal should be avoided. In this regard, Rhem (1998) affirmed that for humour to be effective in an educational setting, it must be precise, directed, and appropriate to the subject matter. Therefore teachers should increase their awareness of what is called appropriate humour to overcome their students'FLCSA and enhance the academic setting as a whole.

Additionally, the teacher/researcher showed also patience with students' silence and mistakes. Indeed, another effective strategy to cope with students'FLCSA is having a patient teacher in the classroom. This goes in line with AL Rabai (2015) who confirmed that patience is a significant personal quality to alleviate students' speaking anxiety. Indeed, as language educators affirm, it is unavoidable for students to make mistakes when attempting to express themselves orally in a language that is not their own. Thus, teachers should be tolerant of students' errors and provide them with indirect feedback only when their errors impede communication. Accordingly, the teacher/researcher avoided all sorts of direct corrections and resorted to recasts. For instance, in one of her sessions, she heard a student saying" *She like jogging in the morning*". However, she did not correct him directly, instead, she repeated "*Good. She likes jogging in the morning. Go ahead*". In this vein, this student realized his error and repeated the utterance correctly, and comfortably continued his speech.

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Furthermore, contrary to the first stage of the study whereby students were required to work individually, the teacher/researcher asked her students to work in small groups. In fact, this strategy helped in creating a cooperative atmosphere in the classroom. It reduced the students' fears and raised their level of participation and enjoyment throughout the speaking session. This finding is congruent with that of Alshehri (2012) and Young (1990) who found that permitting students to work in pairs or small groups assists them to handle their FL-speaking anxiety. For them, collaborative learning makes them feel safe, secure and encourages them to take part in classroom discussions with a lot of confidence.

More importantly, in addition to indirect correction and group work, the teacher /researcher applied also turn-taking. In its broad sense, turn-taking refers to a manner of conversation whereby interlocutors speak one at a time in alternating turns. Besides, a turn is a time when a speaker is talking. However, turn-taking is the skill of knowing when to initiate and end a turn in any given exchange. However, in the present study, turn-taking meant that all the student participants were to participate in the classroom speaking activities by taking long turns. In other terms, to assure the effectiveness of this strategy, the teacher/researcher used to acquaint them with the speaking topic at the end of each meeting and inform them that she will listen to every one of them one by one in the coming session. Actually, by knowing the topic in advance, the participants had enough time to prepare and practice before coming to class. Accordingly, the teacher/researcher could notice the effectiveness of this strategy in overcoming the speaking anxiety of most anxious students except for those who came to class unprepared.

Finally, by comparing the students' affective states in the first and second stages of the study, the teacher/researcher noticed that the participants became more confident and felt at ease while interacting in the FL- speaking classroom. This confirms that the application of the coping strategies was quite effective in handling their speaking anxiety.

4.3.3. The Post-study MFLCAS Questionnaire, (Horwitz, et al, 1986)

Table 26:Students'Responses on the Post-study MFLCAS

Statements	Pre-study			Post-study		
	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.	50%	22%	¨28%	20%	28%	52%
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	32%	18%	¨50%	56%	16%	28%
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.	64%	8%	28%	34%	18%	48%
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	54%	20%	26%	38%	14%	48%
5. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	¨52%	20%	28%	28%	20%	52%
6. I am usually at ease during tests in my English language class.	36%	26%	38%	44%	38%	18%
7. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	56%	20%	24%	42%	24%	34%
8. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.	62%	22%	16%	54%	6%	40%
9. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	68%	8%	24%	60%	8%	32%

10. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	34%	22%	44%	40%	14%	46%
11. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it	42%	22%	36%	40%	20%	40%
12. I often feel like not going to my English class.	44%	16%	40%	16%	20%	64%
13. I feel confident when I speak in a foreign language class.	52%	26%	22%	62%	26%	12%
14. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	36%	20%	44%	28%	10%	62%
15. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.	62%	20%	18%	40%	16%	44%
16. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	50%	20%	30%	30%	14%	56%
17. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.	22%	18%	60%	16%	14%	70%
18. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	42%	24%	34%	22%	16%	62%
19. When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	54%	30%	16%	66%	18%	16%
20. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	58%	18%	24%	42%	12%	46%

21. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	26%	14%	60%	16%	10%	74%
22. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions that I haven't prepared in advance.	50%	24%	26%	46%	16%	38%

As already stated, the same student participants of the first stage of the study were invited again to complete the post-study MFLCAS Questionnaire, (Horwitz, et al, 1986). The re-use of this instrument was meant to compare the participants' anxiety levels before and after the implementation of the teacher/researcher's coping strategies and in the meantime check whether these strategies were effective in overcoming the students'FLCSA. Actually, as the above table displays, the participants reported a significant decrease in anxiety levels.

Specifically, unlike stage I in which 50% of the participants agreed on the statement '*I never feel quite sure of myself when I am in my English class*" (item1), only 20% of them agreed on it in stages. Besides, while only 32% of the participants agreed on the statement "*I don't worry about making mistakes in the English classroom*" (item 2) in stage I, 56% of them agreed on it in stage II. Similarly, in contrast to stage I whereby 44% of the scale respondents disagreed on the statement "*I'm afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make*" (item 14), the majority of them (62%) disagreed on the same statement in stage II. This indicated the students' satisfaction and appreciation of the teacher's positive attitudes to errors and the effectiveness of the use of indirect feedback.

What is more, the teacher/researcher's strategies proved their efficiency also with the students' test anxiety. To illustrate, while only 16% of the participants in Stage I disagreed on the statement "*I worry about the consequences of failing my English class*", 40% of them disagreed on it in Stage II. Additionally, this table shows also that a remarkable number of participants managed to cope with their nervousness and frustration during tests and speaking sessions as well. Precisely, it is worth citing that students' anxiety slightly decreased in items 6, 9, 11, 17. However, it dramatically decreased in items 12, 15. as displayed in the table above.

Additionally, regarding the students' apprehension about being unprepared before speaking, it witnessed a slight decrease in stage II compared to stage I. Essentially, from 56%, the score fell to 42% (item 7). However, regarding the students' frustration resulting from their competitive attitudes, the findings changed dramatically (item5,16).

In brief, the participants' answers to the post-study MFLCAS Questionnaire (Horwitz, et al, 1986) disclosed that their level of anxiety decreased significantly in stage II in contrast to stage I. This indicates that the teacher/researcher's coping strategies were efficient in helping the students overcome their FLCSA.

4.3.4. The Post-study Student Interview

Question 1: What were your teacher's personal characteristics or behaviours that helped you overcome your foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA)?

Throughout this question, the researcher intended to know the teachers' qualities and behaviours that students found helpful in overcoming their FLCSA. From the gathered answers, the participants identified many qualities. To begin with, they appreciated the fact that their teacher was friendly, helpful, humorous and a smiling person. In this vein, one participant stated *"Our teacher is lively, friendly and calm. The fact that she smiles a lot provides us with a positive energy and makes us ready and comfortable"*. For them, these qualities made them interested, focused and more motivated to speak. As another participant expounded, "*My teacher's smile is crucial. It helped me talk and interact more"*.

Furthermore, the participants mentioned also the benefits of receiving constant praise and positive reinforcement from their instructor. In this respect, one participant said *"The teacher's use of positive reinforcement helped me overcome my anxiety and made me more comfortable while speaking"*. Indeed, the participants appreciated the fact that their teacher was an encouraging person who motivated them and tolerated their spoken errors. In this regard, one participant illustrated, "*I like the teacher when she encourages us when we talk and tolerates mistakes"*. In the same way, another participant highlighted the significance of having "*a supportive teacher who provides me with some hints such as some words or expressions to continue when I am confused or lacking the right word»*.

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Indeed, up to the interview participants, the above-cited qualities are significant and contribute a lot to handling their speaking anxiety.

Question 2**:**   Do you think that taking turns in answering questions contributed to reducing your FLCSA?

The purpose of this question was to examine if the application of the turn-taking strategy was effective in reducing the students' FLCSA. Actually, a large number of the student participants expressed their appreciation of the turn-taking strategy. For them, speaking in turns provides them with sufficient time to prepare what they intended to say

and prevents them from working under pressure. In this connection, one participant contended, *"Turn-taking is an efficient tool. It offered us the opportunity to think carefully and organize our ideas before speaking"*. Likewise, the majority of the participants agreed that knowing one's turn encourages them to be more motivated to work hard as they know all of them will participate. In this vein, one participant stated, *"While waiting for my turn, I can think twice about what I am going to say. I also get inspired by my peers' opinions and learn from their mistakes as well. Therefore I feel relaxed and more at ease when it is my turn*".

However, only two participants out of the seven students interviewed expounded their dissatisfaction with this strategy. The first one said, "*Sometimes my peers, who go first, say all the ideas I had in mind. This puts me in a delicate situation whereby I find myself saying the same thing. That is why I get so frustrated"*. Similarly, according to the second one, it is better to participate as a volunteer than to wait for one's turn. In this respect, she said, " *I am always ready for unexpected situations in my speaking class. Waiting for my turn, however, is an exciting experience I do not like it"*.

Question 3: Did the use of group work during the second semester help you in overcoming your FLCSA?

This question aimed to examine whether the use of group work was an efficient strategy to alleviate the students' FLCSA. In fact, a large majority of the participants admitted that this strategy plays a significant role in overcoming their speaking anxiety. In other terms, when working together, the students could share their ideas with their mates and learn from their feedback. This made them feel at ease when speaking in front of the whole

class. As one participant illustrated, *" I feel well when sharing my ideas with my team. Also, when I see my peers speak in my group, I become more motivated."*

Moreover, as most participants indicated, group work provides them with a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere. That is, on one hand, the students will not feel like the only ones responsible for the speaking task. This makes them feel secure while working together. On the other hand, when students are split into groups, they become more acquainted with one another and hence feel comfortable and more at ease while speaking. Indeed, by using group work, *"learning will turn into an enjoyable experience"* as voiced by one of the participants.

Question 4: Do you think that the teacher's use of indirect correction (recasts) helped you speak more confidently in English?

This question was mainly asked to examine whether the teacher's use of indirect correction helped students speak more confidently in the English-speaking classroom. Actually, most participants affirmed the efficiency of the indirect corrective feedback in boosting their self-confidence and handling their speaking anxiety. In other words, when being corrected indirectly, the students could learn from their mistakes without being vexed or humiliated in front of their peers. In this respect, one student participant stated, *"The teacher's use of indirect feedback prevents me from being teased or laughed at by my mates"* .Similarly, this type of correction *"reduces my anxiety and pressure and makes me feel more confident while speaking",* as conveyed by another participant.

4.4. Discussion

As already cited, the aim of stage II of the study is to supply an answer to the second research question. In other terms, it intends to examine if the application of the anxiety-coping teaching strategies were effective in alleviating the student participants' FLCSA. Hence, this section is allocated to the discussion of the main research findings obtained by using the teacher interview, the Post-study Classroom Observation, the Post-study MFLCAS Questionnaire (Horwitz 1986 et al) and the post-study student interview.

The analysis of the teacher interview revealed that a great majority of the participants agreed on the negative effects of FLCSA on students' achievement. This is

congruent with Hill and Wigfield (1984) who carried out studies on test anxiety and achievement and stated that "anxiety and achievement share significant variance, so high test-anxious individuals have increased likelihood to perform poorly if a task is to be evaluated" (p.105). Similarly, Aida (1997) described anxious FL students as those who are prone to have lower performance than non-anxious students.

Furthermore, regarding the effects of teachers on students' FLCSA, most participants admitted that teachers play key roles in determining the level of students' speaking anxiety. This is congruent with Price(1991) who proposed that teachers contribute either to increasing or decreasing students' speaking anxiety in the FL classroom. Therefore, teachers should establish a positive atmosphere in the FL classroom. They should be friendly, outgoing, and tolerant of students' spoken mistakes. They should avoid direct and immediate correction in speaking activities. By doing so, the teachers will enable students to "feel comfortable taking risks because they know that they will not be embarrassed or criticized if they make a mistake" (Dornyei, 2001, p.41). Indeed direct and overcorrection will do more harm than good as it may undermine students' self-confidence and discourage them to take part in classroom speaking discussions (Lightbown and Spada,2006).

Additionally, teachers should utilize various strategies to help students manage their FLCSA. Some of these strategies concern their qualities and behaviour. Others are related to their classroom practices and the type of activities they employ. To begin with, Dornyei (2001) asserted that effective teachers are those who have a good sense of humour. As affirmed by many academics, a sense of humour plays a vital role in aiding students to overcome their stress and fears and enhance their learning as a whole.

Indeed, the use of humour to boost teaching and learning reveals enthusiasm on the part of teachers and demonstrates that they do not consider teaching just as a duty that must be fulfilled. When teachers use humour as a pedagogical tool, this aids to maintain a dynamic and committed relationship with the learners. Accordingly, learners are regarded as human beings whose requirements should be met and not as vessels to be filled with knowledge in a dull atmosphere. Moreover, according to Kelly (2005), the teacher's main duty is to assist learners' fall in love with the content and their own learning" (p.5). Teachers can bring about a learning atmosphere full of "hope, trust, respect, interest, positive attitudes, creativity, unpredictability and fun through the use of humour"

(Kelly,p.1). Similarly, up to Robinson, "humour provides a caring environment within which criticism and values can be expressed and mistakes pointed out without destroying the learners' self-image"(cited in Hayden-Miles, 2002, p.1).

It is worth noting, however, that literature distinguished two types of humour: positive and negative. Therefore, teachers have to opt for the positive one which serves to reduce students' tension and fears and enable them to interact more freely without being afraid of the teacher. Indeed teachers who utilize humour positively will enhance learning and make out of it an interesting and enjoyable experience for FL learners (Goodman, 2005).On the other hand; teachers have to abandon what is called negative humour. That is any attitude that intends to belittle, ridicule or tease learners. Negative humour is so harmful to learners. It discourages them and promotes negativity within the classroom. As Kelly (2005) maintained, "Negative humour is disruptive and can divide learners" (p.2).

Interestingly, besides using positive humour, the teacher can also permit learners to personalize the classroom environment according to their taste. That is s/he may encourage them to choose their seating arrangement and propose topics of discussion that interest them.S/he may also address them using their first names, smile at them and provide them with adequate time for preparation, and positive reinforcement. Actually, as Pinta (1999) pointed out when there is a psychologically close relationship between teachers and learners, the students manage to feel secure and relaxed and handle their speaking anxiety.

More importantly, regarding the strategies associated with classroom activities, all the interview participants agreed that they utilize various activities. However, they confirmed that group work is the most effective anxiety-coping strategy for students. In other words, when students are engaged in collaborative learning, they feel more relaxed, secure and motivated. This is mainly because they share the workload and feel that less attention is focused on them individually as they all contribute to completing the task at hand. In this regard, Dornyei (2001) maintained that "cooperative situations generally have a positive emotional sense, which means that they generate less anxiety and stress than other learning formats" (p.101).

More specifically, when students work in cooperation, they assist, encourage and motivate each other. That is when working together, the less proficient students will learn from the more proficient ones. This will increase their interest and motivation for learning.

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What is more, in cooperative situations, students rely on each other and share common goals. This, in turn, will create a feeling of unity among them. This is congruent with Dornyei (2001) who asserted that "cooperation fosters class group cohesiveness" (p.101)

Regarding the post-study classroom observation, its findings indicated that unlike stage I of the study, the student participants managed to handle a great deal of their speaking anxiety in the second stage. Indeed, the close bond between the teacher/researcher adopted with her students by being friendly and more tolerant of their spoken mistakes and errors changed their behaviour in class. Thus from being frustrated, and hesitant, most students turned into relaxed and more confident ones. Moreover, the teacher/researcher's implementation of group work and turn-taking strategies helped them handle their speaking fears and enhance their speaking skills as a whole.

Furthermore, the data gathered from the Post-study MFLCAS Questionnaire (Horwitz 1986 et al) revealed that the teacher's implementation of the coping strategies was fruitful in handling the students' FLCSA. This is well demonstrated when a considerable number of participants showed significantly lower anxiety scores in stage II compared to stage I. In other terms, unlike Stage I in which 50% of the participants experienced anxiety, only 20% of them admitted feeling anxious in Stage II (item 1).

Additionally, contrary to stage I whereby a great number of students revealed a considerable concern over making mistakes and the teacher's correction, only a few of them confessed feeling afraid of making mistakes and the teacher's negative evaluation in stage II of the study (item 14). In fact, all these findings seem to be congruent with the data that the researcher obtained using the post-study observation.

What is more, concerning the post-study student interview, its findings displayed the participants' gratefulness for the coping strategies as they were effective in handling their speaking anxiety. For them, by establishing a good rapport with them, the teacher aided in overcoming their speaking apprehension. Similarly, the majority of them confessed that the turn-taking strategy provided them with sufficient time to think and prepare, and hence they felt more at ease while speaking. Furthermore, most participants agreed on the benefits of working in groups. This permitted them to be more acquainted with their peers the reason why they felt more relaxed while speaking in front of them. Additionally, using group work promoted also collaboration among the participants

especially in sharing ideas and correcting each other's' mistakes. In fact, comparable findings were obtained in previous studies (Young, 1990; Young, 1991). Such findings provided evidence of the efficiency of collaborative learning in enhancing students' speaking skills and overcoming their FLCSA.

4.5. Limitations of the Study

Despite the relative reliability of the findings, the results of this study should be carefully interpreted due to the following limitations. Firstly, it is worth stating that dealing with affective and psychological factors such as anxiety is itself a limitation. Indeed, it is challenging to avoid subjectivity mainly because the researcher/observer is also the teacher of the students being observed. Besides, it is not that easy to collect accurate and comprehensive data about the participants' affective states due to the topic's sensitivity and the researcher's position.

Secondly, despite using triangulation, the findings of this study cannot be generalized. One reason for this was the small size of the sample which involved 50 students and 15 teachers. Furthermore, the number of interview student participants was limited and it would have been useful to interview more than seven students. In addition, this study is limited to Algerian students of English. It concerns students enrolled in the second-year level in the English department at the Abdelhamid Ibn Badis University of Mostaganem, during the academic year (2018-2019). Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to involve students from various universities and various academic levels.

Thirdly, this research involved a profound theoretical examination of many anxiety-related variables such as age, gender, motivation, etc. However, it neglected to consider other significant variables such as perfectionism and cultural differences and show their impact on the learners' anxiety levels. Certainly, tackling such variables would have contributed to enriching the research literature of this study. Furthermore, this research overlooked also consulting some specialists in the field of anxiety. Indeed, consulting some psychologists could provide more efficient strategies to overcome FLCSA.

Finally, the time for conducting this research was limited. Indeed, teaching the participants Oral Expression for one hour and a half per week did not grant the researcher

enough time to carry out the study at ease. Specifically, she could not gather accurate data about the student participants' behaviour before and after the application of the coping strategies. Actually, having more time would have provided the opportunity to add more details to the research findings.

4.6. Implications and Recommendations

As already stated, foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA) can hinder the learners' academic achievements. One aspect of this is that it impedes them from enhancing their speaking skills and communicating successfully in the FL-speaking classroom. Hence, it is indispensable that FL instructors consider this issue and do their utmost to understand their students and aid them to overcome any feelings of tension or distress they may experience in the FL-speaking classroom.

Based on this study's findings, several implications for applying anxiety-coping strategies can be suggested for EFL Mostaganem teachers to help them overcome their students' FLCSA. Essentially, the teachers' qualities and behaviours in the classroom can either cause or reduce the learners' speaking anxiety. Therefore, EFL teachers should consider the affective states of their students while speaking in the FL classroom. Teachers should recognize the students displaying signs of anxiety and try to find ways to aid them to overcome it. Likewise, by probing the factors lying behind the learners' negative affect, EFL teachers can find solutions to speaking anxiety by implementing various teaching strategies.

Furthermore, participants in this study affirmed that severe and threatening FL classroom atmosphere and the teachers' attitude towards their errors can influence their eagerness to use the FL language in the classroom. This is one of the reasons for FL learners' speaking anxiety. Based on this finding, EFL teachers should create a comfortable and less threatening classroom environment which can inspire learners to speak confidently while expressing their ideas on any particular topic. This can be attained by helping the learners to know one another and encouraging them to work in collaboration. This might assist to decrease the fear of public speaking which can breed feelings of tension and apprehension in the students in FL-speaking classrooms.

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Additionally, as the first stage of this study revealed, nearly 50% of the student participants expressed their fear of making mistakes when speaking in the FL-speaking classroom. To overcome this issue, EFL teachers should be tolerant of learners' errors and avoid overcorrecting them. They should show, however, positive attitudes to errors and provide indirect correction only when necessary. Moreover, teachers should bear in mind that making mistakes is a normal phenomenon as it is a natural part of the learning process. Therefore, the question of error correction should be examined cautiously. EFL teachers should take into account the impact of negative evaluation on the student's willingness to use the FL and participate in classroom speaking activities. Therefore, errors should be corrected in a constructive way that would encourage students to speak confidently while using the FL the front of the teacher and the whole class.

Significantly, due to the study limitations previously cited, the subsequent recommendations are suggested for future research in the area of FLCSA:

➢ More participants should be involved in the study to get more insights into this issue in future research.

➢ Further research in FLCSA should approach some psychologists who may offer new and more effective strategies to lessen students' speaking anxiety.

➢ More inquiries should be carried out in distinct academic contexts and distinct institutions to gather evidence about the reliability and credibility of the findings.

➢ Future research should consider also the use of non-participant classroom observation to permit the researcher to provide accurate and comprehensive findings, especially about such a sensitive topic as FLCSA.

➢ Finally, more research should stress the significance of training teachers for affective roles to contribute in creating a relaxing atmosphere in the S/FL classroom.

4.7. Conclusion

The present chapter has outlined the findings of the investigation, summarised the contribution of the study, displayed suggestions for teachers to handle their students' speaking anxiety, highlighted the restrictions of the investigation and recommended areas for future research. The long journey towards exploring the nature of FL anxiety and its relation to speaking skills is, in fact, challenging and features a requirement for more research in this field. Regardless of their robustness, the results of this endeavour should be replicated by different investigations reflecting on encouraging research. The outcomes at that point may add more insights to the field of speaking anxiety coping strategies.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

This study provides a broad overview of theoretical issues on FLCSA and highlights some coping strategies to overcome it. Several definitions of FL anxiety as well as its various types, sources, manifestations and effects on learning were demonstrated. Moreover, the nature of speaking and the way it is affected by FLA have also been investigated.

It is well known that learning an S/FL can be a challenging experience where learners confront many obstacles impeding their academic achievements. Most learners, for instance, admit that speaking the FL language is the most anxiety-provoking. Moreover, learning does not only implicate the mastery of vocabulary and grammar rules, but it also affects the students' emotions and feelings and the way they respond to the learning process. Therefore, teachers should be aware of the significance of affect in FL education and consider their students' affective states in the classroom. Teachers should provide a comfortable learning atmosphere and establish a healthy relationship with their students to assure their success.

This research is drawn from the fact that many EFL classroom teachers have confirmed the tension and apprehension that their students experienced when attempting to use English the in the speaking classroom. Indeed, as a teacher of Oral Expression to EFL students at Mostaganem University, I constantly noticed the students' reticence and unwillingness to participate in the speaking activities. Besides, my colleagues also complained about their students' low speaking performance in addition to their negative attitudes towards speaking as a whole. This may be attributed to their linguistic deficiency, low self-esteem and poor pronunciation.

The first objective of the study was to examine whether FLCSA exists among second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University and to identify its causes and main symptoms, along with the strategies that students employ to overcome it. Therefore, 50 EFL students were selected for the analysis. Moreover, the participants displayed many many physical and behavioural signs indicating their struggle with FLCSA in the Oral Expression class. This involves silence, reluctance and unwillingness to participate. This is in line with previous research such as Horwitz et al.(1986) who maintained that anxious learners are prone to be hesitant to volunteer answers. Furthermore, the participants'

negative affect was also indicated by making pauses, refusing to speak, stuttering, and hiding behind classmates.

Additionally, another symptom that the teacher/researcher detected was nervous laughter. This was another type of laughter that one participant utilized to disguise his fears and nervousness while speaking in front of the class.

Furthermore, the students' speaking anxiety was due to two main reasons: linguistic and non-linguistic. Under the linguistic factors, the student participants agreed that their anxiety was attributed to their unfamiliarity with the speaking topic and their lack of vocabulary. Certainly, the linguistic repertoire plays a key role in enhancing students' FL learning which is congruent with many scholars such as Wilkins (1972) and Schmitt (2010). Under the non-linguistic factors, however, the students confessed that their anxiety was due to their fear of public speaking. Indeed, the participants showed concern over the teacher's corrective feedback as well as their peers' negative comments. Additionally, the students' apprehension resulted from the students' low self-confidence. Actually, learners lacking self-confidence fail in dealing with their speaking anxiety and enhancing their communicative skills, which is consistent with Piechursha-Kuciel (2015). What is more, regarding the anxiety-coping learning strategies, the participants stressed the effectiveness of preparation and practice, and risk-taking and emphasized the significance of building one's self-confidence in overcoming their EFL speaking apprehension.

The second objective was to investigate the effectiveness of anxiety-coping teaching in alleviating FLCSA of second-year EFL students of Mostaganem University. To collect data, both students and teachers took part in the second stage of the study. Regarding the student participants, they were the same who took part in the first stage of the study. Concerning the teachers, however, they were 15 EFL teachers. Eight of them were from the University of Mostaganem and seven were from the University of Tiaret. Furthermore, this stage used also a mixed-method approach. This involved teacher interview, post-study student classroom observation, a post-study MFLCAS questionnaire (Horwitz et al), and post-study student interview.

The findings displayed that, unlike stage I, the students managed to overcome their FLCSA in the second stage of the study. Indeed, the post-study MFLCAS questionnaire

(Horwitz et al) indicated lower anxiety scores and fewer students admitting fear over making mistakes and the teacher's correction. Similarly, the post-study classroom observation demonstrated also that the students' FLCSA decreased considerably due to the teacher/ researcher's use of the anxiety-coping strategies in stage II of the study.

The first strategy concerned the teacher's behaviour in class. It aimed to create a comfortable learning atmosphere in the classroom. In effect, by being friendly, humourous and patient, the teacher/researcher managed to switch his students into relaxed ones who could handle their tension and nervousness in the EFL-speaking classroom, which is in line with previous studies such as that of Young (1990) who stressed the significance of relaxing atmosphere in the overcoming the students' FLCSA. The second was associated with error correction. That is via this strategy the teacher/researcher focused on fluency over accuracy, tolerated minor errors and provided indirect feedback. Actually, this strategy made the students more confident while speaking and encouraged them to talk without being afraid of the teacher's feedback. The third consisted of the implementation of group work. This was meant to promote collaboration among learners and boost their self-confidence when speaking. In effect, this strategy contributed to creating a cooperative atmosphere in the classroom. It decreased the students' tension and raised their level of enjoyment while speaking in the EFL classroom. The fourth strategy involved turn-taking. This strategy aimed to provide the participants with the chance to think and prepare before speaking. As the findings indicated, this strategy contributed considerably to decreasing the students' anxiety levels as they had more time to think and organize their ideas before participating in the EFL-speaking classroom.

Interestingly, the findings of the post-study student interview revealed a common agreement among the participants over the effectiveness of the coping strategies. For them, the teacher's behaviour, involving being friendly, humorous, patient and tolerant, helped them overcome their FLCSA. Likewise, the turn-taking strategy granted them time for preparation, the reason why they felt comfortable while interacting. Furthermore, the interview participants confessed also the significance of working in groups. In fact, when working together, the students had the chance to know and support each other. That is why they felt comfortable when speaking in front of their peers.

General Conclusion

Nevertheless, despite the validity and the results, the findings of the study cannot be taken for granted due to some limitations. First, tackling a topic such as anxiety is, in essence, a limitation. Actually, it is not that easy for a researcher, to conduct a participant observation, to collect accurate and reliable data about the participants. Second, though the study adopted a mixed-method approach, the findings might be questionable due to the limited number of questionnaire participants and the post-interview respondents. In effect, the findings would be more accurate if the sample was more representative. Additionally, this study is confined to EFL second-year students at Mostaganem University. Thus, the results cannot be exclusive to include FL learners from different institutions and different academic degrees. Third, due to time limitations, the researcher could not gather accurate data before and after the application of the anxiety coping strategies.

Furthermore, in light of the study findings, EFL teachers of speaking are invited to get better insights into the significance of affective factors in language learning. They are prompted to take care of their students' feelings and emotions and adopt some strategies to handle their apprehension in the EFL-speaking classroom. Besides, since most teachers still adopt traditional methods when teaching speaking, these findings open the way for more inquiries to enhance the teaching of speaking and emphasize the establishment of a relaxing and low-anxiety atmosphere in the EFL-speaking classroom.

Based on this research finding, some recommendations may be suggested. This study proposed EFL students from the University of Mostaganem. However, choosing another level and another institution may result in other findings. Moreover, in this study, participant observation was used, but conducting a non-participant observation may display more accurate findings. Besides, the study applied common anxiety-coping teaching strategies. Nevertheless, employing new ones drawn from specialists in psychology is also prompted for further inquiries in this area.

Finally, the effects of anxiety on language have represented an issue for a given time, as viewpoints vary as to whether or not anxiety impacts negatively language learning. In effect, people rarely consider the learners' perceptions of FLCSA. In other terms, it is significant to conduct research related to their attitudes towards the impact of FLCSA on their learning.

General Conclusion

To sum up, the findings of this research can be useful for both teachers and learners. Teachers are inspired that affect is significant for the quality and effectiveness of teaching and learning and are invited to consider the learners' feelings in the EFL classroom. Learners too are made aware that their academic achievements are determined not only by cognitive factors but are also influenced by affective factors.

However, it is worth stressing that this research has focused only on teachers' strategies, which are only one facet of anxiety-coping strategies. In effect, another aspect, one may deal with, is learners' strategies and their effectiveness in decreasing the students' FLCSA and enhancing the quality of learning. Such a study, one should note, is of paramount importance and can add insights into this area of research.

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Appendices

Appendices

Appendix A

Students Background Questionnaire

Dear students,

The purpose of this research is to collect data about learners' classroom speaking anxiety. It attempts also to shed light on some teaching strategies to help students speak confidently and achieve better oral performance in their EFL-speaking classroom. Read each of the following questions carefully and tick (√) the right answer (s), and use the lines provided to write answers. Please, give your answers sincerely because they will be very useful in our research.
Thanks for your collaboration.

I. Students' Background Information

Age:………………………………………

Gender: a- Male ☐ b- Female

1. Was studying English at university

☐   a personal choice? ☐ b-imposed on you?

2. Do you like to attend your Oral Expression (OE) classes?

a- Yes ☐   b- No ☐

3. Which of the four skills do you consider the most stressful?

☐ Listening,

☐ Writing,

☐ Reading,

☐ Speaking

*Why?...

4. What do you like best in your oral expression class?

....

Appendices

5. What do you hate most in your oral expression class?

....

6- Where do you prefer to sit in your oral class?

  a) Front ☐   b) Middle ☐   c) Back ☐

7. How often do you participate in your Oral Expression class?

  a) Always ☐   b) Often ☐   c) Sometimes ☐   d) Never ☐

II. Situations of Speaking Anxiety in EFL Speaking Classes

8. Do you feel anxious when it is needed to speak in your oral class?

a- Yes ☐   b- No ☐

9. In which situation/ situations do you feel anxious to speak?

  a) When you respond voluntarily ☐

  b) When called upon by the teacher to respond individually ☐

  C) When presenting in front of your classmates ☐

  d) In oral tests ☐

  e) When participating in formal discussions ☐

  f) When speaking in front of the other gender ☐

*Others…………………………………………………………………………

III. Causes of Speaking Anxiety

10. Why do you feel anxious?

  a- Lack of vocabulary ☐

  b- Poor pronunciation ☐

c- b- Lack of self-confidence ☐

d- Fear of making mistakes ☐

e- being unfamiliar with the topic ☐

11. Do you worry about making mistakes in front of your classmates?

a) Yes ☐ No ☐

12. Do you think that comparing yourself with other classmates makes you more anxious when speaking in the classroom?

a) Yes ☐ No ☐

13. Mention some topics that make you more /anxious when speaking in your oral Expression class?...

……………………………………………………………………………….……

14. If you are suddenly called by the teacher, will you answer?

a) comfortably ☐ b) anxiously ☐

15. How would like your teacher to react to your speaking mistakes?

a) To correct the mistakes directly ☐

b) To correct the mistakes indirectly ☐

c) Not to correct (ignore the mistakes) ☐

Say why, please
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

Appendices

IV. Coping Strategies with EFL Speaking Anxiety

16. How do you consider coping with anxiety?

a) very important ☐   b) less important ☐   c) not important ☐

17. How can you cope with your speaking anxiety?

a) More preparation and practice ☐

b) Building self-confidence ☐

c) Encouraging yourself to take risk ☐

* Others

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

V. Students' Preferences towards in-class speaking activities and the teacher's Characteristics

18. Which of the following activities help you overcome your anxiety and encourage you to speak in your oral EFL classroom?

a- Story-telling ☐

b- Story- completion ☐

c- Group discussion ☐

d- Presenting in front of the whole class ☐

e- Roleplaysays ☐

f- Interviews ☐

g- Picture describing ☐

h- Information gap ☐

i- Games ☐

Appendices

** Say why, please
……………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………

19-What do you expect your teacher to do to help you cope with your speaking anxiety?

a) being friendly ☐

b) creating an enjoyable/ relaxing learning atmosphere ☐

c) Using a variety (different)of speaking activities ☐

d) Encouraging pair /group work ☐

*Others:………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………

** Say why, please

Appendices

Appendix B

The MFLCAS Questionnaire (Horwitz et al's, 1986)

Dear students,

The following is a modified version of **Horwitz et al's (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (MFLCAS).** Please tick the answer that best reflects your feeling.

Statements	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.			
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.			
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.			
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.			
5. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.			
6. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.			
7. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.			
8. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.			
9. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.			
10. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.			
11. Even if I am well prepared for a language class, I feel anxious about it.			
12. I often feel like not going to my language class.			

13. I feel confident when I speak in a foreign language class.			
14. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.			
15. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.			
16. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.			
17. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.			
18. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.			
19. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.			
20. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.			
21. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.			
22. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions that I haven't prepared in advance.			

Appendices

Appendix C

Classroom Observation Protocol

University of Mostaganem   Department of English

Teacher:…………………….. Room:……………. Duration:……………………………….. Observer:……………………………………………….. Number of Students……………………..
Seating:……………………………………………

participants	Topic	Situation of the the anxiety	Type of the activity			Observations																	
			Individual	pair	group	Silence	Nervousness in speech	Refusing to speak	Avoiding eye contact with the teacher	Speaking quietly	stuttering	Sound distortion	Hiding oneself	Breathing faster	Forgetting words	blushing	repetitions	Acting indifferent	Making stops of utterances	Escaping from the speaking situation	Writing what they are going to say in a paper	Quivering voice
Week 1	Student 1																						
Week 2	Student 2																						

Questions	Answer	Notes
1. Were there any students displaying symptoms of FLCSA?		
2. During which activity did that occur?		
3. What type of feedback did the teacher provide?		

Appendices

Appendix D

Teacher Interview

1-How long have you been teaching English?

2-How long have you been teaching Oral Expression?

3-What is, according to you, foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA)? Does it have a positive or negative influence on students' achievement? How?

4-What are, according to you, the main causes of students' foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA)?

5-Do you think that teachers have positive or negative effects on students' FLCSA? Why?

6-Which speaking activities (individual /pair/group work) do you use in class? Which of them is comforting for your students**? Why?**

7-Do you correct your students' spoken errors? If yes, what type of correction do you provide direct or indirect? Why?

8- Do you think the teacher's correction causes FLCSA? if yes, what type of correction? Why?

9-How do you usually deal with anxious students in your speaking classroom**?**

10- What kind of measures/ strategies teachers should use to reduce students' anxiety in the FL- speaking classroom?

Appendices

Appendix E

Post-study Classroom Observation Sheet

Minutes	The Strategy Applied	The Effects of the Strategy

Appendices

Appendix F

Student Post –interview

1- What were your teacher's personal characteristics or behaviours that helped you overcome your foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (FLCSA)?

2- Do you think that taking turns in answering questions contributed to reducing your FLCSA?

3- Did the use of group work during the second semester help you in overcoming your FLCSA?

4- Do you think that the teacher's use of indirect correction (recasts) helped you speak more confidently in English?