Investigating Speaking Anxiety among EFL Sudanese University Students:

(A Case Study of the Faculty of Education El-Hasahisa University of Gezira)

By

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Investigating Speaking Anxiety among *EFL* Sudanese University Students.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Signature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Prof. Abdul Majeed Al-Tayib Omar</td>
<td>Main Supervisor</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Date: August / 2013
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**EXAMINATION COMMITTEE:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Signature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Abdul Majeed ElTyeb Omer</td>
<td>Chairperson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Date of Examination: 15 /8 /2013**
Dedication

I dedicate this study to my mother and to the soul of my father. I also dedicate the study with special gratitude to my wife for her continuous help, encouragement and understanding. My dedication is extended my beloved children for their cheerful smiles.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Firstly, I want to acknowledge that it was only the help, guidance and blessing of Almighty Allah that blessed me with the courage and persistence to complete this work.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my main supervisor Prof. Abdulmajeed AL-Tayib, the captain of my study ship, for his meticulous eye, professional guidance, continuous support and insightful feedback throughout the process of my PhD; without his help I would not have started let alone finished. My deepest thanks and acknowledgements are extended to my co-supervisor Dr. Ahmed Gasem El-Seed for his interest in my work, for the several hours he spent to guide and help me, and for the strenuous effort he exerted to make this study see the light.

It is my pleasure to extend my sincerest thanks to Dr. Elaine K. Horwitz, the foreign language anxiety expert, Texas University for emailing to express her interest in my dissertation and for the kind permission she gave me to utilize the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) in this study.

I also take this opportunity to thank my colleagues the native and non native teachers in the Saudi Electricity Training Institute in Dammam, Saudi Arabia for their patient during the interviews I conducted with them.

I want to express my deep gratitude for my family members for their encouragement, understanding, love and affection.
Investigating Speaking Anxiety among Sudanese University Students:
A case study of Faculty of Education Hasahiesa, University of Gezira
Faiz Mohamed Ahmed Hamarai

Abstract
No one denies the truth that anxiety exists in our life. Scientists and language acquisition researchers saw anxiety from two different views. Some scholars said that anxiety can facilitate the English as foreign language speaking skill, others talked about speaking anxiety as debilitating which impede the process of speaking the language. The present study was an attempt first to get the perspectives of two groups who are basically involved in the learning and teaching processes namely, language learners and teachers, regarding their views about the factors which may negatively affect the speaking performance of language learners; and second, to see what the similarities and differences are between the students and teachers’ attitudes on the same issue. To achieve this goal, 234 Sudanese male and female EFL learners representing all batches from the Faculty of Education, El-Hasahisa, University of Gezira were asked to fill out a scale specially designed to measure the level of anxiety experienced by students when they speak the EFL. The study also investigated eight EFL teachers – three native and five non-native -. the teachers were requested to answer an open-ended interview questions. Data collected from all participants was analyzed. The study at hand revealed different reasons gathered to account for the speaking anxiety experienced by the participants –the subject of the study-. The findings of the study attributed the speaking anxiety experienced by the subjects of the study to different factors such as communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety and anxiety experienced in the English classroom class. Interviews with the EFL teachers, assured that there was a significant negative correlation between foreign language anxiety level and English speaking skill. The study recommended that EFL instructors should acknowledge the existence of anxiety in EFL learning and speaking and provide friendly environments to grantees an active participation in the classroom discussion. It was also recommended that EFL students should be encouraged to have self confidence in order to acquire good learning and communication skills and set up activities that make students feel successful in using English in learning and speaking.
التحقق من وجود القلق عند التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية عند طلاب الجامعات السودانيين

دراسة حالة كلية التربية الحصاحيصا، جامعت الجزيرة

فايز محمد أحمد حمراي

مستشار البحث

لا يستطيع أحد إنكار حقيقة وجود القلق كظاهرة في حياتنا. رأى العلماء والباحثون في مجال اكتساب اللغة من زاويتين مختلفتين، فريق من العلماء يرى أن القلق يمكن أن يكون مساعدًا في تحسين مهارة التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية. وفريق آخر رأى أن القلق المصاحب للتخاطب باللغة الإنجليزية يمكن أن يكون معيقًا للعملية التخاطبية. تأتي هذه الدراسة محاولة في المقام الأول في معرفة وجهة نظر مجموعتين تتشاركان في عملية التعلم والتعليم، وهما الطلاب والمعلمين، في حالة الانتباه مهمة أو نظر كل مجموعه حول العوامل التي ربما تؤثر سلبًا على مهارة التحدث باللغة الإنجليزية لدى الدارسين. وفي المقام الثاني، تبحث الدراسة عن وجهة نظر الشبل والاختلاف بين موقف دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية ومسارها حول نفس الموضوع. وتconde هذا الهدف فريق البحث يتوظف استبان لعدد 234 طالبًا وطالبة في كلية التربية الحصاحيصا، جامعت الجزيرة. هذه المجموعة تتمثل جميع الطلاب بالكلية من السنة الأولى وحتى السنة الرابعة. طلب الباحثون من الطلاب تقديم الاستبان الذي صممه خصيصًا ليكون معيارًا قياسيًا يقيس مستوى القلق الذي يعيشه دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، بينما يتخاطبون هذه اللغة. قام الباحث كذلك بأجراء مقابلات شخصية مع ثمانية مدرسين، ثلاثة منهم متحدثين أصليين باللغة الإنجليزية وخمسة غير متحدثين أصليين، كل على حدة. طلب الباحثون من هؤلاء المدرسين الإجابة عن أسئلة طرحها في مقابلات مفتوحة أجريت مع كل واحد منهم. بعد تحليل البيانات التي جمعها من المشاركين، تبين أن هناك أسباب مختلفة للقلق عند التخطيط باللغة الإنجليزية الذي عبر عنه الطلاب المشاركون في الدراسة. بينت نتائج الدراسة أن القلق الذي يعانيه الطلاب عند التخطيط باللغة الإنجليزية سببه عوامل مثل التفاوت اللغوي والخوف من التقييم السلبي والقلق من الاختبارات. وفقًا لباحثة، يعاني الطلاب أثناء دروس اللغة الإنجليزية، بناءً على المقابلات الشخصية التي أجريت مع معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية أن هناك علاقة سلبية ذات دلالات إحصائية بين مستوى القلق ومهارة التخطيط باللغة الإنجليزية. أوصت الدراسة بضرورة اللغة الإنجليزية للتأقلم، بالإعتبار، وجود ظاهرة القلق عند التخطيط باللغة الإنجليزية لدى الطلاب. كما أوصت بتخصيص مدرس اللغة الإنجليزية الذي يتعلم في الود لضمان مشاركة فاعلة في النقاش من قبل الطلاب داخل الفصول الدراسية. أوصت الدراسة كذلك على تشجيع دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية على إحساسهم اللغة باللغة الإنجليزية حتى يتم تعليمهم تطبيقها جيدًا. وأوصت الدراسة أن تقوم معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية بإعداد الأنشطة التي من شأنها أن تشجع الطلاب في النجاح عند استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية والتخاطب بها.
# Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract (Arabic)الخلاصة</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of contents</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Tables</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Figures</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background                                | 1-2  |
1.1 Statement of the Study                    | 3    |
1.2 Objectives of the Study                   | 5    |
1.3 Significance of the Study                 | 6    |
1.4 Questions of the Study                    | 7    |
1.5 Limits of the Study                       | 8    |
1.6 Definitions of Terms                      | 9    |
1.7 Organization of the Study                 | 10   |

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Background                                | 11   |
2.1 General Anxiety                           | 13   |
2.2 Language Anxiety                          | 13   |
2.3 Facilitating Anxiety and Debilitating Anxiety | 16   |
2.4 Anxiety in Testing Situations             | 18   |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Three Stages of Language Learning</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Manifestations of General Anxiety and Academic Anxiety</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7 Foreign Language Anxiety</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8 General Sources of Foreign Language Anxiety</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9 Learners’ Interpersonal Sources of Anxiety</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10 Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11 Language Anxiety and Language Achievement</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12 Language Anxiety in Relation to the Four Language Skills</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.13 Factors Associated with Learner’s own Sense of ‘Self’ and ‘Language Classroom Environment’</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.14 Socio-cultural Factors</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.15 Cognitive versus Psychosomatic Speaking Anxiety</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.16 Psychosomatic Speaking Anxiety</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.17 Autonomic Arousals</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.18 Cardiovascular Symptoms</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.19 Language achievement</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.20 Previous Studies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.0 Background</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Students Participants</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Teachers participants</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Data Collection Instruments</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, FLCAS</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 Procedure</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction
4.1 Outcomes of the FLCAS Administration
4.3 Statistical Procedure of Data Analysis
Results of Communication Apprehension
Results of Fear of Negative Evaluation
Results of Anxiety in English classroom Class
Discussion of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)
4.7 Results of the Interviews with EFL Teachers
4. 8 Description of the Participants
4.9 Interviews
4.10 Data Analysis
4.11 Roles of Anxiety
4.11 Causes Provoking Language anxiety
4.12 Lack of confidence in speaking English
4.13 Low self-esteem
4.14 Restrictive time lines
4.15 Teachers Roles in managing Students' Language Anxiety
4.16 Discussion
4. 18 Answers of the Research Questions
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER FIVE : SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECOMMENDATIONS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 Introduction</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Summary</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Findings</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 Recommendations</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibliography</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices(1)</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices(2)</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices(3)</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices(4)</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices(5)</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices(6)</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices(7)</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## List of Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tables</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.1) I never feel quite sure of myself I am speaking</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.2) I start to panic when I have to speak without</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.3) I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.4) I feel confident when I speak the foreign language class.</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.5) I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.6) I get nervous and confused when I am speaking</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.7) I get nervous when I don't understand every word</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.8) I would probably feel comfortable around native speak</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.9) I tremble when I know that I'm going to be</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.10) I keep thinking that the other students are better</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.11) It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.12) I get upset when I don't understand what the</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.13) I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.14) I always feel that the other students speak</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.15) Language class moves so quickly I worry about</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.16) I am afraid that the other students will laugh at</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.17) I get nervous when the language teacher</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.18) I don't worry about making mistakes in language class</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.19) I am usually at ease during tests in my language class</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.20) I worry about the consequences of failing</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.21) I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.22) The more I study for a language test, the more con</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.23) It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.24) It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.25) During language class, I find myself thinking</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.26) I don't understand why some people get so upset</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.27) In language class, I can get so nervous</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table (4.28) I often feel like not going to my language class</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figures</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.1) I never feel quite sure of myself I am speaking</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.2) I start to panic when I have to speak without</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.3) I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.4) I feel confident when I speak the foreign language class.</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.5) I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.6) I get nervous and confused when I am speaking</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.7) I get nervous when I don't understand every word</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.8) I would probably feel comfortable around native speak</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.9) I tremble when I know that I'm going to be</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.10) I keep thinking that the other students are better</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.11) It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.12) I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.13) I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.14) I always feel that the other students speak</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.15) Language class moves so quickly I worry about</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.16) I am afraid that the other students will laugh at</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.17) I get nervous when the language teacher</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.18) I don't worry about making mistakes in language class</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.19) I am usually at ease during tests in my language class</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.20) I worry about the consequences of failing</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.21) I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.22) The more I study for a language test, the more con</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.23) It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.24) It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.25) During language class, I find myself thinking</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.26) I don't understand why some people get so upset</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.27)</td>
<td>In language class, I can get so nervous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.28)</td>
<td>I often feel like not going to my language class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.29)</td>
<td>I don't feel pressure to prepare very well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.30)</td>
<td>I feel more tense and nervous in my language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.31)</td>
<td>When I'm on my way to language class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fig (4.32)</td>
<td>I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background

English language has become a global language. It is almost learnt and spoken everywhere in the world. It plays a major role in many fields of knowledge such as medicine, engineering, education, business, technology, banking, computer sciences, internet, tourism etc. Most of scientific research is conducted and carried out in English. English literature is written and read, in wider circles. As a result, English is being widely taught and learned around the world as a second or a foreign language. English speaking skill is also highly needed to communicate with others, to express our own ideas, and to know others’ ideas as well. Communication takes place, where there is speech. Without a good speaking skill, we cannot communicate with one another. Speaking is an important skill for the learners of any language. A language is reduced to a mere script if it is not spoken. Therefore, poor communication results in misunderstandings and problems.

However, for various reasons, a number of EFL students face difficulty when learning to speak. Having difficulty with foreign language learning and speaking put the students under the umbrella of underachievers, or lacking motivation (Pan et al., 2009) or have learning disabilities (Hu et al., 2003).

(Pinter, 2006) suggested that teachers' efforts should focus on developing students' ability to speak since learning this skill is considered as the greatest challenge for all language learners. (Brown, 2001) submitted that that teachers have to give more opportunities to their students to express
themselves by providing them with speaking activities that enable them to speak English. Richard (2008) submitted that "in the teaching of English, as one of the productive skills, speaking activity must focus on how to assist students to use English and to communicate in it". Richard also thinks that most students often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their language course on the basis of how much they feel they have improved in their speaking proficiency.

Unfortunately, English language teachers, including the researcher of this study, have witnessed in formal and informal situations that Sudanese university students experience a state of apprehension, nervousness and discomfort when they want to acquire or produce a speech in English. This state of nervousness and anxiety reach its peak when students are asked to speak in front of peers in English classes and during oral exams. What then hinders them to succeed in learning to speak English? Of course, affective variables such as attitude, motivation, anxiety and beliefs about foreign language learning and speaking have been said to affect and influence the speaking skill. Of these affective variables, anxiety has been given much attention in research. The study of the problems caused by anxiety in learning of English language in general and in speaking it in particular has emerged as a growing issue of inquiry, extending across different disciplines of language learning and teaching. Theorists and second language acquisition researchers have demonstrated that feelings of anxiety are specifically associated with speaking a second/ foreign language, which distinguishes it from other skills or subjects.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) submitted 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 new language". (Horwitz et al., 1986) submitted that "many learners express their inability and sometimes even acknowledge their failure in learning to speak a second/foreign language". According to (Horwitz et al., 1986) these learners may be good at learning other skills, but when it comes to learning to speak another language, they claim to have, a 'mental block' against it.

(Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991) submitted that foreign language anxiety is caused by the apprehension of communicating with others in the second language context. Rather, foreign language anxiety, which hampers language learners’ oral expression, is most commonly associated with speaking. In addition, a variety of researchers (Horwitz et al., 1986) consistently indicate that speaking is the most language anxiety provoking among foreign language learners.

The researcher of this study has been inspired to attempt an experimental approach to investigate the deleterious effect played by anxiety in speaking EFL among Sudanese university students. This effort comes as an attempt to find out if a type of debilitating anxiety is experienced by those learners. Moreover, investigative attempts of this study account for the extent to which anxiety factor can impede the achievement of EFL speaking in Sudanese university students.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The widespread of English language in the modern world of today, has increased the demand to acquire good speaking. However, the two plus decades the researcher has spent in teaching English in Sudan, Yemen and Saudi Arabia, to date, inspired the observation of a kind of apprehension and
a state of discomfort experienced by many learners when they attempt to speak, acquire and/or produce a speech in English. This state nervousness or anxiety reaches aggravated when students are asked to speak in class, and during oral tests. These personal observations have been supported in the studies of a number of researchers who have examined anxiety in language students. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991: 86a) submitted that "anxiety poses several potential problems for the student of a foreign language because it can interfere with the acquisition retention and production of the new language".

As a teacher of English the researcher has had the opportunity to observe many EFL university students in a variety of speaking situations, and has proposed that these learners might be liable to feel anxious in the speaking skill, for the following reasons:

First, students' low English speaking base may be attributed to the years students spent in basic and secondary schools without any exposure to authentic speaking situations.

Second, although the four skills are used in the courses usually taught, the oral skill is not given much attention both in class activities and in tests. This may provoke anxiety because the level of English studied at basic and secondary schools reaches approximately intermediate level, and the speaking skill tends to be ignored.

Third, EFL students study courses mainly directed towards their future profession, so they may perceive that speaking perfect and fluent English is of great importance for success in finding a job and achieving
promotion, in their professional career. This state of worry might cause speaking apprehension and therefore provoke speaking anxiety.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The major objective of this study is to investigate speaking anxiety among Sudanese university students at the Faculty of Education, El-Hasahisa, Gezira University to see how language anxiety affected the EFL speaking skill of the students at university level. The researcher also tended to investigate the problems and solutions aimed at reducing language anxiety and raising the English speaking proficiency of the students. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no single study was carried out to investigate psychological factors which are negatively affecting the process of the EFL speaking among Sudanese university students. This research is considered to be a pioneering attempt because it investigated and explored the speaking anxiety encountered by Sudanese EFL learners at university level when they are exposed to speaking situations inside or outside classroom. More significantly, the study elicits its data concerning this issue (i.e., speaking anxiety among Sudanese university students) by using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) scale which was designed and developed by Horwitz, Horwiz,and Cope (1986) and widely use. The investigation also administered interviews with native and non-native English language teachers teaching EFL and working at the Saudi Electricity Company Training Institute, Dammam, Saudi Arabia.

The study at hand, aims at achieving the following objectives:

1. Exploring reasons of anxiousness and embarrassment facing EFL Sudanese students at university level while communicating in English.
2. Investigating some of the factors that cause and make EFL speaking more stressful in some situations than in others.
3. Discovering the phenomenon of speaking anxiety from both within and outside of the language classroom setting in a wider social context.
4. Helping EFL teachers and educational organizations understand some of the speaking anxiety causes and factors which affect EFL learners and arming them with some appropriate strategies help to minimize the occurrence of the problem.
5. Helping EFL learners in Sudan understand some of the speaking anxiety causes and factors which they could face in different speaking situations and be aware of the ways to overcome these difficulties.
6. Offering some strategies, implications, applications, suggestions and recommendations that could help EFL teachers, learners and educational institutions to alleviate and overcome speaking anxiety or at least reduce its occurrence.
7. Broadening the insight of the researcher of this study about foreign language speaking anxiety, as an EFL learner, as well as a teacher.
8. Revitalizing the EFL speaking processes and make the EFL speaking more thrilling, fruitful and comfortable.

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study extends its significance from the fact that it targets EFL university students of the Faculty of Education of today who will become the EFL teachers of tomorrow. These students will become our children’s English teachers in the future. Therefore, if communication problems are not overcome at this stage, it will extend itself into working world and create new problems and limitations to new generation.
The study is also important because the researcher thinks it represents a new contribution being added to the present state of knowledge about anxiety in EFL speaking skill in Sudan. The study highlights the negative impact of language anxiety experienced by EFL Sudanese Students in relation to their English speaking skill.

Quantitative measures, such as scales and qualitative measures, such as open-ended interviews were used. The significance of this study appears in the fact that a great number of academic, demographic, cognitive and affective variables corresponding to the participants have been examined to discover associations with, and to detect predictors of, their English language proficiency, their English speaking skill and their levels of foreign language anxiety.

1.4 Questions of the Study

Departing from the assumption, suggested by a great body of research of ESL/EFL speaking research, that ESL/EFL speakers encounter anxiety in speaking English as a second or a foreign language, this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What levels of foreign language speaking anxiety experienced by the student participants?
2. What are the differences in foreign language speaking anxiety among various participant groups?
3. What are the reasons contributing to students’ high level of foreign language speaking anxiety
4. What are the strategies helping to reduce students’ high level of foreign language speaking anxiety
1.5 Limits of the Study

All studies have limits, as it is nearly impossible to design and carry out a study without certain limits. The major limit of this study is that it cannot be generalized to a larger population of EFL learners. It cannot claim to be a comprehensive study of anxiety the EFL learners expose to when they learn and speak; rather, it focuses on investigating some of the factors and causes of learning and speaking anxiety for EFL learners at tertiary level. Undoubtedly, this study provides further insight into the nature of foreign language learning and speaking anxiety experienced by EFL learners and how it negatively affects their learning and the speaking skills; however, the participants in this study will be a small and a specific group of learners learning English at a specific time. Furthermore, the findings may be specific to the learning and the speaking of English language and may or may not be applicable to other subjects.

Another limit of this study is that it only examines EFL learning and speaking anxiety at a specific university (Gezira) in a specific faculty (Education) applying a particular curriculum (English Language Teaching).

This study will be conducted on Sudanese students studying English at the Faculty of Education at the University of Gezira. The reasons for selecting Gezira are:

- Carrying this study in the researcher’s own area would be more convenient, more accessible and more relevant.

- Due to the highly centralized nature of the Sudanese universities in term of the subjects taught to EFL students in the faculties of education, the researchers assumed that students of education at the University of Gezira could be highly likely representative of students in other universities in the Sudan.
1.6 Definitions of Terms

1. *English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Learners and Teachers*: are those who are learning or teaching English while living in a community where English is not spoken as a first language.

2. *English as a Second Language (ESL) Learners and Teachers*: are those who are learning or teaching English while living in a community where English is spoken as a first language.

3. *Psycholinguistics*: a term that links psychology and linguistics. That is to say it links learners' psychological variables (personality traits, perceptions, beliefs, etc.) and the language learning and speaking process. The aim of the psycholinguists is to find out about the structures and processes, which underline a human's ability to speak (Aitchison, 1998:1).

4. *The Affective Filter Hypothesis*: Krashen defines the affective filter as “a mental block, caused by affective factors … that prevents input from reaching the language acquisition device” More simply put, nervous students may not learn as well as relaxed students. For this very reason, I always spend time in the first lesson of the semester doing an ice-breaker activity. I also do it for my own sanity. I hate the look of fear and panic that first-day students tend to have, so I try to get them smiling as early in the semester as possible.

(Krashen, 1985, page 100).
1.7 Organization of the Study

This study includes five chapters; chapter one includes the introduction and the state of the problem. Chapter two surveys numerous researchers written about anxiety. Chapter three highlights the method of the study. Chapter four exposes to the data analyses and chapter five discusses conclusions, findings, and gives recommendations for further study.
2.0 Background

2.1 General Anxiety

The complex set of negative emotions, which include fear, apprehension and worry and experienced in a variety of situations related to culture and society, is termed anxiety. Anthropology, psychology and education have put a particular evaluation to the concept of anxiety. In the nineteenth century, Darwin (1872) believed that anxiety is an emotional reaction aroused when an organism feels physically under threat. According to Twenge (2002: 1008) “emotions are adaptive- they serve to warn of potential danger and trigger physiological and psychological reactions”. Sigmund Freud (1920) thought of anxiety as a kin to 'fear or fright'. He stated that:

I avoid entering upon the discussion as to whether our language means the same or distinct things by the word anxiety, fear or fright. I think anxiety is used in connection with a condition regardless of any objective, while fear is essentially directed toward an object.(p.343)

Later, (Scovel, 1978) saw anxiety as "a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object". Rholes et al.,( 1985) submitted that anxiety may originate when physical peril is expected, and while both anxiety and depression arise following a loss, anxiety on its own appears when a loss is anticipated. According to May (1977), "anxiety is an emotional
response to threat to some value that the individual holds essential to his existence as a personality”.

A distinction between anxiety and fear was made by Spielberger (1976). He submitted that fear is caused by “a real objective danger in the environment” but the reasons that are behind anxiety may not be known to him/her. Beck (1985) submitted that anxiety is an emotional response originating in a defective perception of danger in the environment. Twenge (2000), suggested that degrees of anxiety fluctuate in accordance with perceived threat. According to him, “anxiety increases as environmental threat increases”, whereas other research submits that the anxiety reaction may over actual threat, that is, the “intensity of emotional reaction is disproportionately greater than the magnitude of objective danger” (Spielberger, 1976, p.6).

Morris et al., (1981) considered general anxiety to comprise “worry and emotionality” in which worry refers to cognitive aspects, such as “negative expectations and cognitive concerns about oneself, the situation at hand, and possible consequences”, and emotionality concerns “one’s perception of the psychological –affective elements of the anxiety experience, that is, indications of autonomic arousal and unpleasant feeling states such as nervousness and tension” (p.451). In Spielberger (1983), anxiety is defined as a “subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (p.1).

The previous section of the review of literature gives a preliminary insight into anxiety in general. The next section will expose to anxiety in academic research and the investigations carried into anxiety in foreign and second languages. It discusses anxiety issues in
the academic field such as; state anxiety, trait anxiety, situational-specific anxiety, facilitating anxiety, debilitating anxiety, anxiety in testing situations and manifestations of anxiety. All these issues are relevant to the study at hand as they explored different types of anxiety experienced by students in English classroom and during tests.

2.2 Language Anxiety

The previous literature on anxiety has attributed anxiety to a number of anxiety-related phenomena such as state anxiety, state anxiety, trait anxiety, situation specific anxiety facilitating anxiety, debilitating anxiety, social anxiety, and etc. there are many kinds of anxiety and language anxiety is associated with many types. Language anxiety is basically consists of nervousness, worry, unpleasant emotions related to second /foreign language learning situations. It is also related to social or cultural specific factors which make anxious language learners.

2.2.1 Definitions of Language Anxiety

In terms of definition, several researchers have offered definitions of foreign language. Clement (1980) defined foreign language anxiety as a "complex construct that deals with learners psychology in terms of their feelings, self-esteem and self-confidence". According to Young (1992) "anxiety is a complicated psychological phenomenon peculiar to language learning. MacIntyre (1995) defined language anxiety as social anxiety. Pappamiliel (2002) said that "language anxiety as social anxiety dependent on the learner's interactions with other people". Pekrum's (1992) theory which was
called Expectancy-value theory of anxiety (EVTA), thinks that "anxiety as related to a person's determination as to whether or not he/she can control a given threatening social situation".

MacIntyre and Gardner (1993) defined language anxiety as:

*The apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of second language with which the individual is not fully proficient. It is, therefore seen as a stable personality trait referring to the personality for an individual to react in a various manner when speaking, listening, reading or writing the second language* (P.5)

(MacIntyre, 1994) also defined anxiety foreign language anxiety as

*the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second or foreign language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning or the worry and negative emotional reaction arousal when learning or using a second or a foreign language.* (P.11)

The aforementioned definitions are built on the claim made by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) that foreign language anxiety is "a phenomenon related to but distinguishable from other specific anxieties". Horwiz, Horwitz and cope were the first to conceptualise foreign language anxiety as a unique type of anxiety specific to foreign language learning. Their theoretical model of foreign language anxiety plays a vital role in language anxiety research, which has made them influential researchers in this field.
2.2.3 State Anxiety and Trait Anxiety

Anxiety has several different kinds. State anxiety and trait anxiety are two of the most well-known types. State anxiety, on the one hand, is fleeting and not an enduring characteristic of an individual’s personality. It is a “transitory state or condition of the organism that varies in intensity and fluctuates over time” (Spielberger, 1966, p. 12). Spielberger (1983) gives as an example of state anxiety the apprehension experienced before taking an examination. Trait anxiety, on the other hand, has been referred to as “a constant condition without a time limitation” (Levitt, 1980, p. 11), and is a stable feature of personality, referring to an “acquired behavioural disposition that predisposes an individual to perceive a wide range of objectively nondangerous circumstances as threatening” (Spielberger, 1966, p. 16).

2.2.4 Situation-Specific Anxiety

MacIntyre and Gardner, (1994) stated that:

Situation-specific anxiety can be considered to be the probability of becoming anxious in a particular type of situation, such as during tests (labeled as ‘test anxiety’), when solving mathematics problems (‘math anxiety’), or when speaking a second language ‘language anxiety’ (p.2).

Oh (1990) thought of foreign language anxiety as a “situation-specific
anxiety experienced by students in the classroom and characterized by self-centred thoughts, feelings of inadequacy, fear of failure, and emotional reactions in the language classroom”. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) put forward the idea that situation-specific anxiety “solidifies” in a language learner as result of suffering state anxiety on several occasions.

As regards investigating anxiety in language learning, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) considered that the situation-specific approach “offers more to the understanding of anxiety because the respondents are queried about various aspects of the situation” Although this approach has the drawback that the anxiety-provoking situation may be thought of in a very general sense (e.g., shyness), in a more restricted sense (e.g., communication apprehension) or extremely precisely (e.g., stage fright) (examples from MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a, p. 91), these researchers considered that the situation-specific approach to the study of foreign or second language anxiety offers “more meaningful and consistent results” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, p. 92).

2.3. Facilitating Anxiety and Debilitating Anxiety

(Alpert et al., and Haber, 1960; Kleinmann, 1977; Scovel, 1978) made a clear distinction between facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety. According to them, facilitating anxiety, as the name suggests, is thought to be a kind of anxiety that improves learning and performance, whereas debilitating anxiety is associated with poor learning and performance. Early, in (1908) Yerkes and Dodson proposed a curvilinear association between
arousal and performance. In their experiment, they taught white mice to enter certain boxes by administering electric shocks at three levels of intensity: weak, medium and strong. The mice learnt most efficiently when given the medium-intensity shocks. This was thought to mean that moderate arousal is optimum in learning situations and the Yerkes-Dodson Law has been represented graphically as an inverted ‘U’-shaped curve, on which it can be seen that moderate arousal enhances performance and reaches a peak at the very top. After that, too much arousal begins to hinder performance again. On the curve it is also seen that no anxiety or very little anxiety is detrimental to performance.

Some early research suggested that different quantities of facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety may be present in the same individual at the same time: Alpert and Haber (1960) asserted that “an individual may possess a large amount of both anxieties, or of one but not the other, or of none of either” (p. 213). (Scovel, 1978) has proposed that facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety may work together. This idea was favoured because of its “common sense viewpoint” maintaining that in normal circumstances facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety “work in tandem, serving simultaneously to motivate and to warn, as the individual groups to learn an ever-changing sequence of new facts in the environment” In the area that is the focus of this study, the learning of a foreign language, language anxiety has usually been thought of as a “debilitating” phenomenon that must be overcome in order for learners to take full advantage of foreign language instruction. Horwitz et al., (1986, p. 129)
2.4 Anxiety in Testing Situations

Anxiety in testing situations is a type of anxiety that has been a focus of investigation for some researchers. Sarason (1978) defined test anxiety as the “tendency to view with alarm the consequences of inadequate performance in an evaluative situation”.

Early research thought of anxiety in testing situations as a “drive” or “emotional responsiveness” (Phillips, 1990, p. 9). Mandler and Sarason (1952) studied the effects of anxiety in an intelligence test and assumed that “learned drives” were functions of test characteristics such as materials and instructions, that these drives involved the need to succeed and to complete the task, and that “learned anxiety drives” were the result of experiences of tests in the past. These researchers asserted that such reactions were manifested as “feelings of inadequacy, helplessness, heightened of somatic reaction, anticipations of punishment or loss of status and esteem, and implicit attempts at leaving the test situation” (p. 166). During preliminary testing, the low-anxiety group fared better, but as learning trials progressed, the “anxiety drive of the high anxiety group tended to improve performance scores” (p. 173).

Some researchers considered test anxiety as a type of trait anxiety. Hancock (2001), reviewing approaches to test anxiety in relevant research, pointed out that this kind of anxiety has been considered as a trait, a “relatively stable personality characteristic that prompts an individual to react to threatening situations with sometimes debilitating, psychological, physiological, and behavioral responses” (p. 284), and that connections have been found between test anxiety and unsatisfactory performance. Some research has indicated directly that “test anxiety routinely causes poor

Other research reported in Hancock’s overview (2001), proposed that test anxiety was detrimental to performance, and lack of it was beneficial to performance. Sarason, et al.,( 1952) cited in Alpert and Haber,( 1960)stated that:

When a stimulus situation contains elements which specifically arouse test or achievement anxiety, this increase in anxiety drive will lead to poorer performance in individuals who have test-irrelevant incompatible or interfering responses in their response repertory. For individuals without such response tendencies, these stimulus elements will raise their general drive level and result in improved performance (p. 561).

In some testing situations, learners’ awareness of an extremely evaluative or competitive atmosphere has been thought to have an adverse influence on performance. Hancock (2001), exploring the influences of test anxiety and of teachers’ testing methods on performance and motivation in learners who were taking a research course, found that highly test-anxious students were “significantly more sensitive to environments in which competition was emphasised and teacher control was evident” (p. 288) than were more test-relaxed students. His findings indicated that all students, whether or not they were test-anxious, performed more unsatisfactorily “under conditions of high evaluative threat” (p. 288).

Time limits in a test also seem to arouse anxiety in some students. Hill and Eaton (1977), discussed in Woolfolk (1995) found that when no time limit was set on a mathematics test, highly-anxious students solved problems as rapidly and as correctly as their more relaxed counterparts. But when a time limit was imposed, highly anxious students made about three times as
many mistakes, took about twice as long to solve each question, and were seen to cheat about twice as many times as less apprehensive learners.

2.5 Three Stages of Language Learning

In language learning situations, anxiety has also been considered to interfere with different points of the learning and performance and/or testing process. Tobias (1986) submitted that anxiety would be a hindrance at three stages: at the input stage, at the processing stage, and at the output stage. The researcher finds it useful to discuss each of the three stages in detail.

2.5.1 Input

The input is the first stage of language learning. It activates the ‘Language Acquisition Device’ (LAD)-an innate language-specific module in the brain- which carries out the further process of language learning (Chomsky cited in Lightbown and Spada, 2006: 38). Anxiety at the input stage; the (input anxiety) refers to the anxiety experienced by the learners when they encounter a new word or phrase in the target language. Input anxiety is receiver’s apprehension when receiving information from auditory and visual clues. Krashen (1985) considering input as a basic stage of language learning asserted in his ‘Input Hypothesis’ that “speech cannot be taught directly but emerges on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input”. What causes incomprehensibility is learners’ ‘affective filter’, i.e. anxiety or lack of confidence – and this prevents utilizing fully the comprehensible input. For successful language acquisition, a learner’s affective filter needs to be lower, otherwise a tense, nervous or bored learner may ‘filter out’ input, making it unavailable for acquisition (Lightbown and Spada, 2006: 37).
‘Affective filter’ at the input stage may reduce the effectiveness of input by restricting the anxious students’ ability to pay full attention to what their instructors say and reduce their ability to represent input internally (Tobias, 1977: cited in Onwueguzie et al., 2000: 475). Learners’ with high level of input anxiety request their instructors to repeat sentences quite frequently compared to their low-anxious counterparts (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994b: cited in 2000: 475). Input anxiety is more likely to cause miscomprehension of the message sent by the interlocutors, which may lead to the loss of successful communication and an increased level of anxiety.

2.5.2 Processing

At the processing stage, (processing anxiety), anxiety is known as "apprehension students experience when performing cognitive operations on new information” (Onwueguzie et al., 2000: 476). Cognitivists working on the ‘Information Processing Model’ have tried to explore how these cognitive operations are performed in human brain. They have explained the learners’ inability to spontaneously use everything they know about a language at a given time (Segalowitz 2003: cited in Lightbown and Spada: 2006: 39).

These psychologists believe that learners have to process information and to ‘pay attention’ to produce any linguistic aspect by using cognitive sources. However, they suggest that there is a limit to how much information a learner can pay attention to or, in other words, there is a limit to the amount of focused mental activity a learner can engage in at one time (p. 39). Speaking, particularly in the target language, requires more than one mental activity at one time like “choosing words, pronouncing them, and stringing them together with the appropriate grammatical markers”, etc.
(2006: 39). In performing these operations while communicating “complex and non-spontaneous mental operations are required” and the failure to do so may “lead to reticence, self consciousness, fear, or even panic” (Horwitz et al., 1986: 128). Similarly, with respect to listening, Chen (2005: 10) reported that students face difficulties in recognizing and matching the pronunciation of the spoken words due to the slow mental processing abilities of some students. “The pronunciation is familiar to me but I forgot what the word is”, as one of his subjects said.

Where limited processing mental capacity may cause anxiety, conversely, anxiety may restrict this operational capacity of the mind, and both together may cause impaired performance or altered behaviour. Researchers have found a recursive or cyclical relationship among anxiety, cognition and behaviour (Leary, 1990; Levitt, 1980: cited in MacIntyre, 1995: 92). The recursive relationship is illustrated in the figure below:
The Cognitive Processing Model can also explain the difficulty learners feel in remembering and retrieving vocabulary items while communicating in the target language - another important source of language anxiety for the EFL/ESL learners. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991b), found a significant negative correlation between language anxiety and ability to repeat a short string of numbers and to recall vocabulary items. This demonstrates that anxiety can limit the use of both short term and long term memory. According to Tobias (1977) “processing anxiety can impede learning by reducing the efficiency with which memory processes are used to solve problems”. (P. 475),
2.5.3 Output

Anxiety while communicating in the target language is more likely to appear at the output stage, which entirely depends upon the successful completion of the previous stages: input, and processing. Anxiety at the output stage refers to learners’ nervousness or fear experienced when required to demonstrate their ability to use previously learned material (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000: 475). According to Tobias the output anxiety involves interference, which is manifested after the completion of the processing stage but before its effective reproduction as output (1977: cited in 2000: 475). ManIntyre and Gardner asserted, “High level of anxiety at this stage might hinder students’ ability to speak… in the target language” (1994, cited in: 2000: 475).

All the three stages of anxiety have been found to be somewhat interdependent; each stage depends on the successful completion of the previous one, which may help defining language-learning process. MacIntyre (1995) stated that:

Language learning is a cognitive activity that relies on encoding, storage, and retrieval processes, and anxiety can interfere with each of these by creating a divided attention scenario for anxious students. Anxious students are focused on both the task at hand and their reactions to it. For example, when responding to a question in 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)

In short, “acquisition of deviant linguistic forms”, as Krashen (1985) believes of faulty input and “slow and no spontaneous mental processes”
(Horwitz, 2001: 114) can explain the difficulties involved in the process of L2/FL learning. This further demonstrates the sources/causes of anxiety experienced by the ESL/EFL learners at the output stage, particularly while speaking in the target language. The description of this process can suggest many implications for language teachers who demand quick answers or expect learners to speak fluently.

2.6 Manifestations of General Anxiety and Academic Anxiety

Many attempts have been made by researchers regarding the issue of manifestations of anxiety in others. It is observed by those researchers that manifestations such as trembling and perspiring are appear in students during oral exams. This section exposes to theories and findings of research in this domain.

According to (Leary 1982; cited in Young, 1991), three main kinds of behaviour arise from anxiety and occur in social situations are: "arousal-mediated responses; disaffiliative behavior; and image-protection behavior". The first behaviours are shown when individuals “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 ibid). Disaffiliative behaviours are seen in “any actions that reduce social interactions” and restrict taking part in conversations. Image-protection behaviour is exemplified by “smiling and nodding frequently, by seldom interrupting others” (Young, 1991, p. 429). Mandler and Sarason (1952) investigated anxiety responses in a test situation. They asked students to
self-report subjective feelings and sensations during the test. Students described reactions such as “uneasiness, accelerated heartbeat, perspiration, emotional interference, and ‘worry’” (p. 167), while the researchers themselves rated anxious behaviour in the participants on a five-point scale “according to five criteria of overt anxiety manifestation (perspiration, excessive movement, inappropriate laughter and exclamations, questioning of instructions, hand movement)” (pp. 168-169).

Von Worde (2003) gave some examples of “physical” and “internal and functional” manifestations of anxiety in foreign language students. Some “physical” reactions were “headaches”, “clammy hands, cold fingers”, “shaking, sweating”, “pounding heart” and “foot tapping, desk drumming”. Some learner comments were: “I clamp up, I get very tense and I start balling my fists”, “my stomach gets in knots”, “I get all red”, “I get really tired”, and “I kind of turtle up and hide from the teacher” (pp. 4-5). “Internal” and “functional” responses to language anxiety in von Worde's (2003) participants were illustrated in the following statement by one student: “I just completely blank out and everything is like a jumble in my head” and by another who said that “the time bomb was ticking in here” and that she was “petrified in that class, just totally petrified” (p. 5). Some students “reacted by losing patience or becoming angry” and some felt that they had to “look ahead in the book.” One participant said that she realized that other students were anxious because when “people start flipping through the book, they don’t know” (von Worde, 2003, p).
2.7 Foreign Language Anxiety

It is clearly and carefully stated that foreign language anxiety should be differentiated from other general performance and academic anxieties since it is not only situation–specific but it is uniquely characterized by dynamic features of language learning in the classroom. Horwitz et al. (1986 P. 125) defined anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with the arousal of the autonomic nervous system". When anxiety is scoped within the research area of second language acquisition it is termed 'foreign language anxiety'.

2.7.1 Uniqueness of Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

Although anxiety (Scovel’s, 1978) research in communication studies has noticeably focused on general performance anxiety, the focus of research on foreign language anxiety has primarily been on situation–specific anxiety. This specific category of anxiety has interested foreign language researchers as it affects language learning. The situation–specific anxiety has been identified as foreign language or language anxiety, experienced during performing in the target language while key terms and models were often taken from communication studies. Early review on anxiety research revealed the difficulties of defining anxiety and its measurement in empirical research, and concluded that early researchers have suffered from the twin problems of how to define anxiety and of how to consistently apply instruments to measure it. Later, Horwitz, and Cope ,(1986) conducted pioneering research about language learning anxiety using a sample of American university students taking various language courses as a degree
requirement, and invented the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) which has been widely used. Horwitz and Cope (Ibid):128) is pointed out that:

*foreign language anxiety should not be simply considered as fears transferred to foreign language learning. Rather, we need to conceive foreign language anxiety as a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process.*

In this sense, Horwitz et al., (1986) research noted that foreign language anxiety should be identified as a conceptually distinct variable, well characterized by uniqueness of dynamic features of language learning in the classroom. In addition, foreign language anxiety is very unique in that foreign language learners often show the disparity between their “true” self and the more “limited” self, often leading to the implication that foreign language anxiety should be distinguished from other academic anxieties such as mathematics or science. Related to this suggestion, Horwitz and Young (1991:31) note that “probably no other field of study implicates self-concept and self-expression to the degree that language study does”
Moreover, foreign language learners experiencing anxiety can be identified as individuals possessing “apprehension, worry, even dread. They have difficulties concentrating, become forgetful, sweat, and have palpitations. They exhibit avoidance behavior such as missing class and postponing homework”. Furthermore, language anxiety has an effect on foreign (or second) language learning and learners’ performance, particularly in cognitive processing. Thus, in the following section, the effect of language anxiety on foreign (or second) language learning will be explored to better understand foreign language anxiety.

2.7.2 Effect of Foreign Language Anxiety on Language Learning

Some research conducted on anxiety and language learning came up with different results. According to (Backman, 1976), there has been a positive association or no relationship with anxiety and foreign or second language learning. (Chastain, et al. 1975) found significant negative correlations between anxiety and foreign or second language learning. His research he showed that course grades in relation to French proficiency were negatively correlated with anxiety. Similarly, et al (1976) found the negative relationship between French class anxiety and one directory of performance among four proficiency measures of French. For French, Swain & Burnaby (1976) indicated that children’s proficiency measure in reading French was found to be negatively correlated with language anxiety.

In fact, language achievements such as proficiency scores or course grades for some languages showed a significantly negative association with language anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991 for French; Horwitz, 1986 for Spanish; Aida, 1994 for Japanese). Conducting a three-year longitudinal study investigating learner variables (i.e., attitude, motivation) to describe
foreign language achievement, Gardner, et al (1976) reported that anxiety during a French lesson was negatively correlated with overall areas of language–skills proficiency (e.g., listening, speaking, writing, global grades).

In addition, among anxiety measures in three languages including French, German and Spanish, (Young, 1990) found that learners’ Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) scores were negatively correlated with a few anxiety measures but that there was no relationship when actually proficiency was controlled. Concerning another study examining oral exams, (Phillips, 1992) showed a moderate negative relationship between foreign language anxiety and the performance scores of oral exams. In the follow–up interview, of the same study indicated that students with high levels of anxiety had a negative attitude in taking the oral exam, and consequently Phillips came to the conclusion that anxiety was a helpful predictor of oral performance and of students’ attitudes for future foreign language learning.

(Similarly, 1994) found that final course grades in the Japanese language course were negatively correlated with foreign language anxiety, particularly in a high–anxiety group; students in a high–anxiety group showed poorer performance of Japanese compared with those in a low–anxiety group. Therefore, it can be recognized that anxiety can negatively affect learners’ foreign language performance.

In the same way, the study conducted by Saito and Samimy investigated how foreign language anxiety was associated with students’ final grades in Japanese courses. In the research, Saito and Samimy (1996) showed that anxiety and language performance were negatively correlated; indicating that increasing awareness of anxiety in using Japanese in the class
resulted in lower grades, and consequently contributed to negative attitudes toward classes. Also, they found that language anxiety was the most prevalent in students at intermediate and advanced proficiency levels.

Although most of research has agreed that language anxiety could negatively affect foreign language achievement (i.e., proficiency scores, course grades), some studies reported mixed results. For instance, (Chastain’s, 1975) study reported a negative relationship between anxiety and proficiency scores on French, but it also revealed a positive correlation between anxiety and proficiency scores on German and Spanish. In other studies, no significant correlation between foreign language proficiency scores or course grades and language anxiety was observed (see Swain and Burnaby, 1976; Tucker, Hamayan, and Genesee, 1976; Young, 1990).

2.7.3 Subtle Effects of Foreign Language Anxiety

Though the studies introduced previously focused on the negative effect of foreign language anxiety on language learners’ performance and proficiency, some studies have begun to pay attention to more subtle effects of language anxiety. As cited in MacIntyre and Gardner (1994b), Horwitz et al. (1986:284) proposed that researchers of foreign language anxiety should note “anxiety’s more subtle effects, that is, the relation between language anxiety and more specific processes involved in language acquisition and communication”.

The studies on more specific effects of foreign language anxiety have revealed that some students are less willing to express themselves or communicate with the class in more specific tasks or in more complicated cognitive processes. As Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) suggest, researchers engaged in the investigation of subtle effects of language anxiety noted “the
effect of environmentally induced anxiety on a more subtle aspect of second language performance: the degree of subjectivity, of personal input, in the second language message".

Steinberg and Horwitz (ibid) conducted a study to induce anxiety by employing a video camera. They found that anxious learners of foreign language tended to express their personal opinions less than their more relaxed counterparts. Similarly, Ely (1986) investigated the relationship between language class discomfort as one type of anxiety and such variables as risk–taking and sociability, and found that learners’ rate of participation and proficiency declined as their degree of discomfort increased.

MacIntyre and Gardner conducted a series of studies (1989, 1991 and 1994). They investigated the more subtle effect of anxiety on foreign language learners’ cognitive processes. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) examined students’ learning of paired associates of French–English vocabulary, and found that highly anxious learners failed to learn vocabulary items faster than less anxious learners. Also, they found that learners with high levels of anxiety were less able to recall learned vocabulary items.

In an attempt to investigate the effect of anxiety, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) adapted Tobias’ (1986) model, indicating that anxiety can negatively affect the learning process since learning is a cognitively mediated process at various stages (i.e., input, processing, and output). The study showed that language anxiety was found to be negatively associated with second language performance on the Digit Span test as a short–term memory measure and on the French Categories test as a vocabulary production measure.
In a vocabulary learning study, similarly to Steinberg and Horwitz (1986), MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) introduced a video camera at various stages of a vocabulary learning task, and found that learners’ poor performance in learning, recalling, and using vocabulary in a functional mode resulted in highly aroused anxiety. Consistent with the findings of previous studies, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994b) investigated the specific characteristics of cognitive processes in each stage of input, processing and output (Tobias, 1979, 1986). The results indicated that language anxiety was negatively related with course grades and scores on standardized achievement tests and the effect of language anxiety at the output stage could be reduced by increased effort at the processing stage.

Supporting Steinberg and Horwitz’s (1986) findings, MacIntyre’s (1995a) suggested that anxiety was found to be important predictor of poor language ability, leading to individual differences. As another effect of anxiety on language proficiency, MacIntyre et al. (1997) found that anxiety may significantly affect to self-assessments of language proficiency by producing systematic biases. They reported that anxious learners tended to underestimate their language competence while relaxed ones tended to overestimate their competence in language use.

However, the results of studies examining the relationship between more subtle effects of anxiety and foreign or second language performances are inconsistent and inconclusive. This may result from the fact that each study considered different variables as Price (1988) noted that “the variation in results is actually not surprising, given that the anxiety–learning relationship is known to be a complex one, affected by a number of variables".
Now, in the following section, general sources of foreign language anxiety are suggested in order to help readers better understand why foreign language learners may feel anxiety in the classroom.

### 2.8 General Sources of Foreign Language Anxiety

A review of the literature suggests that the general sources of foreign language anxiety would be divided into “personal sources” and “interpersonal sources.” Personal sources include perceptions of themselves (i.e., self-concept, self-esteem) and belief about language learning, while interpersonal sources include communication apprehension, competitiveness and teacher–student interaction. However, it should also be noted that some sources in these two categories are not totally independent, but may be highly related each other. For instance, competitive behaviors may be highly associated with test anxiety since some students’ grades are often compared with others’.

#### 2.8.1 Learners’ Personal Sources of Anxiety

Learners’ perceptions of themselves and beliefs about language learning are suggested as major sources of foreign language anxiety, and these two sources are considered to be highly related to language anxiety.

#### 2.8.2 Learners’ Perceptions of Themselves

Learners’ perceptions of themselves are suggested as an important source of anxiety in the foreign language classroom (Foss and Reitzel, 1988; MacIntyre, Noels, and Clément, 1997). Foss and Reitzel (1988) found that anxious students who were anxious during class communication were more inclined to have low self-esteem and that some learners might perceive
themselves as less worthy than others or think of their communication to be less effective than their classmates.

As a personal source of language anxiety, several research studies reported that levels of learners’ self-esteem are highly associated with language anxiety (Bailey, 1983; Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1990, 1992). In addition, Horwitz (1989) suggested that the students’ assessments of themselves may be highly associated with language anxiety. Her research indicated that learners with a more positive self-concept showed lower levels of anxiety than others with a more negative self-concept.

McCoy (1979) also reported that positive self-concept plays an important role to help students learn a foreign language and pronounce strange words. In addition, many researchers have agreed that language learners should have high levels of self-esteem and self-confidence in order to be successful foreign language learners (Chastain, 1975; Truitt, 1995). Implying that self-esteem may be highly related to speaking anxiety, Young (1990) also emphasized that “students with low self-esteem tend to have high levels of language anxiety, communication apprehension, and social anxiety” (p. 541).

2.8.3 Learners’ Beliefs about Language Learning

Learners’ unrealistic beliefs about language learning often cause anxiety and negative expectations for future language learning (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986; Horwitz, 1988). Horwitz et al. (1986) found that many students often believed that “nothing should be said in the foreign language until it can be said correctly and it is not okay to guess an unknown foreign language word” (p. 127). This belief seemed so obvious to them that
it is likely that they would feel anxious when asked to communicate in the foreign language before they were ready.

In addition, Horwitz (1988) reported that students often believed that two years was enough time to be fluent in the foreign language. Therefore, it is evident that students’ unrealistic beliefs about language learning may ultimately produce high levels of anxiety and frustration, when the disparity between these beliefs and reality becomes apparent.

2.9 Learners’ Interpersonal Sources of Anxiety

Communication apprehension, competitiveness and teacher–student interaction in the foreign language classroom are suggested as the sources of learners’ foreign language anxiety in interpersonal settings.

2.9.1 Communication Apprehension

Many studies have demonstrated that communication apprehension has been considered as a major source of foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986; Mettler, 1987; Young, 1990; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991b). Collected from first–year Spanish classes, McCoy’s (1979) list of foreign language anxieties revealed that students’ self–assessment of their inability to communicate in a foreign language was highly associated with communication apprehension.

Price (1991) also argued that learners tended to become communication apprehensive when they speak the target language in front of their peers, and when they were embarrassed since they failed to achieve effective communication. Koch and Terrell (1991) also reported that many students felt high levels of anxiety particularly when they should perform
oral activities such as oral presentations, skits, and role–plays in front of their peers.

Communication apprehension seems to be essentially associated with fear of negative evaluation since students tend to have fears of “being negatively evaluated, in communication situations in the foreign language class not only by their peers, but by the instructor” Young (1990: 550). In addition, Horwitz et al. (1986) also suggest that anxiety can even be generated by “imagined” evaluation.

2.9.2 Competitiveness

Another interpersonal source of foreign language anxiety can be identified as students’ competitiveness. In a diary study to analyze language learners’ anxiety, Bailey (1983: 96) found that competitiveness was a significant indicator of language anxiety since an individual learner perceives himself or herself as “less proficient as the object of comparison”. (Bailey, 1983) also found that competitive behaviors, characterized by comparison to other students’ performance, were present in elevation of anxiety levels.

In many previous studies, supporting Bailey’s (1983) finding, testing is considered to be a significant predictor of language anxiety in the foreign language classroom (McCoy, 1979; Horwitz, 1986, 1989; Daly, 1991; Young, 1991). Daly (1991) suggests that individuals may not feel anxious in speaking the target language until others’ evaluation of their performance is activated.
2.9.3 Teacher–Student Interaction

Teacher–student interaction is another interpersonal source of foreign language anxiety. It includes “error correction” and “type of teacher” which creates quality of the classroom environment. In general, “error correction” tends to make language learners feel uncomfortable. Consistent with the findings of Koch and Terrell’s (1991) study, (Young 1990) found that lack of teachers’ error correction produced discomfort in learners. Despite the lack of error correction, learners seemed to be greatly worried about how their mistakes would be evaluated. (Young, 1990) also found that students reported the necessity of error correction by the teacher. In addition, the type of teacher which determined the atmosphere of the classroom was found to be another important source of foreign language anxiety (Young, 1990; Price, 1991; Aida and Allemand, 1994). Aida and Allemand (1994) found that the quality of classroom environment depends on the instructor. For instance, if the instructor appeared “authoritarian” in the foreign language classroom, this instructor could cause learners to have high levels of anxiety.

2.10 Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Horwitz et al.’s. (1986) “Foreign language classroom anxiety” is a cornerstone study in language anxiety research, aspects of which, such as a definition of this kind of anxiety, a description of its manifestations, theoretical considerations, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, the researchers’ findings, and suggested pedagogical implications, have been all been deepened and widened in subsequent studies.

In this article, Horwitz and her colleagues asserted that up until that date (1986), research had “neither adequately defined foreign language
anxiety nor described its specific effects on foreign language learning” (p. 125). In response to this situation, they reviewed earlier work that had examined the relationship between anxiety in language learning settings, and “found only one instrument specifically designed to measure foreign language anxiety” (p. 126) which was Gardner, Clément, Smythe, and Smythe’s five items designed to measure anxiety in the French classroom, and which was included in their Attitudes and Motivation Battery (1979)

2.10.1 Definition of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Arising out of discussions with beginner foreign language students about anxiety experiences at the Learning Skills Centre at the University of Texas, Horwitz and her colleagues described the physiological and psychological symptoms of this phenomenon, many of which occur in anxious states in general: “tenseness, trembling, perspiring, palpitations, and sleep disturbances” (p. 129). In language learners, anxiety was also observed in such symptoms as “freezing” in class, “going blank” before exams, and feeling reticence about entering the classroom (p. 128). The researchers noted how these learners “experience apprehension, worry, even dread. They have difficulty concentrating, become forgetful, sweat, and have palpitations. They exhibit avoidance behavior such as missing class and postponing homework (p. 126). These observations and discussions led Horwitz et al. to put later a definition of foreign language classroom anxiety as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128).
2.10.2 The Theory of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

From a theoretical viewpoint, Horwitz and her fellow researchers submitted that as language anxiety implies “performance evaluation” (p. 127), it was worthwhile “drawing parallels between it and three related performance anxieties: 1) communication apprehension; 2) test anxiety; and 3) fear of negative evaluation” (p. 127).

As the name suggests, the first aspect refers to “shyness” experienced when an individual is required to communicate with others, whether in listening (“receiver anxiety”) or speaking (“oral communication anxiety”) (p. 127). In the foreign language classroom especially, a student may be apprehensive about not being able to control what is happening in communicative activities and may feel that others are always evaluating his/her interventions.

The second aspect, test anxiety, arises from a “fear of failure” (p. 127). Students who suffer from such kind of anxiety, frequently “put unrealistic demands on themselves and feel that anything less than a perfect test performance is a failure” (p. 128). Horwitz and her co-workers suggested that oral tests may arouse in students both these types of anxiety (communication apprehension and test anxiety) at the same time.

The third facet, fear of negative evaluation, is considered by Horwitz et al. to be “apprehension about others’ evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectations that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (p. 128), citing Watson and Friend (1969, p. 448). While fear of negative evaluation is like test anxiety to some extent, it is more far-reaching in that it applies to any “social, evaluative” (p. 128) context in which the
individual worries about the possibly unfavourable impression s/he is making on others, such as in the foreign language classroom, where both teacher and peers may appear to be neverendingly assessing her/his performance.

The authors emphasise that foreign language anxiety is not just an aggregate of these three anxieties, but a ‘unique’ anxiety as postulated in their definition given above, utterly different from those that might be experienced in other fields of learning, because of the socio-cultural and linguistic demands imposed on the language learner that are “likely to challenge an individual’s self-concept as a competent communicator and lead to reticence, self-consciousness, fear, or even panic” (p. 128).

2.10.3 Measurement of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Importantly for subsequent research, Horwitz and her colleagues developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), which contains 33 items to be answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale, from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.”

It has been shown to have an internal reliability of .93 and test-retest reliability over eight weeks of $r = .83, p = .001$ (Horwitz, 1986, p. 560). Horwitz et al., (1986) results of their study, which was conducted with 75 university students of Spanish (beginner level), explored that “students with debilitating anxiety in the foreign language classroom setting can be identified and that they share a number of characteristics in common” (p. 129).
2.10.4 Horwitz et al.’s (1986) Results and Conclusions

Results arising from the administration of the FLCAS indicated that almost half the students were anxious about speaking, and over a third were worried when they could not understand everything the teacher said. Almost two-fifths were sure that other students were more proficient language learners than they were, and well over half were concerned that they could not keep up with the pace of the language lesson. Over two-thirds of students indicated that they felt uneasy about making mistakes, and a tenth of the participants feared being ridiculed by other students when they spoke in the target language.

The authors’ hypotheses that “foreign language anxiety is a distinct set of beliefs, perceptions, and feelings in response to foreign language learning in the classroom and not merely a composite of other anxieties”, and that anxious students feel “uniquely unable to deal with the task of language learning” (p. 130), were given more support by responses to two of the items on the questionnaire: “30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language”, with which 34% of students expressed agreement, and “26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes”, which was endorsed by 38% of the participants. This item was “found to be the single best discriminator of anxiety on the FLCAS as measured by its correlation with the total score” (p. 130).

In their conclusion, the authors stated that foreign language anxiety may invoke a variety of individual reactions: from not speaking in class, sitting at the back of the classroom in an attempt not to be called on by the teacher, and putting off doing homework. Horwitz and her colleagues encountered a range of responses from delays in starting foreign language
study or even switches in university degree courses (in highly anxious students), to a complete lack of apprehension in the foreign language classroom (in students who experienced low or no language anxiety). As speaking is the skill which appeared to be the most threatening to language learners, the researchers submitted that the present communicative classroom environment is a potentially anxiety-arousing one for many students.

### 2.10.5 Investigations Used the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

Since the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety was identified and the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was devised by Horwitz and her associates (1986), the FLCAS has been constantly employed by investigators in numerous investigations. Horwitz et al.’s original study involved Anglophone learners of Spanish in their first year at University. In other studies, language anxiety and its relationships to performance have been explored at different levels of instruction: beginner, intermediate, and advanced (Saito and Samimy, 1996), with learners who exhibited different degrees of anxiety: low-, average-, and high-anxious students (Ganschow, Sparks, Anderson, Javorshy, Skinner, and Patton, 1994), and in the investigation of the stability of language anxiety in learners who were studying two languages simultaneously (Rodríguez and Abreu, 2003). Much research into anxiety and the four skills has used the FLCAS: in listening (Kim, 2000; Elkafaifi, 2005), in speaking test situations (Phillips, 1992), in reading in the foreign language (Saito, Horwitz, and Garza, 1999) and in reading in Spanish (Sellers, 2000), in writing (Cheng, 2002), and in distinguishing elements of anxiety in the speaking and the
writing skills (Cheng, Horwitz and Schallert, 1999). Some researchers have used this scale in investigating cognitive, affective, personality, and demographic variables associated with anxiety (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Daley, 1999, 2000). Others have explored anxiety in connection with students’ language learning style (Bailey, Daley and Onwuegbuzie, 1999), with perfectionism (Gregeren and Horwitz, 2002), and with language errors (Gregeren, 2003).

Many researchers have used the FLCAS in its original form in their investigations for students of a variety of target languages e.g. (Aida, 1994; Bailey et al., 1999; and Elkhafaifi, 2005) and others. For effective use of the scale, it was translated into participants’ mother tongue and adapted to suit different needs (Pappamihiel, 2001).

12.10.6 The Reliability of the FLCAS

As the FLCAS has been employed so widely in language anxiety studies (in its original form, or translated, or adapted) I , the researcher of this study was also interested in using it in this research. It has been observed to be very reliable (Horwitz, 1986; Aida, 1994; Rodríguez and Abreu, 2003), and like other investigators (Cheng, 2002; Cheng et al., 1999; Rodríguez and Abreu, 2003), the researcher wished to use a translated version to cater for the mother tongue (Arabic) of my participants.

In the first study in which the FLCAS appeared it was asserted that this scale had been shown to have internal reliability, with an alpha coefficient of .93. (Horwitz et al., 1986), p. 129).

There follow two detailed descriptions of studies in which the FLCAS
was employed and its high reliability further established: one (Aida, 1994), in which it was used in its English form with Anglophone students whose target language was Japanese, and another (Rodríguez and Abreu, 2003), in which it was translated into Spanish for Venezuelan students who were studying French and English.

Horwitz et al.’s (1986) construct of foreign language anxiety, which arose through a study involving Anglophone learners of Spanish, was tested in a different language context, that is, with Anglophone students of Japanese (Aida, 1994). The main purpose of the study was to explore Horwitz et al.’s construct of foreign language anxiety by scrutinising an adapted FLCAS for students of Japanese, with the aim of discovering whether its structure showed the three aspects of anxiety mentioned in Horwitz et al.’s study (communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation). The investigation evaluated the reliability of the FLCAS, and also explored the links between level of anxiety, learner variables, and students’ performance in Japanese. Participants were 96 students of second-year Japanese I at a North American university. On the first day of fall semester, the participants completed the FLCAS, adapted so that the term “foreign language” was given as “Japanese” throughout the scale, and gave their answers about anxiety experienced in the previous year’s (Japanese I) course. On the first day of the next semester (spring), the students who had passed on to Japanese II were asked to complete FLCAS once more. Fifty-four did so. In order to obtain test-retest reliability over one semester, the two scores (fall and spring) were correlated. A high and statistically significant correlation was found \( r = .80, p < .01 \) “indicating that the FLCAS measures a person’s level of anxiety with high accuracy at different times” (p. 159). This led the author to speculate that the FLCAS
may measure a person’s anxiety as a stable trait over time and not as a state aroused at a particular moment by a specific situation, that is, it “may tap a person’s persistent trait anxiety” (p. 159).

A factor analysis was carried out to detect an “underlying structure of FLCAS’s thirty-three items” (p. 159). Four factors were produced. The first factor was Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation, which indicated students’ nervousness about speaking in the Japanese classroom and making mistakes in front of others. The second factor was labelled Fear of Failing in Class, and was thought to “show a student’s worry and nervousness about being left behind in the class or failing the class altogether” (p. 159). This was described by the researcher as the factor Comfortableness in Speaking with Japanese People, and the fourth factor Negative Attitudes toward the Japanese Class. The FLCAS items were grouped by Aida into the four Factors specified above, as well as Factor Five (Items Not Included in the Factor Solution).

According to Aida, this investigation lent weight to Horwitz et al.’s (1986) foreign language anxiety construct in students of Japanese, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale showing an internal consistency of .94. She submitted that the results of her study showed that the FLCAS is a reliable instrument whether or not the target language is European-Western, but that they did not support the test anxiety component proposed in Horwitz et al.’s (1986) construct. Perhaps this was due to the fact that she used final grades as a measure of achievement, which may not have been as anxiety-provoking as an oral test.

An investigation which “indicated that the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale exhibited high reliability” was Rodríguez and Abreu’s (2003, p. 165) work, in which the stability of general foreign
classroom anxiety across two languages (English and French) was examined.

The research question asked by the researchers was whether general foreign language anxiety was the same for two languages that were being studied at the same time by college students.

Participants were 110 trainee language teachers who were studying French and English as main subjects at two Venezuelan universities. Females accounted for 91 participants and males for 19. They were between the ages of 16 to 40, and none had language difficulties. Students were at various levels in the two languages, and of the 110 participants, 76 (69.09%) were of the same proficiency in both English and French.

The researchers employed two Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scales (Horwitz et al., 1986), translated into Spanish, one for each of the target languages, French and English, and respectively. Each translated scale had a high Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .90 (p. 367). Rodríguez and Abreu also used a demographic questionnaire to obtain data about participants’ “gender, age, language level, and college affiliation” (p. 366).

In class time, students completed the FLCAS versions for French and English, and the background questionnaire. The order of administration of the two FLCAS instruments was counterbalanced.

Not all of the participants were at the same level in both languages, so a “restricted data set” (p. 367) from the 76 students whose proficiency was the same in both French and English was examined for stability of language anxiety. The researchers considered that if results were the same for the full data set and the restricted data set, then “confidence could be taken in the findings” (p. 367).

No statistically significant differences were encountered in general
French anxiety and general English anxiety in all participants when the two universities were considered either together or on their own. Nor were statistically significant differences found in the smaller number of participants (n = 76) who were at the same language level in French and in English, either when both institutions were considered together or when taken separately.

Rodríguez and Abreu found that differences in levels of their participants’ French anxiety and English anxiety “overall, within-institution and within-levels” were not statistically significant, and compared these findings to those of Saito et al. (1999), who similarly encountered no significant differences in levels of general anxiety in the participants of their study (who were in three groups, each studying a different foreign language).

In spite of the statistically nonsignificant differences between levels of anxiety in French and in English, a slightly higher level of French anxiety was observed. The researchers put this down to the fact that the participants had studied French for fewer years, and so were presumably less competent in that language.

Rodríguez and Abreu concluded that their findings made an important contribution to the language anxiety arena “by extending the reliability and validity aspects of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale to new populations, native Spanish-speaking students simultaneously learning two foreign languages; English and French” (p. 373).
2.11 Language Anxiety and Language Achievement

This section surveys what other investigators had found out regarding the association between language anxiety and achievement.

Numerous researchers have suggested that language anxiety might have its roots in numerous aspects of the language learning situation (e.g., unknown material, instructors’ methods and attitudes, perceived negative evaluation on the part of peers and teachers, fear of tests). It would seem logical that a poor capacity for learning languages might also be a cause of anxiety. Horwitz (2001) points out: “It is easy to conceptualize foreign language anxiety as a result of poor language learning ability. A student does poorly in language learning and consequently feels anxious about his/her language class” (p. 118).

However, it may be that anxiety is not only the result of poor language ability and achievement, but also that anxiety itself may interfere with existing language ability and therefore be a cause of poor language learning and performance. Supporting this view, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) submitted in their evaluation of Horwitz et al.’s (1986) theory that their own results “tended to indicate that anxiety leads to deficits in learning and performance” (p. 271), and more forthrightly, the same authors later (1991) stated: “language anxiety consistently, negatively affects language learning and production” (p. 302). Researchers have been interested in exploring its relationships with achievement in the foreign or second language. Indeed, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993b) called language anxiety “the best single correlate of achievement” (p. 183).
According to Horwitz (2001), once investigators started using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al. 1986), “findings concerning anxiety and language achievement have been relatively uniform” (p. 114), that is, anxiety has usually been seen to be detrimental to students’ learning and achievement in second and foreign languages. Researchers employing the FLCAS and “other specific measures of second language anxiety have found a consistent moderate negative correlation between the FLCAS and measures of second language achievement (typically final grades)” (Horwitz, 2001, p. 114), other anxiety measures being, for example, the French Class Anxiety Scale (Gardner et al., 1979) the French Use Anxiety Scale (Gardner et al., 1979), the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (Kim, 2000), the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (Saito et al., 1999), the Second Language Writing Anxiety Scale (Daly and Miller, 1975), and the English Language Anxiety Scale (Pappamihiel, 2001). Horwitz (2001) referred to Steinberg and Horwitz’s (1986) thought that final exam marks might be inconsistent, and to their recommendation that investigators should employ “more subtle achievement measures to capture the true effects of anxiety” (Horwitz, 2001, p. 115). Similarly, Gardner and MacIntyre encouraged “including many different measures of second language achievement in studies concerned with affective correlates of achievement” (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993b, p. 182). While some researchers have indeed used a variety of measures (either in the laboratory or in the classroom) others have employed exam scores or final grades as a measure of achievement.
2.11.1 Language Anxiety and Expectations of Success in Language Learning

Some studies tried to examine students’ estimations of their own language achievement and their expectations about how they would fare in exams and tests. This is because anxiety has been seen to be associated not only with students’ actual achievement as assessed by grades, tests, and/or other measures, but also with their self-perceptions of achievement and expectations of success in the learning of the foreign or second language.

Horwitz (1986) found that correlations between FLCAS scores and students’ actual foreign language exam marks were similar to those encountered between FLCAS scores and their expectations of marks (p. 561). In order to counteract anticipated poor results on tests, anxious language students might study too much. Horwitz et al. (1986) gave as an example of this tendency the case of a learner of Spanish who studied eight hours every day and yet did badly on her exam (p. 127).
2.11.2 Language Anxiety as a Cause or an Effect of Language Achievement

States of uneasiness, nervousness, and indeed distress in many language-learning situations, have been observed by the researcher of this study, encouraged one to see if these reactions might be attributable to poor language ability, or conversely, whether poor language ability might be responsible for these reactions.

Many writings about language anxiety suggest that it is difficult to ascertain whether anxiety is a cause or an effect of poor foreign and second language learning and achievement, although (Horwitz, 2001) points out that when using the FLCAS, investigators have found a “consistent moderate negative correlation” between this scale and performance.

Language anxiety researchers who have used correlational procedures have been unable to confirm the directionality of cause and effect. Aida (1994) used both correlation and analyses of variance in a study involving learners of Japanese. She discovered that students who were more highly anxious tended to receive lower grades but maintained that “due to the correlational nature of this study, the results of the ANOVA do not prove that a cause-effect relationship exists between anxiety and achievement in Japanese” (p. 164)

(MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a), concluded their survey of anxiety studies in relation to ways of evaluating language proficiency, with different populations and from various theoretical viewpoints. They stated that “it has been shown that anxiety negatively effects [sic] performance in the second
language”, but later in the same article they asserted that the “most satisfactory solution” to the problem of cause and effect is Levitt’s (1980) model of reciprocal causation.
(MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991) further explained causation between language anxiety and achievement and stated that:

After several language experiences with the second language context, the student forms attitudes that are specific to the situation, that is, emotions and attitudes about learning a new language. If these experiences are negative, foreign language anxiety may begin to develop. As negative experiences persist, foreign language anxiety may become a regular occurrence and the student begins to expect to be nervous and to perform poorly. This foreign language anxiety is based on negative expectations that lead to worry and emotionality. This leads to cognitive interference from self-derogatory cognition that produces performance deficits. Poor performance and negative emotional reactions reinforce the expectations of anxiety and failure, further anxiety being a reaction to this perceived threat., (p.110).

2.11.3 A Recursive Effect in the Relationships between Language Anxiety and Achievement

Several researchers have agreed with MacIntyre and Gardner’s (1994a, p. 110) position, cited in the previous paragraph, maintaining that there is a recursive effect or a ‘vicious circle’ of influences between language anxiety and achievement in the foreign and second language an.

Saito and Samimy (1996), examined Horwitz et al.’s (1986) construct of language anxiety in Japanese involving learners at three levels of instruction (beginner, intermediate, and advanced). They found that highly anxious students “tended to over study” (p. 246), as did Horwitz et al. (1986), but that frequently this extra time spent studying did not pay
dividends as regards performance, resulting in a “downward spiral of ever more effort for diminishing results” (p. 246).

MacIntyre et al. (1997), in a study about language learners’ self-perceptions of achievement, submitted that more highly-anxious students are prone to underestimate their linguistic abilities, and that as these students fail to see that they are making progress in language learning, they might be “more reluctant to speak” (p. 278), thus damaging their potential performance through lack of practice, and starting a vicious circle of deficits in which language anxiety and poorer competence seem to fuel each other.

In an exploration into factors associated with foreign language anxiety (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999), found that high anxiety was related to expectations of poorer course grades, lower perceived self-worth and lower perceived scholastic competence. These negative expectations were to some extent based on fact, but anxiety seemed to lead to expectations that were even more negative, leading in turn to decreased effort and poor motivation. The notion of a ‘vicious circle’ was again expressed in the possibility of a ‘see-saw’ effect seen in the “recursive relationship” between anxiety and self-perceptions (p. 228).

The idea of a “vicious circle” of learning problems centring around self-confidence and language anxiety also came to light in a study by Cheng et al. (1999, p. 437), in which the authors attempted to tease out different elements of anxiety in speaking and in writing. In their estimation, students with poor self-confidence are likely to feel little assurance about their capability to learn another language. These low expectations as regards L2 success will give rise to anxiety, which will be likely to encumber their performance, leading to feelings of even greater insecurity.
2.12 Language Anxiety in Relation to the Four Language Skills

This section was specified to highlight the relationship between anxiety and the four language skills; that is the productive skills (speaking and writing) and the receptive skills (listening and reading).

2.12.1 Language Anxiety in the Listening Skill

The state of anxiety experienced by language learners when listening to the foreign or second language has inspired researchers to pay attention to it. According to Krashen (1976) listening or the extracting meaning from messages in L2 was the “primary process in the development of a second language”. (Krashen, 1980) postulated that anxiety formed an “affective filter” that interfered with an individual’s capacity to receive and process oral messages successfully. (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994a) gave an important definition of language anxiety involve not only speaking, but also listening. They said that “Language anxiety can be defined as the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning”.

In Horwitz et al.’s (1986) study, counsellors at the Learning Skills Centre at the University of Texas reported that many students were anxious when listening to the L2, and had “difficulties in discriminating the sounds and structures of a target language message”. One student said that he heard “only a loud buzz” when his instructor was speaking. Another anxious student also told of problems with comprehending the content of L2 messages and with understanding their teachers in “extended target language utterances” (p. 126).
One of the components of foreign language anxiety, as proposed by rs (Horwitz et al., 1986), is “communication apprehension”, that is, a “type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people” A manifestation of communication apprehension is “difficulty … in listening to or learning a spoken message”.

In the same study, it was also reported that in answering the FLCAS, fewer students claimed to be anxious about listening than about speaking, but even so, the proportion was quite considerable. Over one third (35%) of the participants expressed their fear of not being able to “understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language” (item 4), and over a quarter (27%) said they were nervous when they did not “understand every word” uttered by the teacher (item 29) (Horwitz et al., 1986, pp. 129130).

Vogely (1998) carried out a descriptive study involving Anglophone university students of Spanish, centring exclusively on what she termed “listening comprehension anxiety” She aimed to report classroom practices that aroused foreign language listening comprehension (LC) anxiety in students and to offer solutions that might alleviate listening anxiety as proposed by students. On a questionnaire, students wrote whether or not they experienced anxiety when listening in language class, what things made them feel anxious during listening exercises, and what they thought helped reduce listening anxiety. Students' responses resulted in four sources of anxiety. These sources are: “listening comprehension anxiety associated with; characteristics of foreign language input; processing-related aspects of foreign language; instructional factors; and that which attributes of the teacher or learner”.

As far as features of input were concerned, the speed of delivery, bad diction, variety of accents and teachers who spoke too quietly were reported
causes of listening comprehension anxiety. Exercises that were too complex, unknown vocabulary, difficult syntax and unfamiliar topics were other sources of listening comprehension anxiety. Students feel anxious when they did not know what was required in the listening activity. Some students claimed that a help form a visual aid was necessary to help with the listening task. They also reported that they feel anxious if they could only listen to tasks twice before having to respond.

Kim (2000). Carried out an investigate on 238 on Korean university students of English. She tried to explore the association between listening comprehension and anxiety in her sample. She designed a measurement which she called the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale. The scale consists of 33 items, each five Likert-type response from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Her data analysis produce two factors "tension and worry over English listening and lack of confidence in listening".

Open-ended questions and interviews in the same study revealed that learners about "speed, pronunciation, intonation, acoustic conditions, length of the listening text and level of vocabulary". The study revealed other factors of listening anxiety such as the interlocutors; gender or number of speakers, previous knowledge, learning style of the of the listener, the process of listening and the effectiveness or choice of listening strategies. Kim also found that learners were "sensitive to both type of listening passages and kinds of tasks". Listening to authentic tasks like a news bulletin and by such related features as "background noise, hesitations, turn-taking, false starts, or irregular pauses which occur in natural speech were found by Kim to arouse listening anxiety. The researches attributed this to the lack of exposure to authentic listening passages when students take
English as a compulsory or elective subject as part of their humanities or science degree course. Dictation and identifying details of listening tasks were also found to cause tension.

Elkhafaifi (2005) examined listening anxiety from a quantitative viewpoint, using two scales, and also taking into account some student variables, such as gender. In his investigation on listening anxiety, he examined 233 North American university learners of Arabic using a 20-item listening anxiety scale. Elkhafaifi employed this scale, as well as the FLCAS, General Grade, Listening Grade, and several learner variables, in order to ascertain whether listening anxiety was distinct from general language anxiety, whether learning anxiety and listening anxiety were related to general language performance, and to listening achievement in the foreign language. In his research, he encountered a statistically significant and positive association between general language anxiety and listening anxiety indicating that “students with higher levels of FL anxiety tended to have higher levels of listening anxiety and vice versa” (Elkhafaifi, 2005, p. 211). Both listening anxiety and classroom anxiety correlated significantly and negatively with General Grade and with Listening Grade.

Elkhafaifi submitted that there was a “reasonable amount of overlap” between the two anxiety measures, as they shared about 44% of the variance, but about 56% of the variance was not shared. This led him to assert that listening anxiety was a distinct phenomenon from general foreign language anxiety. In addition, he contrasted his findings concerning differences in general anxiety as regards gender females in the present study being found to be more apprehensive than males in general anxiety with Aida’s (1994) results, in which no such differences were found. Elkhafaifi pointed out that the dissipation of Arabic anxiety in general and in listening
observed in his higher-level participants was in line with MacIntyre and Gardner’s (1991a) results, but not with Saito and Samimy’s (1996) findings.

2.12.2 Language Anxiety in the Speaking Skill

Like many other language teachers the researcher's concern has been to observe students’ apprehension during oral activities and especially during oral tests. This state of interest opened one's mind to know about how other researchers had delved into this important issue. The literature suggests that the speaking skill is extremely anxiety-provoking in many language students and that it is often to seen to arouse more anxiety than the other skills. According to Daly (1991, cited in von Worde, 2003) “fear of giving a speech in public exceeded such phobias as fear of snakes, elevators, and heights”. When students speak or being asked by their teachers to speak in the foreign language classroom, reactions such as “distortion of sounds, inability to reproduce the intonation and rhythm of the language, freezing up when called on to perform, and forgetting words or phrases just learned or simply refusing to speak and remaining silent” (Young, 1991, p. 430). (Young, 1991) carried the concern of an anonymous student’s lamentation on speaking in the foreign language in the classroom:

“I dread going to Spanish class. My teacher is kind of nice and it can be fun, but I hate it when the teacher calls on me to speak. I freeze up and can’t think of what to say or how to say it. And my pronunciation is terrible. Sometimes I think people don’t even understand what I’m saying”. (p. 539).
Students said that they had "most problems in the listening and the speaking skills, with difficulty in speaking in class" Horwitz et al. (1986 p. 126). Learners also said that they did not feel too apprehensive during drills or about speaking if they had time to plan their spoken interventions, but would freeze if they had to speak spontaneously (ibid). In this study, almost half the participants (49%) agreed with FLCAS item 9 (“I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class”), a third (33%) concurred with item 27 (“I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class”), over a quarter (28%) expressed agreement with item 24 (“I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students”), and almost a half (47%) disagreed with item 18 (“I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class”) (p. 129). Classroom activities and the learning/teaching environment were found to be anxiety-provoking factors on students’ performance in speaking. The majority of Young’s (1990) university-level and high-school learners of Spanish indicated that they felt less uncomfortable in speaking activities when they came to class prepared and when they were “not the only person answering a question”. Most would prefer to offer responses orally themselves “instead of being called on to give an answer”. The majority of students said that they would be less nervous about oral exams if they had “more practice speaking in class”, and most expressed a wish to have their errors corrected. When participative classroom activities were ordered according to comfort/nervousness felt by students i.e. moderately relaxed, neither anxious nor relaxed, moderately anxious, four out of five moderately anxious activities involved the speaking skill: “Present a prepared dialog in front of the class. Make an oral presentation or skit in front of the class. Speak in front of the class. Role play a situation spontaneously in front of the class”.

75
Koch and Terrell (1991) found that activities which are “designed to minimize stress”, such as role-plays and charades, aroused a great deal of anxiety in their students.

In addition, anxiety has been reported to influence not only grammatical precision but also interpretive ability. In an investigation "induced anxiety” was involved by Steinberg and Horwitz’s (1986). The researchers asked Spanish-speaking learners of English to describe pictures. Half of the participants were welcomed sympathetically by the interviewer in a comfortable environment, in an attempt to put them at their ease, whereas the other half were received coldly in an uncomfortable setting with a video camera filming them ,in an attempt to arouse nervousness and apprehension. The researchers measured the amounts of “denotative content” and “interpretive content” in participants’ descriptions and found that those in the anxiety-inducement group employed significantly less interpretive language than did the participants who had not undergone anxiety-inducement. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) considered that these findings “suggested reluctance on the part of anxious students to express personally relevant information in a foreign language conversation”.

Hortwitz et al. (1986) noted that students who are apprehensive about making mistakes in front of others “seem to feel constantly tested and to perceive every correction as a failure”. The same researchers recounted how anxious language students frequently forget what they know in a test or in a speaking activity. Speaking tests seem to be particularly anxiety-provoking, as they probably arouse simultaneously the three sources of language anxiety, "communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety" Horwitz et al. (1986). As MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) point out: “Foreign language tests, given orally, likely evoke test anxiety as well as
communication apprehension”.

Young (1986) conducted a study on 60 Anglophone, university students whose main subject was French, German, or Spanish. Participants were given an Oral Proficiency Interview and two months later 32 of these participants were administered a “dictation test” employed to evaluate “subjects’ global language proficiency”. After both the interview and the dictation, students’ completed four anxiety measures: the State Anxiety Inventory (SAI, Spielberger, 1983), the Cognitive Interference Questionnaire (CIQ, Wine, 1980), a Self-Report of Anxiety measure, the Foreign Language Anxiety Scale of Reactions (FLASR) and some items created especially for this study.

When partial correlations were carried out controlling for ability scores, however, correlations ceased to be significant, leading Young to assert that “once the effect of an individual’s language proficiency was accounted for, oral performance would no longer be expected to decrease as anxiety increased ”and that “ability, not anxiety, was the more important variable affecting Oral Proficiency Interview scores” . She attributed this result to the fact that the examination was unofficial, and so the participants were “not terribly anxious” and she called for this study to be replicated within the setting of an official exam. If anxiety were still seen to be significantly and negatively correlated with oral performance in such circumstances, Young believed that “this could be due to test anxiety and not necessarily to anxiety from speaking in a foreign language”. Young also speculated that individuals with poorer language proficiency would experience higher levels of anxiety, and urged more research to be carried out into the “interactive, cause/effect aspects of the anxiety/proficiency relationship”.

77
Phillips (1990, 1992) had an attempt to assess the influence of anxiety on students’ performance in an oral test. She carried out correlations between oral exam grades and language anxiety and evaluated eight criteria pertaining to the oral exam. She tried to find out if aspects of language ability, and not just anxiety, might be influencing poorer grades, by means of partial correlations. In addition, she conducted analyses of variance to discover if there were significant differences in mean oral exam grades in three anxiety groups of low, of moderate, and of high anxiety. Finally, she conducted one-to-one interviews to find out about highly anxious students’ reactions to the oral exam.

Phillips’s 44 participants were studying French as a required subject, with ages ranging from 17 to 21. Thirty-five were women, and nine were men. A four-skill methodology was employed in class and ample time was dedicated to “communicative practice of the type required for the oral exam, e.g., role-play and open-ended speech acts”

On the first day of class a questionnaire was administered in order to identify students who experienced “high anxiety levels during oral class work and oral testing”. On the basis of the participants responses given on that questionnaire, six students, three high ability, and three low-ability, were selected for interviews about anxiety experienced in oral activities.

During the third week of class, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986) was administered. Towards the end of the semester, the teacher examined a list of all the participating students, and “rank-ordered them without referring to their grades according to her evaluation of their global language competence in the four skill areas”. Phillips pointed out that “ties were allowed and therefore, she classified her
44 participants into eighteen levels.

During the eleventh week of the semester, oral exams were held individually between the professor and each student. The exam was “designed to be communicative and open-ended”, and was in two parts. In the first part the student was invited to “talk freely” about a cultural topic, prompts were given to the student where needed. The second part was a role-play between the student and teacher, in which the student was “expected to lead the conversation as much as possible”. All the exams were recorded on audio-tape.

Immediately after their oral exam, the six selected highly anxious students were asked to stay behind and talk about their “feelings and thoughts experienced as they took the exam”. These think-alouds were also recorded and later transcribed.

Oral exam scores were noted. Tape scripts of the oral exams were transcribed and an analysis of eight performance criteria pertaining to each exam was made.

Correlation results between Oral Exam Grades and FLCAS scores showed a statistically significant and negative association suggesting that students who exhibited higher levels of language anxiety performed more poorly in their oral exam than did their more relaxed counterparts. When partial correlations were carried out, controlling for students’ Written Exam Average, for Teacher Ranking, and for Written Exam Average and Teacher Ranking taken together, the correlation between the Oral Exam Grade and FLCAS no longer reached statistical significance. Correlational analyses conducted between FLCAS scores and the eight Performance Criteria variables showed four negative and statistically significant correlations “confirming that students with higher language anxiety tended to say less,
tended to produce shorter communication units and to use fewer dependent clauses and target structures than low anxiety students”.

Partial correlations conducted on these four statistically significant correlations controlling for Written Exam Average, for Teacher Ranking, and for Written Exam Average and Teacher Ranking taken together, showed that three of them remained significant when Written Exam Average was eliminated. All that led Phillips to submit that “language anxiety was related to the three performance variables for this oral test while ability contributed significantly to all performance criteria”.

An analysis of variance involving students grouped at three levels of anxiety; high, moderate and low, showed significant differences among groups for mean scores on two of the eight performance variables. For number of dependent clauses, there was a significant difference between the high and low anxiety groups and for average number of words per communication unit. There was a significant difference “between students in low and moderate anxiety groups and between students in low and high anxiety groups”. Phillips asserted that the low-anxious students tended to produce a significantly greater amount of dependent clauses and significantly more extensive communication units than those in the other two groups moderate and high anxiety.

Results of the interviews held after the oral exam proved that both high- and low-ability anxious students had found the oral exam to be a “very unpleasant experience”, even though the teacher had attempted to make students feel relaxed, and topics and structures had been amply practised before the exam. Anxious students of both abilities used words like “blank, panicky, nervous and intimidated” to describe their feelings. One high ability student even broke down while answering the first exam question and
recording had to be suspended while she composed herself. She was “reluctant” to listen to the recording of the exam, and merely talked about her feelings: she had felt so nervous because she “couldn’t remember how to say things”, and she could not stop thinking that she was a “failure”. Even so, she received a very high mark (90 marks) on the test. The researcher attributed the negative correlations” encountered between language anxiety and students’ performance on the oral exam to the fact that the FLCAS did not specifically evaluate anxiety associated with the exam.

Language anxiety was compared by Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) in the oral skill to perfectionism. The researchers took into consideration that perfectionists have ambitious performance objectives and are very self-critical, and that in second or foreign language learning such demands can foster language anxiety. Gregersen and Horwitz’s wanted to “identify instances of perfectionism” in anxious language learners, and to ascertain whether such indications of perfectionism were less likely to occur in low-anxious language students. The study also examined students’ responses to their oral interviews, which were recorded on video.

To achieve the objective of the study, the researchers chose eight participants from a group of 78 second-year Spanish-speaking students of English language at a Chilean university to take part in the study: four high-anxious students and four low-anxious students, selected on the basis of their scores in the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale of (Horwitz et al., 1986). The study passed through in two stages. The first stage was a videotaped individual interview in English. The interview was exposed to ordinary issues such as family, holidays, and hobbies. The second stage took place in which students viewed the recordings and, in their mother-
tongue (Spanish), gave their reactions to their interviews. Transcribed interviews were analysed for comments illustrating perfectionism and non-perfectionism, according to Brophy’s (1999) characterization: “reactions to personal performance standards, procrastination, emotional responses to evaluation, and error-consciousness”.

The study revealed that highly anxious students were reticent about discussing their interviews and often steered the conversation towards more general topics such as how they postponed assignments, and tended to avoid talking about their oral performance on the recording. One highly competent, though very anxious, participant’s comments reflected her unfeasible demand upon herself and her dissatisfaction with her (extremely good) performance, when she said “I believe that if I study a little more”. Low-anxious participants were willing to talk about how they fared in the interview, admitting that they had made mistakes but were less tough with themselves, apparently satisfied with feeling calm and unconcerned about being hindered by their lack of knowledge. One low-anxious student commented, “Sure, I had some gaps when I tried to think of the right word in English and respond, but in the end I felt relaxed.” Another said: “It was like I had difficulty in finding words, and this slowed me down, but it wasn’t stressful”. In contrast to their high-anxious counterparts, low-anxious participants did not mention “either procrastination or work avoidance”.

The four highly-anxious participants were critical of their own mistakes and compared their performances unfavourably with those of fellow-students, and one student acknowledged peers’ ability to stay relaxed even in the face of language problems. Speaking in front of many people was a source of apprehension for one highly-anxious student. Low-anxious
students did not mention “perceived evaluation by others” or “looking foolish” in front of other people. Highly-anxious student tended to exaggerate their importance, whereas low-anxious participants were not upset by them. Both high- and low-anxious students were similar in that they recognised their errors, but their emotional reactions were different, the former students being concerned about mistakes “I have problems with verbs, and I have yet to improve my vocabulary”, whereas the latter students accepted their mistakes, “I had some grammatical errors, but small ones. I was fine. I am quite fluent and spontaneous”. Some of the high-anxious participants attributed their mistakes to feeling nervous, while low-anxious students never gave this as a reason for their mistakes. In line with other research (MacIntyre et al., 1997), anxious participants in this study “tended to overestimate the number and seriousness of their errors”, while low-anxious students took them lightly.

The investigators asserted that results showed that language anxiety and perfectionism are similar in some ways. All the subjects (both high- and low-anxiety) were proficient language learners, but exhibited different responses to their video-recorded interviews.
2. 12.3 Anxiety in the Reading Skill

Some researchers have been interested in exploring anxiety in reading in a variety of languages. Saito et al. (1999), examined anxiety in the reading skill in relation to French, Japanese and Russian languages. Saito et al. (1999) investigation targeted English native speakers studying at a North American University. 192 students were studying French, 114 were Japanese language students and 77 were students of Russian language. A higher percentage of students who were studying French were taking it as a compulsory subject than those who were studying the other two languages: French, 62%; Japanese, 24%; Russian, 41%.

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986), as well as an instrument developed especially to measure foreign language reading anxiety: the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale, FLRAS were used (Saito et al., 1999, pp. 205-206). Students' marks were also used as a “global measure of performance”. The study explored that participants who were more reading-anxious did significantly more poorly in their final exams. It was also revealed that general foreign language anxiety was not associated with the language being studied, whereas reading anxiety was related to the target language. Learners of Japanese were the most anxious readers, followed by learners of French then learners of Russian. The researchers speculated as to why Russian did not provoke such high levels of anxiety as French: one reason may be that the system of Cyrillic symbols is “phonetically dependable” (Saito et al. p. 213). They also suggested that learners of Japanese, who tended not to be concerned by the target culture in comparison with learners of the other two languages, may have taken a “conscious decision” (ibid) to learn that language and were
prepared for difficulties posed by the culture and by the writing system. As regards general feelings of anxiety about reading in the target language, students of French and Russian were more self-assured.

Regarding students’ sensitivities to reading problems in the three target languages, French was seen as fairly easy, Russian came next, then Japanese. The researchers assigned the participants to three groups, depending on how difficult they thought reading to be in the language they were studying. Reading anxiety became more acute in accordance with perceived difficulty in reading in the target language. Anxious students often felt bewildered when they could not comprehend every word of a reading text and were very concerned about reading about cultural aspects which were unknown to them. Such students tended to translate every word when approaching a text and many felt anxious when they came across unknown grammatical structures. Reading anxiety seemed to be connected to the target language and associated with the different writing systems of French, Russian, and Japanese.

Saito et al. asserted that it is difficult to say whether foreign language reading anxiety is “the cause or effect” of students’ reading problems, but stated that in this investigation, anxiety seemed to stem from reading, not vice versa. Anxiety seemed to be a “mediating variable that intervenes at some point between the decoding of a text and the actual processing of textual meaning” (Saito et al., 1999, p. 215). They suggested that counselling students in advance about anxiety may help relieve it. They also said that the fact that students of French displayed highest levels of general language anxiety might be related to their language learning history. These
learners may have had less favourable results in the past, considering that the majority of them were still studying it as a compulsory subject. They may have been more unmotivated than learners of Russian or Japanese, which are considered as more difficult languages taken into account.

2.12.3 Language Anxiety and the Writing Skill

Some researchers tried to find out if a kind of relation exists between language anxiety and the writing skill. Cheng’s (2002) carried out a study to explore associations between second language writing anxiety and various individual differences, and to ascertain whether second language anxiety was related to other kinds of anxiety, above all, writing anxiety in the mother tongue. Cheng examined 165 Taiwanese university students studying English as a major subject at three year levels freshmen, sophomores, and juniors. A translated into Chinese of FLCAS, developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) as well as the Second Language Writing Apprehension Test, SLWAT, adapted from the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test, WAT, (1975) were used as instruments for data collection. The later instruments consisted of 29 items and ask about an individual’s feelings of apprehension when s/he writes in L2, the Chinese Speaking Anxiety Scale, SCAS, and the Chinese Writing Anxiety Scale, CWAS, both created especially for this investigation, and each containing 6 items. All these anxiety instruments were to be answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale, from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” A Background Information Questionnaire elicited demographic data “age, gender, grade level, amount of extracurricular contact with English and motivation and perceptions about English writing”, and self-assessed level in English writing. The study also utilized students' end-of-term English writing course grade.
As regards learner differences, four factors came out; English Writing Motivation/Attitude, Extracurricular Effort to Learn English, Confidence in English Writing, and Factor the English Writing Achievement. All these factors contributed significantly to predict L2 writing anxiety. Confidence in English was the "best predictor", followed by English Writing Motivation/Attitude and Extracurricular Effort to learn English as next best predictors. Anxiety in L2 writing appeared to be quite strongly correlated to L2 speaking anxiety, but no statistically significant correlation was found between English writing anxiety and Chinese writing anxiety. There appeared to be a much stronger relationship between anxieties experienced in different modes of communication in one language than across different languages. Language anxiety in writing in the first language did not seem to be linked to anxiety in writing in the second language, the author submitting that the "nonsignificant, low correlation between L1 and L2 writing anxiety suggested that these two anxiety constructs are different from each other".
2. 13 Factors Associated with Learner’s own Sense of ‘Self’ and ‘Language Classroom Environment’

The three component of foreign language anxiety i.e. communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety are strongly linked with learners’ sense of ‘self’, as it is learners’ ‘self’ which is at risk of failure or being negatively evaluated in any test-like situation or a situation which requires communication in front of others. This risk to one’s sense of ‘self’ frequently occurs in a L2/FL classroom. This section reviews literature on language anxiety related to learners’ sense of ‘self’ and ‘language classroom environment’.

2.13.1 Self Perceptions

According to Horwitz et al. (1986: 128), perhaps no other field of study poses as much of a threat to self-concept as language study does. They believe that any performance in L2 is likely to challenge an individual’s self-concept as a competent communicator, which may lead to embarrassment. Laine, (1987: 15). Says that: "Self-concept is the totality of an individual’s thoughts, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes and values having reference to himself as object” (This self-concept forms the basis of the distinction, made by Horwitz et al. (1986: 128), between language anxiety and other forms of academic anxieties. They posited, “the importance of the disparity between the ‘true’ or ‘actual’ 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”.

The term ‘self-esteem’ has been used in much the same meaning as ‘self-concept’ and has been found to be strongly linked with language anxiety. Krashen (1980, 15: cited in Young, 1991 stated that:

*The more I think about self-esteem, the more impressed I am about its impact. This is what causes anxiety in a lot of people. People with low self-esteem worry about what their peers think; they are concerned with*
pleasing others. And that I think has to do a great degree with anxiety.

(p. 427)

Individuals who have high levels of self-esteem are less likely to be anxious than are those with low self esteem Horwitz et al., (1986: 129). According to Terror Management Theory (TMT), “People are motivated to maintain a positive self-image because self-esteem protectsthem from anxiety” (Greenberg et al., 1992: cited in Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999: 229).

2.12.2 Learners’ Beliefs about Language Learning

As language learning poses a threat to learners’ self-concept, in response learners may generate some particular beliefs about language learning and its use. Research on 'language anxiety' suggests that certain beliefs about language learning also contribute to the student’s tension and frustration in the class Horwitz et al., (1986: 127). For example, the followings are such reported beliefs:

Horwitz et al. (1986: 123) “I just know I have some kind of disability: I can’t learn a foreign language no matter how hard I try. Tittle( 1997: 15) “Russian is too hard. I’ll never be able to learn Russian enough to go to Russia and talk to people”

Such beliefs have been found to cast a considerable influence upon the ultimate achievement and performance in the target language. The researchers use terms such as ‘erroneous’ or ‘irrational’ to indicate certain widely held “beliefs about language learning which can be a source of anxiety” (Gynan, 1989: cited in Onwuegbuzie et al.,1999: 220). Horwitz (1988: cited in Ohata, 2005: 138) noted that a number of beliefs derived from learner’s irrational and unrealistic conceptions about language learning, such as 1) some students believe that accuracy must be sought before saying anything in the foreign language, 2) some attach great importance to speaking with excellent native(L1)-like accent, 3) others believe that it is not ok to guess an unfamiliar second/foreign language word, 4) some hold that language learning is basically
an act of translating from English or any second/foreign language, 5) some view that two years are sufficient in order to gain fluency in the target language, 6) some believe that language learning is a special gift not possessed by all. Similarly, Gynan (1989, cited in Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999: 221) reported that learners believe that pronunciation is the most important aspect of language learning.

These unrealistic perceptions or beliefs on language learning and achievement can lead to frustration or anger towards students’ own poor performance in a second/foreign language. According to Young (1991: 428), erroneous beliefs about language learning can contribute greatly to creating language anxiety in students. In his review of literature on language anxiety, Ohata (2005: 138) explained that unrealistic beliefs can lead to greater anxiety and frustration, especially when the beliefs and reality clash. He elaborates that if the learners start learning an L2/FL with the belief that pronunciation is the single most important aspect of language learning, they will naturally feel frustrated to find the reality of their poor speech pronunciation even after learning and practicing for a long time. These beliefs are most likely to originate from learners’ perfectionist nature. The perfectionist learners like to speak flawlessly, with no grammar or pronunciation errors, and as easily as an L1 speaker – these high or ideal standards create an ideal situation for the development of language anxiety (Frost, Marten, Lahart, and Rosenblate, 1990: cited in Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002: 564).

2.13.3 Instructors Beliefs about Language Teaching

Just like learners’ beliefs about language learning, some instructor’s beliefs about language learning and teaching have also been found to be a source of anxiety. Brandl (1987: cited in Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999: 220) asserted that instructors’ belief that their role is to correct rather than to facilitate students when they make mistake sex acerbates second/foreign language anxiety in
students. Further, he stated that the majority of instructors considered their role to be “less a counselor and friend and

Object to a too friendly and in authoritative student-teacher relationship”. The researchers also reported that students realize that some error corrections are necessary but they consistently report anxiety over responding incorrectly and looking or sounding ‘dumb’ or ‘inept’ (Koch and Terrell, Horwitz, 1986, 1988, and Young, 1990: cited in Young 1991: 429). Young (1991: 429), realizing this phenomenon, stated that the problem for the students is “not necessarily error correction but the manner of error correction – when, how often, and most importantly, how errors are corrected”.

In addition to error correction, some instructors have been reported not to promote pair or group work in fear that the class may get out of control, and think that a teacher should be doing most of the talking and teaching, and that their role is more like a drill sergeant than a facilitator’s; these beliefs have been found to contribute to learner's language anxiety (Young, 1991: 428). Recognition or awareness of these beliefs by both the learners, as well as the teachers, is essential for effective alleviation of language anxiety in learners.

2.14.4 Classroom Procedure

Different activities in the classroom procedure, particularly ones that demand students to speak in front of the whole class, have been found to be the most anxiety provoking. For instance, Koch and Terrell (1991, cited in Horwitz, 2001: 118) found that more than half of their subjects in their Natural Approach classes – a language teaching method specifically designed to reduce learner’s anxiety – expressed that giving a presentation in the class, oral skits and discussion in large groups are the most anxiety-producing activities. They also found that students get more anxious when called upon to respond individually, rather than if they are given choice to respond voluntarily. In addition, students were found to be more relaxed speaking the target language when paired with a classmate or put into small groups of three to six than in to larger groups of seven to fifteen students. Similarly, Young (1991: 429) found that more than
sixty-eight percent of her subjects reported feeling more comfortable when they did not have to get in front of the class to speak. Earlier, Horwitz et al. (1986) reported that:

_Sometimes when I speak English in class, I am so afraid I feel like hiding behind my chair. When I am in my Spanish class I just freeze! I can’t think of anything when my teacher calls on me. My mind goes blank._

(P.123)

This suggests that any measure to treat language anxiety should not fail to exploit learning environments where students feel relatively free of anxiety (Jones, 2004: 34). For this, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches are often recommended by the researchers to provide such an unthreatening environment where students talk to one another and not exclusively to the teacher. This is deemed necessary because “the Rapport the student feels with the teacher as well as with….classmates may be crucial in determining the success or failure of the venture practice in communication”(Svignon, 1972, p. 67: cited in Smimy, 1994: 30). It indicates that arousal of anxiety reactions is also likely to occur in interpersonal relations or communication.

### 2.14 Socio-cultural Factors

Language anxiety stems primarily from social and communicative aspects of language learning and therefore can be considered as one of the social anxieties.(MacIntyre& Gardner, 1989, 1991b: cited in MacIntyre, 1995: 91) In the previous section, it has been viewed that difficulties in leaning L2/FL can explain the potential causes of language anxiety at the output stage of language learning within the classroom setting. However, language anxiety may also be an outcome of social and communicative aspects of language learning. This section reviews the literature on language anxiety from a socio-cultural perspective of language learning and its use.
2.14.1 Social Environment for Second/Foreign Language Acquisition

L2 or FL can take place in two different kinds of social environments: a) where the target language is not used as L1 in the community, and b) where it is used as L1. The first kind of environment provides L2/FL learners only limited and sometimes faulty input. As Krashen (1985: 46) states, for such learners, “the only input is teachers or classmates’ talk - both do not speak L2 well”. Learners in such environments are exposed to the language only in the classroom where they spend less time in contact with the language, covering a smaller discourse type. The limited exposure to the target language and lack of opportunities to practice speaking in such environments do not let the communicative abilities of L2/FL learners fully develop and result into embarrassment or stress for them when they are required to speak both in and out of the class.

In contrast, the second kind of environment provides learners with greater exposure to the target language. However, even in this case, some researchers’ view that learners’ use of cognitive skills and met linguistic awareness (world and social knowledge) may interfere with language learning and they may not be able to achieve native (L1)-like proficiency as is gained by a child (Lightbown and Spada, 2006: 30). Krashen explains this child-adult difference in ultimate attainment in terms of the strength of ‘affective filter’. He believes that ‘affective filter’ may exist for the child L2/FL acquirer but it is rarely high enough to prevent L1-like levels of attainment and for adults, it rarely goes down enough to allow L1-like attainment. Older learners may have increased inhibitions and anxiety and may find that they are afraid to make errors (Richard, 1996: 2).
2.14.2 Errors in Social Setting

Although it is axiomatic that language learning cannot be without errors, errors can be a source of anxiety in some individuals because they draw attention to the difficulty of making positive social impressions when speaking a new language (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989: cited in Horwitz and Gregersen, 2002: 562). Errors in social settings are mostly overlooked if they do not interfere with meaning because people consider it impolite to interrupt and correct somebody who is trying to have a conversation with them. Interlocutors only react to an error if they cannot understand the speech and try to adjust their speech with the speaker in their effort to negotiate for meaning (Lightbown and Spada, 2006: 32). It is only in the classroom environment that feedback on errors is provided frequently; this leads many learners to frustration and embarrassment by making them conscious about their deficiencies.

2.14.3 Social Status, Power Relations and a Sense of Identity

From a socio-cultural perspective, status is an important consideration in people’s interaction with one another in social relationships. Within any social context, there exists a status relationship between interlocutors that carries a significant impact on language and language use and this is an important aspect of social interaction, for example, “what can be said, the ways it can be said, and possibly, what language to use, and even how much must be said” (Carrier, 1999: 70). Carrier, considering the role of status on L2 listening comprehension, asserts that the listener must consider the status relationship as part of the social context in order to determine the appropriateness of the verbal behaviour for delivering the response to the spoken messages. In addition, he raises a crucial question as to whether in face-to-face interaction receiver apprehension (anxiety) can be triggered by the particular status relationship between the interlocutors (Chick, 1985: cited in Carrier, 1999: 72). He states that:
"The effects of status in terms of perceived power over another can also effectively silence a person in a conversation; for example, where there are large power differentials, as in White-Black relations in South Africa, the potential threat of loss of face may cause the person of lower of status to do nothing in the conversation even when instructions are not fully understood".

Sociolinguists posit that social relationships can have a deep impact on conversational interaction. Wolfson (1989: 131), in her Theory of Social Interaction, postulates that inequality of status or social distance “disfavor attempts at negotiation”. Leary & Kowalski (1995: 1), working on the construct of ‘social anxiety’, also assert that, when speaking in interaction with one’s boss, someone high in status or power, and also when dealing with complete strangers, feeling of anxiety, uncertainty and awkwardness are often the consequence of such encounters. Similarly, studies of classroom interaction on the pattern of social relationship found that the social relationship between teachers and students gives them an unequal status relationship as interlocutors that can hinder “successful second language comprehension, production, and ultimately acquisition” (Pica, 1987: 4). Earlier research of Doughty and Pica (1986: cited in Carrier, 1999: 74) also showed that there was less interaction when the relationship was unequal, such as, teacher-to-students, than when the relationship was equal, for instance, student-to-student. A sense of power, social distance and self-identity exists in interaction between L1 and L2/FL speakers, as (Peirce, 1995P reported:

* I feel uncomfortable using English in the group of people whose English language is their mother tongue because they speak fluently without any problems and I feel inferior *(p.21)*

In such an interaction, L2/FL speakers may feel anxious due to the fear of social embarrassment and a threat to their social identity. Language, in this regard, seems crucial because it is used to convey this identity to other people.
Particularly when speaking in a second/foreign language “our self image becomes more vulnerable when our expression is reduced to infantilised levels, which inevitably leads to anxiety”(Arnold, 2000: 3). L2/FL speakers’ fear of losing self-identity and retaining positive self-image is aggravated when their attitudes towards the target language community and culture are hostile (Dewaele, 2002: 26).

2.14.4 Intercultural/Interethnic Communication Apprehension (ICA)

Communication anxiety can also be triggered during intercultural or interethnic communication. When a person interacts with people of other cultures and encounters cultural differences, he or she inclines to view people as strangers. Situation of this kind may lead to intercultural communication apprehension; this can be defined as “the fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated interaction with people of different groups, especially cultural and ethnic and/or racial groups” (Neuliep and McCroskey, 1997: 145). ICA is more likely to occur in initial acquaintance. Gudykunst (1995, cited in Carrier, 1999: 71), in his Uncertainty Management Theory, maintains (a) that initial uncertainty and anxiety about another’s attitudes and feelings in a conversational interaction are the basic factors influencing communication between individuals and (b) that uncertainty inhibits effective communication. Neuliep and Ryan (1998: 93) identify several potential factors that could influence intercultural communication by summarizing previous work on ICA. (See figure 2.)
Figure 2: Potential Effects on Inter-Cultural Communication Apprehension:


Figure 2 indicates that one’s ability to cope with anxiety and uncertainty can result in effective intercultural communication (Gudykunst, 1995: cited in Kwok et al., 2001: 3). Uncertainty Reduction Theory (URT) posits that when two people interact for the first time, uncertainty exists. (Berger and Calabrese, 1975: cited in 2001: 3). Furthermore, Kwok et al. (2001: 3) state that the higher people perceive an uncertainty, the higher they feel anxiety. Gudykunst (1988; 1995: cited in 2001: 4) found that there are at least five factors that may influence the amount of uncertainty experienced by interactants during an intercultural communication: (1) expectations; (2) social identities; (3) degree of similarities between interactants; (4) shared communicative networks; and (5) the interpersonal salience of the contact with ‘stranger’. Suggesting how this type of anxiety can be controlled, McCroskey and Richmond (1996, cited in 2001: 4) claim that assertiveness and responsiveness, as two dimensions of socio-communication orientation, may reduce intercultural communication apprehension.

2.15 Cognitive versus Psychosomatic Speaking Anxiety

Foreign language classroom anxiety has been acknowledged as a powerful indicator for debilitating class performances, especially including listening and speaking. Thus, it appears that anxious learners’ ability to speak may be impaired especially when individuals are cognitively stressed or when they experience physiological symptoms of anxiety. Therefore, this section discusses foreign language speaking anxiety in a class context, and argues that there are cognitive and psychosomatic components to this anxiety.
2.15.1 Cognitive Speaking Anxiety

Cognitive anxiety is characterized by “worry, negative expectations and concentration disruption” (Hashiro and Okumura, 1997: 320) and “negative expectations and cognitive concerns about oneself, the situation at hand, and potential consequences” (Morris, Davis, & Hutchings, 1981: 541). This section introduces the concept of cognitive speaking anxiety in the foreign language class and suggests that it includes communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety.

2.15.2 Communication Apprehension

Communication apprehension plays an important role in producing language anxiety in the foreign language class (Foss & Reitzel, 1988; Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986; Lucas, 1984; Mettler 1987). Communication apprehension can be defined as “a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people” in language learning (Horwitz et al., 1986, : 127). Since students in the foreign language class are quite often the center of attention when they communicate with an instructor or their peers, they frequently experience communication apprehension in these settings. For example, when a student converses with the teacher in English, he may be anxious and afraid that he might not understand what the teacher is saying. Additionally, a student may lack confidence when he needs to explain something to another student in English.

In addition, Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) suggest that anxiety has an influence on students’ willingness to communicate when they need to express themselves. Supporting Steinberg and Horwitz’s view, McCroskey (1978) suggests that the more students feel communication apprehension, the less they are willing to participate in oral communication.
Horwitz et al. (1986) points out that communication apprehension may be displayed in situations in which students find it difficult to speak in dyads or in public. For instance, they might not be confident when speaking in a small group in English. In addition, they might feel nervous when speaking in English during a collective class discussion. In fact, as MacIlyntyre & Gardner (1991a) indicated, speaking is the most anxiety–provoking activity in the foreign language class, often leading individuals to excessive anxiety, especially when they are forced to speak in front of their class (Young, 1990; Daly, 1991; Koch and Terrell, 1991; Mejías, Applbaum, and Trotter, 1991).

When speaking in English in front of the entire class, students might be extremely conscious of other people’s gazes. They might also feel the teacher or friends are staring at them when speaking in English in front of the entire class. Koch and Terrell (1991) also indicate that highly anxious students report such oral activities as oral presentations and role–playing are the most anxiety–provoking.

McCoy (1979) reports that college students in first–year Spanish classes show communication apprehension when they were asked to answer in a new target language. This apprehension results in students' incapability to comprehend what has been asked. Supporting McCoy’s (1979) findings, it has been shown that language anxiety is significantly related to speaking ability (Koch and Terrell, 1991; Price, 1991).

Horwitz et al. (1986) reports that highly anxious students who had an inadequate amount of time to prepare for speaking did not feel as comfortable to participate in a role–play as did low anxiety students who had enough time to prepare for the role–play performance. In order for students to have enough practice and consequently reduce anxiety, Foss and Reitzel (1988) suggest an oral activity requiring students to articulate a written script in front of an audience after they practiced it carefully in a small group.
2.15.3 Fear of Negative Evaluation

Partially supporting Horwitz et al.’s (1986) research, Aida (1994) suggests that speech anxiety coupled with fear of negative evaluation are two significant factors comprising foreign language anxiety. Borrowing from Watson & Friend (1969), Horwitz et al. (1986: 128) define fear of negative evaluation as “apprehension about others’ evaluation, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively”. Young (1990) supports this view, suggesting that since students are often exposed to various evaluative situations such as being asked to speak with an instructor or with their peers, or to present in front of their classmates, fear of negative evaluation in certain evaluative situations must be an important situational factor that contributes to speaking anxiety.

For instance, when conversing in English with the instructor, students might be worried that they might make a mistake and that the instructor would then think poorly of them. Also, students might be afraid that they will make a mistake when doing a presentation in English before classmates that they are not close to. Moreover, when speaking in English in front of the entire class, students might be very apprehensive because they feel that they might make a mistake. In addition, Horwitz et al. (1986) agree that fear of negative evaluation can produce high levels of speaking anxiety because it can take place in many social situations such as in a job interview or in public speaking.

Bailey (1983) points out that students’ competitiveness is a significant agent to generate anxiety because they regard themselves as “less confident as the object of comparison” (p. 96). When speaking in a small group in English, a student might keep thinking that the other classmates speak English better than he does. In addition, a student might keep thinking that the other student speaks English better than he does when he converses one–on–one with a classmate in English.
2.15.4 Test Anxiety

Test anxiety can be present in many test situations such as in presentations, interviews, or oral tests. Horwitz et al. (1986: 127) insist that performance evaluation can be “an ongoing feature of most foreign language classes,” and therefore, that “test anxiety is also relevant to a discussion of foreign language anxiety.

In many research studies, it is agreed that testing is an important source of language anxiety (McCoy, 1979; Horwitz, 1986, 1989). Sarason, Potter, and Sarason (1983), supported by (Sarason ,1975), report that various evaluative situations have negative correlations with performances. Moreover, test anxiety can be produced in situations where a speaker suspects that he or she may fail (Sarason, 1980).

(Daly, 1991) suggests that people may speak with comfort before they recognize that somebody is continually evaluating their performances. Interestingly, he suggested that “in language testing, the greater the degree of student evaluation and the more unfamiliar and ambiguous the test tasks and formats, the more learner anxiety produced”.

Supporting (Daly’s,1 991) view, (Young, 1991) points out that unfamiliar or unclear test assignment and design may produce anxiety. For example, when doing an oral interview in English with the teacher, a student might be nervous that the English teacher might ask questions which he has not expected in advance.

Reporting the negative relationships between language anxiety and oral performances, (Phillips ,1992) suggests that highly anxious students display a negative attitude as well as poor oral performances and thus teachers should reduce students’ anxiety by familiarizing them with test assignments and designs.

In addition, (Wine, 1980), reaching the same conclusion as that of Mandler and Sarason (1952), argues that the level of an individual’s test anxiety depends on
situational features, and whether a test is threatening or not (Hobfoll, Anson, and Berbstein, 1983). Thus, test anxiety must be closely related to foreign language speaking performances, and levels of speaking anxiety in evaluative situations must be determined by situational features.

2.16 Psychosomatic Speaking Anxiety

Psychosomatic anxiety is another important construct that could be applied to foreign language anxiety and comes from medical literature, which has not been thoroughly discussed in the literature of foreign language anxiety. It is described as “increases in physiological arousal” (Hashiro and Okumura, 1997; 320) and “perception of one’s physiological arousal” (Morris, Davis, and Hutchings, 1981; 541). This section suggests that psychosomatic anxiety occurs in the foreign language class and that it includes: (1) somatic complaints (e.g., muscle aches or pains, stomachaches, indigestion), (2) blushing, (3) autonomic arousals (e.g., sweating, dry mouth), (4) cardiovascular symptoms (e.g., chest pain, heart palpitations), (5) a respiratory symptom (e.g., breathing), and (6) muscle tensions (e.g., quivering).

2.16.1 Somatic Complaints

According to (Ballenger 2000) individuals with anxiety often present with somatic complaints. He adds that somatic complaints such as muscle aches or pains, stomachaches, indigestion, are good indicators of anxiety or depression. He argues that these somatized muscular symptoms are significant agents to manifest anxiety or depression as well as autonomic arousals such as sweating shortness of breath, and chest pain. In addition, Ballenger (2000) points out that these complaints are often accompanied by social situations in which interaction involvement with other people is required.

Arikian and Gorman (2001) submitted that physical symptoms such as sweating, blushing, heart beating, muscle pains are significant markers of psychosomatic anxiety and that timely treatment should be required. They think
that anxiety disorders, which indicates that generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) is very common among people involved in various social situations and that physical sensations like dry mouth, palpitations, muscle tension are associated with social phobia and should be treated earlier to save patients’ medical costs.

Gelenberg (2000) insists that somatized anxiety should be properly and accurately diagnosed not only to better understand individuals’ physical complaints but also to economize their medical expenses. Also, he added that muscle aches associated with GAD are often present in public speaking situations.

2.16.2 Blushing

“Blushing” is closely associated with social phobia or social anxiety disorder. (Telaranta, 2003) notes that social phobic patients are often characterized by “blushing” in situations causing psychological stress or distress. Regarding foreign language classes as social situations, it is probable that individual student is likely to undergo social phobia symptomized with “blushing.”

Gerlach, Wilhelm, Gruber, and Roth (2001) regard “blushing” as the most salient indicator of social phobic symptom. A study conducted by Gerlach, et al. (2001) examined whether social situations generate different intensity of blushing by creating two groups: an experimental group with major complaints of “blushing” and a control group without them. Results indicate that individuals with social phobia could possibly be characterized a social phobic group with high arousability of “blushing.” Although the intensity of “blushing” in individuals with previous “blushing” complaints is lower than the intensity of “blushing” in individuals without them.

Abe and Masui (1981) investigated the trend of phobic and anxiety symptoms in an adolescent sample of ages ranging from 11 to 23. The study reports that the phobic and anxiety symptoms are more prevalent in adolescent
samples and that particularly the symptom of fear of “blushing” is more prevalent in young girls than in boys. Noticeably, based on this result, it is expected that “blushing” could be prevalent in adolescent college students with foreign language classroom speaking anxiety. Individuals are more likely to pay attention to social threat words because they are aware of the negative evaluation by others.

(Ballenger, 2000) suggest that individuals with social anxiety disorder are characterized by “blushing.” He maintains that social anxious individuals often display fear and avoidance in certain social situations (e.g., public speaking). In addition, it is suggested that individuals with social anxiety disorder might be disadvantaged by impaired educational attainment if socially anxious individuals are not timely or properly treated.

Crozier and Russell (1992) conducted a study to measure “blushing” tendency using a blushing questionnaire. Results suggest that the tendency of “blushing” is significantly correlated with social anxiety and that high tendency of “blushing” is due to individuals’ cognitive evaluation in certain social situations where they would be responsible for an embarrassing incident. Therefore, it can be obvious that foreign language learners might be more likely to display “blushing” in certain class situations (e.g., speaking in front of the class) in which they face embarrassing class activities.

(Edelmann, 1991) performed a study to determine factors associated with chronic “blushing” in a sample of 108 chronic blashers. Results show that the severity of chronic “blushing” was closely associated with social anxiety and state and trait anxiety. As a result, it is clear that untreated social anxiety may yield individuals with chronic “blushing” as characteristics of their trait anxiety.
2.17 Autonomic Arousals

Foreign language class college students may present with the autonomic arousals such as “sweating” and “dry mouth” when they speak in the class.

2.17.1 Sweating

Sweating is considered as typical bodily symptom of autonomic arousal (e.g., sweating, dry mouth). Pohjavaara, Telaranta, and Vaisanen (2003) addresses that individuals with palmar “sweating” are often observed when they either consciously or unconsciously experience social phobia. Lader (1983) states that “sweating” is a significant component of understanding the complex nature of psychosomatic anxiety. McLeod, Hoehn-Saric, and Stefan (1986) also stresses that “sweating” is a significant indicator to manifest psychosomatic symptoms of anxiety.

In public speaking context, McNair, Frankenthaler, Czerlinsky, White, Sasson, and Fisher (1982) assert that palmar “sweating” is frequently observed in public speaking phobia. Individuals who often present with anticipated public speaking anxiety are more likely to have palmar “sweating” when speaking in public. Fuller, Horii, & Conner (1992) also suggests that “sweating” is often observed among people under stressful occasions. Hence, “sweating” may be often noted among individual foreign language learners under traumatic occasions such as public speaking (e.g., speaking or doing presentation in front of the class).

Hepburn, Deary, Frier, Patrick, Quinn, & Fisher (1991) conducted a factor analysis to examine symptoms of autonomic arousal. Results indicate that “sweating” is a prominent factor to contribute to explaining certain amount of variances of autonomic symptom structures, accompanied by trembling and warmness.

Purdon, Antony, Monteiro, and Swinson (2001) conducted a study to measure social anxiety in a sample of college students and to investigate the
existence of particular social anxiety symptoms. Results reveal that “sweating” are of the main agents which generates social anxiety symptoms (e.g., sweating, shaking) in social situations (i.e., interpersonal settings).

Bogels, and Reith (1999) conducted a study to assess social fears using an inventory to measure fear of showing somatic symptoms (e.g., blushing, trembling, sweating) to other individuals with social phobia. Findings suggest that “sweating” is one of the most common components which manifests social phobia and that social phobic individuals with “sweating” worry about other people’s awareness that they have such phobic agents.

### 2.17.2 Dry Mouth

The symptom of “dry mouth” is a good indicator of autonomic arousal (e.g., sweating, dry mouth) for individuals with anxiety or depression. “Dry mouth” is an essential indicator for measuring severity of anxiety. (Earlam, et al., 1997) investigated the treatment preferences of patients having liver diseases, using a quality of life (QoL) scale named Rotterdam Symptom Check List (RSC). Findings suggest that items in measuring “dry mouth” as a RSC physical component is strongly associated with the severity of high levels of anxiety.

Gelenberg, Lydiard, Rudolph, Aguiar, Haskins, and Salinas (2000) conducted a medical experiment to examine the effects of a certain medicine (i.e., venlafaxine XR) in patients with generalized anxiety disorder (GAD), using the Hamilton Rating Scale for Anxiety (HAM–A). Results indicate that the symptom of “dry mouth” is one of the most common adverse effects of the venlafaxine XR treatment. This study concluded that venlafaxine XR was effective in controlling anxiety and that “dry mouth” symptom could be found without using the medicine. Hence, “dry mouth” is a common symptom often observed among anxious individuals who are not treated with medicine.

Similarly, Fabre and McLendon (1981) conducted an experimental study to examine the efficacy and safety of a medicine named nabilone in treating
anxiety. Findings suggest that “dry mouth” symptom is observed in emergent adverse events in treating anxious patients who were rated by the Hamilton Rating Scale for Anxiety (HAM–A).

A study conducted by Khan, Upton, Rudolph, Entsuah, &Leventer (1998) investigated the dosage effect of venlafaxine to treat major depression associated with anxiety, using the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM–D). The treatment with venlafaxine showed statistically significant clinical improvement in the treatment of depression associated with anxiety manifesting “dry mouth.” Therefore, it can be inferred that the absence of “dry mouth” symptom among patients reveals the effectiveness of the medicine to control depression related to anxiety.

In addition, the studies conducted by, (Feighner, et al., 1998) and (Philipp, et al., 1999) suggest that the symptom of “dry mouth” is strongly indicative of emergent adverse events without treatment in examining the dosage effect of venlafaxine XR for controlling depression.

2.18 Cardiovascular Symptoms

Cardiovascular symptoms (e.g., chest pain, heart palpitations) may often present in individual learners with anxiety, depression or panic disorders.

2.18.1 Chest Pain

(Fleet, Dupuis, et al., 1996) investigated the prevalence of prior cardiac documented history among “chest pain” patients. Results indicate that more than 40% of 441 panic disorder patients complaining of “chest pain” had suffered from a cardiac disease like coronary artery disease (CAD).

In terms of medical costs, Katerndahl and Trammell (1997) advised physicians to pay careful attention to individuals with the complaint of “chest pain”, especially individuals with infrequent states of panic. They reported that medical costs of those individuals with “chest pain” and infrequent states of panic were higher for testing than individuals without the presence of panic symptoms.
Dammen, et al., (2004) conducted a study to compare patients with or without CAD in terms of psychological factors. This study used 199 participants with no documented heart diseases, and found that patients without CAD reported long–term “chest pain.” This finding indicates that the prevalence of patients’ “chest pain” might be due to psychological factors. Patients may attribute “chest pain” to an undesirable disease which exists only in their mind.

Although “chest pain” is a significant indicator which provides patients with a helpful diagnostic assessment, it was found that severe, yet unidentified “chest pain” exists. Goodacre, and Nicholl (2004) concluded that the severity of “chest pain” might depend on unknown anxiety or depression.

2.18.2 Palpitations

Barsky, et al., (1996) reported that “palpitations” are prominent indicator in more patients with psychiatric disorder than in patients without psychiatric disorder. They also suggest that individuals under anxiety or depression are more likely to suffer from psychiatric disorders.

Ehlers, et al., (2000) tested “heartbeat” perception for patients present with anxiety disorders. Results indicate that individuals with anxiety or depression are more likely be aware of their “heartbeat.”

Barsky, et al., (1994) investigated the prevalence of psychiatric disorders among individual with “palpitations.” Results reveal that panic disorder is common throughout life among individuals complaining of “palpitations” and manifesting depression. Thus, individuals who present with “palpitations” are more likely to manifest either panic disorders or depression.

A study conducted by Barsky et al., (1996) determined which factors could predict individuals’ persistent “palpitations,” using a sample of 67 medical patients who responded to self–report questionnaires. Results suggest that more than 80% of patients reported severe continuous experiences of “palpitations.” In addition, findings from this study indicate that daily life stress plays a role in explaining “palpitation” severity. Therefore, it can be concluded that the
contribution of daily life stress to the severity of “palpitations” is a good predictor to explain patients’ persistent “palpitations.” Of course, there also exists a study suggesting that “palpitations” are not good indicators of individuals’ stress or anxiety. De Jong, Moser, An, and Chung (2004) conducted a study to determine whether “heart rate” was associated with level of anxiety in cardiac patients with heart failure. Results indicate that there is no significant correlation between anxiety and “heart rate” and thus “heart rate” is not a good indicator of level of anxiety.

2.18.3 Respiratory Symptoms

Individuals with anxiety or depression are often observed to complain of difficulty of “breathing” as a respiratory symptom. Findings from two studies by McNally and Eke (1996) and Eke and McNally (1996) suggest that college students who were challenged by lack of air reported “suffocation” fear as their bodily sensation self-report. This report indicates that “suffocation” related to “breathing” is a powerful indicator of anxiety sensation. In addition, a study conducted by Rapee and Medoro (1994) indicates that “hyperventilation” accounted for a significant amount of variances for fear of physical sensations measured by the Anxiety Severity Index (ASI) scale.

2.18.4 Quivering

Studies found that “quivering” as muscle tension is often present with individual having anxiety or mental stress. Henry and Lai (2003) state that patients suffering from stress and anxiety are often observed to show “quivering” (or muscle tremor), which yields disability and embarrassment, and even social dysfunctioning. In addition, Pally (2001) suggests that “quivering” voice is an indirect indicator of anxiety states and that these states are activated by the autonomic nervous system.
2.19 Language achievement

Some studies about anxiety have looked into its associations with language learner variables, such as age, gender, their visits to the target language country, language level, year of study, learning styles, learning strategies, expected grades, and actual grades, in an attempt to link these features of the student with anxiety itself and with achievement in the foreign or second language. In many cases authors did indeed encounter significant connections. This section describes language anxiety research in which demographic, academic, cognitive, and affective variables were explore.

2.19.1 Age

Learners' ages have been targeted by researchers who have tried to explore whether this learner variable might have any association with anxiety and with achievement when learning a foreign or second language. Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999), tried to find out if such associations occur between learner variables and language anxiety. In a study of 210 participants whose ages ranged from 18 to 71, their findings show, that there was a positive and statistically significant correlation. In their investigation, they suggested that the older the student, the higher his/her language anxiety was likely to be.

2.19.2 Gender

Gender was thought to have an impact on language anxiety. Some language anxiety investigations have revealed possible differences in the level of anxiety experienced by male and female participants.

In a study carried by (Chang, et al.,(1997) it was found that in academic situations, females experienced higher level of anxiety than male. Another investigation carried by Padilla, Cervantes, Maldonado and Garcia suggested that apprehension was more likely to be experienced by female learners.

Aida, (1994) found no statistical relationship between language anxiety in learning Japanese and gender although when applying the FLCAS on those
learners, results show that males score an average of 97.4 whereas the score of females was 95.6 (P.158).

Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) carried out a research to find out whether there is an association between anxiety and gender in their participants. The results of the study revealed no significant statistically correlations.

(Dewaele, 2002) study indicated that gender did not correlate significantly with communicative anxiety in either French as a foreign language or in English as a foreign language.

(Alkhafaifi, 2005) found different level of anxiety experienced by male and females depending on the kind of anxiety experienced. He pointed out that female students show significantly high levels of general Arabic language anxiety levels than male students, but simultaneously he found no significant differences between males and females in Arabic listening comprehension.

2.19.3 Visits to the Target Language Country

Researchers have sometimes been interested to know whether their participants had visited the target language country and if so, whether these visits were associated with levels of anxiety. It might seem logical to suppose that students who have visited the country whose language they are studying will suffer from lower levels of language anxiety, in line with Schumann’s (1977:138) belief that “social distance” between students learning an L2 and members of that target language group would be reduced by “lengthy residence” in the target language geographical zone, but this has not always been seen to be the case.

Aida’s (1994:163) participants (Anglophone students of Japanese) who had visited Japan did indeed exhibit lower anxiety levels: average FLCAS scores for those who had visited Japan was 92.5, while the average score for those who had not was 98.1. Saito and Samimy (1996), in a study centring on Anglophone learners of Japanese at three levels, beginning, intermediate, and
advanced, found that only in students at intermediate level there was a positive and statistically significant correlation between language class anxiety and time spent in Japan. The researchers posited that at this level, students who had visited Japan may have found that they had lost their “initial advantage” or as more formal teaching was given, students who had only learned Japanese casually in the country may have suffered higher levels of anxiety.

Onwuegbuzie et al.’s (1999) subjects, who were each studying one of four foreign languages, presented a statistically significant and negative correlation between language anxiety and number of foreign countries visited, suggesting that the fewer foreign countries students had visited, the higher their anxiety levels tended to be. In the Selected Multiple Regression Model, the number of foreign countries visited was found to be a predictor of foreign language anxiety, accounting for 5% of the variance. In a later investigation conducted by the same authors (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000), the number of visits made to target language countries did not seem to have any bearing on foreign language achievement.

2.19.4 Language Level, and Year of Study

Some writers have looked into how students’ language level, and their year of study might be associated with anxiety experiences. It might seem logical to suppose that as students’ progress through language levels (presumably achieving higher proficiency), their anxiety levels would decrease. Skehan (1989:116) thought that students at higher levels might enjoy a “wider repertoire of behaviours” which would help them to deal with anxiety in language learning contexts “more flexibly”. Yet this is not always seen to be the case.

Saito and Samimy (1996), who investigated language anxiety in students of Japanese at three different levels (beginning, intermediate, and advanced) reported that advanced students were the most language-anxious, intermediate learners were the least, and beginners fell between the two. The researchers
speculated that course material may have explained this trend. Intermediate learners were now familiar with classroom activities, which were similar to beginning-level ones, and so these learners were more relaxed. At advanced level the focus turned away from speaking and towards translation, reading and writing. This lack of oral practice may have been responsible for making advanced students feel less sure of themselves when speaking.

As regards achievement, these researchers submitted that anxiety did not predict achievement as measured by final grades in beginning students, but it did in intermediate and in advanced learners. They posited that the reason for this may have been that at early levels, language anxiety had not had time to form, citing MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, p. 110) who reported similar findings, “During the first few experiences in the foreign language, anxiety plays a negligible role in proficiency” (p. 245).

Onwuegbuzie et al.’s (1999:227) subjects, who were studying foreign languages at three different levels (beginning, intermediate, and advanced), observed an almost linear rise in anxiety as year of study advanced (freshmen, sophomores, juniors, seniors). The investigators observed that “with exception of sophomores [that is, students in their second year], language anxiety appeared to increase linearly as a function of year of study”.

(Elkhafaifi, 2005) observed that learners of Arabic who were in the third year of study had significantly lower levels of general language anxiety and of listening anxiety than students in the first and second years. He found statistically significant and negative correlations between listening anxiety and Year in School, and listening anxiety and Years that the participant had Studied Arabic, respectively, and also between general language classroom anxiety and Year in School, and general language classroom anxiety and Years that the participant had Studied Arabic.
2.19.5 Language Anxiety and its Associations with Learning Styles, and with Learning Strategies

Learning styles are “unintentional or automatic individual characteristics” (Bailey et al., 1999, : 65) that give orientation to learning and are specific to the content of the material being studied. Bailey and his co-workers posited that learning styles would probably moderate foreign language anxiety, and to that end they investigated language anxiety in 146 Anglophone students of Spanish and French in connection with 20 style types from the Productivity Environmental Preference Survey (PEPS) (Dunn, Dunn, Price, 1991:67). This survey examines a person’s preferences in 20 different modalities which are concerned with how adults prefer “to function, to learn, to concentrate and to perform” during study or work. These are “noise; light; temperature; design; motivation, persistence; responsibility; structure; peer orientation; authority orientation; multiple perceptual preferences; auditory; visual; tactile; kinesthetic; intake; evening/morning; late morning; afternoon; and mobility”.

Set wise multiple regression analysis was employed to “identify a combination of learning style modalities that predicted foreign language anxiety” (p. 67), the authors stressing that “predict” did not imply cause (pp. 67-68). Only two modalities were associated in a statistically significant way to the prediction of anxiety in the foreign language classroom: responsibility and peer-orientation, each explaining 3% of the variance. This would suggest that students who were not responsible in finishing their work and who favoured studying alone were more likely to be language-anxious.

The authors maintained that the results did not reflect the notion of a global association between learning styles and language anxiety, and that the relationship between them “resist[ed] simple correlational analyses” (p. 69). Also, according to Bailey et al., as styles are thought to be traits of the individual, while foreign language anxiety “has been proven to be a form of situation-specific anxiety” (p. 69), the two may not have correlated
satisfactorily. The researchers recommended that an instrument be developed to measure learning styles more specifically in connection to language anxiety.

Learning strategies are “actions chosen by students that are intended to facilitate learning” (Bailey et al., 1999 : 65). MacIntyre and Noels (1996) conducted a study involving 138 Anglophone university students of Spanish and Italian, in an attempt to identify social-psychological variables that would predict the use of strategies in language learning. Both of their aims included how language anxiety might influence the use of learning strategies. In addition, language anxiety is an element of the two models examined in the study: (a) MacIntyre’s (1994) model, which “proposed that social-psychological variables play a key role in the use of language learning strategies” (p. 374), and (b) Gardner's (1985) model of language learning motivation, in which anxiety was put forward as a principal component.

The investigators’ first objective was to “test [MacIntyre’s, 1994:376] social-psychological model of strategy use which proposed that psychological variables are of crucial importance in the use of language learning strategies, or “steps taken [by the learner] to facilitate the acquisition, storage and retrieval, and use of information (Ehrman and Oxford, 1989:373)”.

The second purpose of the investigation also had an important language anxiety component: the authors aimed to explore the associations between strategy-use scores and Gardner’s (1985:376) model of integrative motivation, composed of “positivity of the attitudes towards the learning situation” (ALS), integrativeness, and motivation, together with anxiety “considered [as] a fourth primary affective influence on language learning”.

Both instruments used in the study contained items related to language anxiety. The first instrument was the 50-item ESL/EFL version of the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning, SILL (Oxford, 1990). Seven-point Likert-type responses were elicited for each strategy. The responses concerned (1) Frequency of use, (2) Knowledge, (3) Effectiveness, (4) Anxiety, and (5)
Difficulty (pp. 376-377). The second instrument was a short version of the Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery, AMTB, Gardner and MacIntyre, (1993b), used to measure the following variables with single-item indicators: (6) Attitudes toward the Learning Situation (2 items), (7) Motivation (3 items), (8) Integrativeness (3 items), (9) Language Anxiety (2 items).

The learning strategies that students in this study employed most often were “pay attention to L2 speakers”, “look for similar words in L1,” and “use synonyms.” The three least frequently employed strategies included “write feelings in a diary,” “give self-rewards,” and “physically act out words” (pp. 378, 380). The first two of these obtained the “lowest ratings of knowledge, effectiveness, and anxiety”

As far as testing the strategy-use model was concerned, this was supported in general, or “the use of approximately three out of four strategies is predicted by a combination of knowledge, effectiveness, and either difficulty or anxiety”.

The authors speculated that students who were alert to strategies and their usefulness, and who felt that they were not problematic to use, might become more motivated to learn L2. The use of strategies could lead to “sense of mastery over the learning process” (p. 383) which in turn might help attenuate anxiety. Language anxiety was seen to have less influence on language learning strategies than other variables, but “moderately strong correlations were observed between language anxiety and the ratings of overall strategy difficulty and the use of social strategies” (p. 383). The three highest mean anxiety ratings are for “start L2 conversations” (4.76), “encourage myself to speak when afraid” (4.54), and “look for conversations” (4.46) (p. 379). Gardner and Noels submitted that this tendency was line with anxious students’ “cognitive resources” (p. 383) being averted from language learning tasks by anxiety (Eysenck, 1979) and that this would mean that for this kind of student, employing strategies would be more complicated. As regards the links between
anxiety and social strategies, these appeared to be congruent with anxious learners’ communication apprehension and fear of loss of esteem by others.

2.20 Previous Studies

The following are collection of studies relevant to the field of Anxiety experienced by different learners from different nationalities.

Bailey (1983) through the analyses of the diaries of 11 learners found that competitiveness can cause anxiety on the part of the learners. He found that students have the tendency to outperform each other to gain positive feedback from their teacher regarding their progress and competence. He also found that tests and the learners "perceived relationship with their teacher also contributed to the learners" language anxiety (Bailey, 1983 as cited in Na, 2007).

MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) in a study they conducted involving 97 college students learning French, found that those students with language anxiety find it more difficult to express their own views and tend to underestimate their own abilities. They also discovered that in the process of three stages of language acquisition, that is, input, processing and output, anxiety and learning achievement are negatively correlated (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994 as cited in Pappamihiel, 2002).

Pappamihiel (2002) conducted a study on language anxiety among 178 middle-school Mexican immigrant students attending school in the US. Participants were subjected to the English Language Anxiety Scale to identify how levels of anxiety correlated with specific factors such as years of stay in the US, levels of academic achievement, listening and speaking skills, reading and writing skills and gender. Results show that interaction with Mexican students raised levels of anxiety and that such strategies such as avoidance were used to reduce anxiety.
**Na in (2007)** surveyed 115 Chinese high school students and found that these learners have high anxiety in learning the English language. Specifically she discovered that males have higher anxiety in learning English than their female counterparts. Moreover, she also found out that high anxiety plays a debilitative role in high school students’ language learning. This type of language anxiety causes the learner "to flee from" the learning task to avoid further anxiety.

**Ohata (2005)** examined the nature of language anxiety from the perspective of five Japanese learners of English studying in the US. With the use of self-reflective accounts of the emotional difficulties experienced by these language learners, she found that characteristics of language anxiety are influenced by Japanese cultural norms or expectations they have acquired through numerous socialization processes in Japan. It seems that their cultural practices such as hesitating to express one's own ideas or not being assertive, caused them anxieties in their interaction with others.

**Williams and Andrade (2008)** conducted a survey among 243 Japanese students in 31 English conversation classes at four universities in Japan. They found that language anxiety was often associated with the output and processing stages of the language learning process. Furthermore, they also discovered that students attributed their anxieties are caused by their teachers and classmates.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Background

This chapter presents the research design and methodological steps and procedures used in carrying out this study. It starts with a description of the participants in the study. It also goes on to discuss the two instruments used for data collection; these are:

The Foreign Language Classroom Scale which was designed developed and used by (Horwitz et al., 1986). Mrs. Horwiz kindly gave her permission to use the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale in this study. (see appendices). The scale was administered to 234 EFL students enroll at the Faculty of Education, University of Gezira, Hasahisa. The participants of this study represent all batches of the Faculty of Education Hasahisa, University of Gezira.

Individual interviews which was conducted with native and non-native English language teachers.

The introduction of these instruments includes the procedures for data collection, the data transcription and methods of analysis, and the consideration of validity and reliability of these instruments.

The main objective of this research remains to seek the causes and factors that might contribute to the anxiety experienced by EFL students at the Faculty of Education Hashisa, Gezira University when the attempt to speak in English classroom classes.
3.1 Students Participants

This study targeted 234 participants and endeavored to involve students of English of the Faculty of Education Hasahisa, University of Gezira. These students represent different academic levels and they also represent different geographic regions in Sudan. The Faculty of Education Hasahisa, University of Gezira is located in the centre of Gezira province (central Sudan) and includes students from all over Sudan. The selection of participants is determined by the nature of the issues under investigation (speaking anxiety). Ideally, a full study of the foreign language speaking anxiety in Sudan would investigate Sudan's English teaching at the basic and secondary levels. This would have been a very large project way beyond the scope of a single study. Therefore, English teaching at school level was excluded from the scope of the present research, and the focus has been limited to the perceptions of students of English among Sudanese English majors. Teachers and students of English were selected as the participants because they are the people who are most deeply involved in daily teaching and learning of English and thus are most closely related to the issues addressed in this research. University students were also selected because they have had at least seven years of English learning experience and thus are able to understand the research topic better and express their own opinions more clearly than school students. The choice of the participants was further limited to EFL majors. Ross and Rust (1997, p. 427) argue that the use of a sample often provides the following advantages compared with a complete coverage if the scientific sampling procedures are employed in association with appropriate methods of data analysis:

1. Reduced cost associated with obtaining and analyzing the data.
2. Reduced requirements for specialized personnel to conduct the field work.
3. Greater speed in most aspects of data manipulation and summarization.
4. Greater accuracy due to the possibility of closer supervision of fieldwork and data preparation.

3.2 Teachers participants

Teachers were included in this study as participants because research such as this needs to be investigated in terms of methodology as well as data sources, that is, students supply subjective data source, the researcher analyzes the data objectively, and the teachers provide a second independent perspective as another instrument of data collection. Personal interviews were conducted with eight English language teachers. This sample represents (50 %) out of a total number of sixteen English language teachers working at the Saudi Electricity Company Training Institute, Dammam. Among the teachers, three were native speakers and five were nonnative. The sample teachers have five to twenty years of English teaching experience. In terms of academic qualifications; one of them holds a doctorate degree, four a master’s degree, and three a bachelor’s degree.

3.3 Data Collection Instruments

To achieve the primary goal of the study, a descriptive research design incorporating both qualitative and quantitative instruments was used. The use of both types of instruments provides a more comprehensive picture of the participants' attitudes than could be possible with one data collection method alone (Creswell, 2008). The instruments employed were:

The analysis of the data collected was used to draw conclusions related to the research questions already identified. These conclusions will hopefully add to scholarly research currently available regarding the anxiety experienced by majoring EFL learners when learning and speaking the English language, particularly in Sudan.
3.4 The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, FLCAS

In order to answer the research questions the Foreign Language Classroom anxiety Scale (FLCAS), was developed. Below is a comprehensive description of this scale. Horwitz and her colleagues made a unique contribution to the identification of the scope of foreign language anxiety by developing a systematic instrument called the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale FLCAS. This instrument was developed to evaluate levels of anxiety associated with the experience of learning a foreign language in the classroom, Horwiz, (1986:559) says "as evidenced by negative performance expectancies and social comparisons, psychophysiological symptoms, and avoidance behaviors”. Dr. Horwitz, in a personal communication most kindly gave her permission for the researcher to use the FLCAS in this study (see appendices).

Horwitz,(Ibid):560)states that: FLCAS items are based on "student self-reports clinical experience and a review of related instruments". The items of FLCAS were formulated taking into account the following:

1. Comments made by anxious students who took part in a "Support Group for Foreign Language Learning at the University of Texas at Austin, who described their problems when learning English in the classroom.
2. Experiences recounted by counselors and tutors at the Learning Skill Centre at the University of Texas.
3. Horwitz's personal experience as a language teacher of anxious students.
4. Surveys of other instruments used in the evaluation of anxiety. These were "measures of test anxiety (Sarason, 1978), speech anxiety (Paul, 1966) and communication apprehension (MacCrosky, 1970)” (Horwitz, 1986, p.560)
The scale consists of 33 items. These items are categorized by the causes of anxiety that may be prevalent among foreign language learners of English. They are identified as:

1. Communication apprehension
2. Fear of negative evaluation,
3. Test anxiety
4. Anxiety in English classroom classes.

Participants were asked to rate each of the statement in the FLCAS using the 5-point Likert-type responses, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree": Strongly agree (SA), Agree (A) = Neutral (N) Disagree (D) strongly Disagree (SD).

According to Horwitz (1986), the internal reliability of the FLCAS measured by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was .93; the test-retest reliability over eight weeks was \( r = .83 \) (\( p < .001, N = 78 \)); the validity coefficient between the FLCAS and final grade for the two beginning Spanish classes was \( r = -.49 \) (\( p < .005, N = 35 \)) and that for the two French classes was \( r = -.54 \) (\( p < .001, N = 32 \)). Other studies using the FLCAS have also generated excellent reliability scores. For instance, Aida (1994) reported an internal consistency of .94 with the FLCAS.

Horwitz et al. suggest that significant foreign language anxiety is experienced by many learners in response to at least some aspects of foreign language learning. This concept has been examined and supported by a number of studies on the language anxiety domain (Aida, 1994; Cheng, 1998; Liu, 2006; Saito, Gerza & Horwitz, 1999; Yan, 1998).

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale was translated into Arabic, the subjects' mother tongue. The reason for this Arabic-to-English translation
was basically to avoid misunderstanding and to enable the sample population respond to the scale items more accurately and comfortably. The scale was translated by the researcher of the study and revised by other two English instructors (one of them has a master degree in translation). To insure the original meaning was preserved, the Arabic translation was translated back into English.

Prior to the actual commencement of the study, a random selection of ten students, (who did not participate in the actual study), had been asked to go over the each item of the scale in order to test its clarity and comprehensibility.

### 3.3.1 Interviews with English Language Instructors

In order to provide a deeper understanding of EFL teachers’ views toward anxiety and its negative impact on both learning and speaking of EFL, it was deemed useful to conduct interviews with EFL teachers. Interviews were conducted with a subgroup of eight teachers randomly selected from those who had agreed in advance to participate in the interviews for the purpose of the study. Before the interviews were conducted, the participants were asked whether they agree to have the interviews be audio-taped. After the researcher got the participants agreement, the interviews were conducted. The representative sample of teachers was asked six open-ended questions designed to elicit qualitative data regarding their belief and opinions on the on the anxiety that associates with the processes of learning and speaking for the EFL learners (see Appendices). The interviews which were conducted face-to-face were transcribed and then analyzed.
3.5 Procedure

The major purpose of this study was to investigate students' perceptions concerning their EFL learning and speaking anxiety and the factors causing them. The researcher decided to collect the quantitative data from the field of study i.e. EFL major learners at the Faculty of Education, Gezira University, Hasahisa. As required, data was collected at the beginning of the first semester 2013. The plan was to use the FLCAS as well as interviews with EFL teachers in order to collect the mentioned above.

A total of 234 students participated in the study. Participants were English major students from all batches. The researcher gave assurance that any data obtained would be treated with complete confidentiality. All participants agreed to take part in the study.

The data collection instrument was administered. To insure effective implementation the FLCAS was administered by the researcher. After the necessary introduction and explanations were made, the research topic was explained to the participants in their native language, Arabic, in order to increase their comfort and understanding.

The participants were informed that the scale was a part of a PhD research aimed at investigating the factors and causes of anxiety in learning and speaking of EFL in an attempt to alleviate it and therefore improve the processes of learning and speaking of EFL. The participants were given 30 minutes to complete the scale. No one was allowed to leave the before the given time so as to avoid rushing to fill out the scale items and leave the class early.

The qualitative data was gathered from EFL teachers working at the Saudi Electricity Training Institute in Dammam, Saudi Arabia. The institute teaches EFL as well as ESP for Saudi trainees. Teachers participating in the study were native and non-native speakers of English language from different nationalities (America, Canada, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Egypt, Jordan, Palestine and Tunisia).
The interviews which were conducted face-to-face were audio-taped and transcribed in order to be analyzed.

3.5 Data analysis

The results of this study were based on a scale (FLCAS) and interviews used as instruments for data collection. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS programme. Means, standard deviations, frequency counts, and percentages were used to analyze collected data in order to describe the learners’ perceptions of anxiety they experienced when learning and speaking EFL. Scale items were given equal balance in a 5-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Neutral = 3, Agree = 4 and Strongly Agree = 5).

3.6.1 Reliability and Validity of the Scale

The study used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme for the statistical analytical operations. The researcher used the split half reliability and the results obtained as follows:

\[ r_{xy} = \frac{N(\Sigma XY) - (\Sigma X\Sigma Y)}{\sqrt[N(\Sigma X^2) - (\Sigma X)^2][N(\Sigma Y^2) - (\Sigma Y)^2]} \]

Where

\( r = \text{correlation} \)

R: Reliability of the test

N: number of all items in the test

X: odd scores

Y: even scores

\( \Sigma: \text{Sum} \)

\[ R = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r} \]
\[ \text{Val} = \sqrt{\text{reliability}} \]

Correlation = 0.839707

Reliability = 0.91287

\[ \text{Val} = \sqrt{0.91287} \]

Validity = 0.955442

For the qualitative analysis, the interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed. Similar teacher responses were grouped together. Relevant quotations were then grouped together.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher intends to present analyzes and discuss the results obtained from FLCAS which was administered to a randomly selected population of EFL students who were major in English. Data was collected from all batches the Faculty of Education at the Gezira University. Also to display and discuss the results of the interviews which were conducted with randomly selected native and nonnative teachers of English language teaching English at the Saudi electricity Company Training Institute in Dammam, Saudi Arabia. These results have been analyzed for and discussed for the study questions statistically by using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS).

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the researcher used two tools, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale which was designed and developed by Horwitz et al., (1986) and interviews with native and nonnative English language teachers. To evaluate the data, the researcher used series of statistical techniques such as the instruments of applied study, which contain the description of the study's population and its sample, method of data collection.

4.1 Outcomes of the FLCAS Administration

The researcher administered the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwiz et al., 1986) to a sample population of 234 students from all batches studying EFL the Faculty of Education at Gezira University. The scale's samples which were returned in to the researcher were 234.

4.3 Statistical Procedure of Data Analysis

The study used the SPSS programme for the statistical operations. At this stage of statistical analysis, the frequencies graphs and percentages of the
subjects' responses to each item in the scale was calculated by computer, where as the data collected from the interview open-ended questions with the EFL teachers were analyzed manually by the researcher.

4.3.1 The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety scale Results

The items of the Foreign Language classroom anxiety scale was divided into four parts, each part was designed to measure a source of anxiety such as communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety and anxiety in English classroom classes.

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4.4 Results of Communication Apprehension

Items: 1, 4, 9, 14, 15, 18, 24, 27, 29, 30, 32 were designed to measure communication apprehension experienced by EFL learners. The following represents the results obtained from the participants of the study:
Item 1: I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.

Table (4-1) (Results of item 1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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<td>16.3</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.1)

This statement was developed in order to analyze whether the students feel confident when they were speaking in class and to identify the level of anxiety they experience. It is clear from table (4-1) and figure (4-1) that 115 (49.2%), respondents agreed they never feel quite sure of themselves when they are speaking in their foreign language class while, 75 (36.3%) respondents, disagreed. It can be seen that, students lacked self confidence in term of expressing themselves in English.
Item 4: It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.

*Table (4-2) (Results of item 4)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>234</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above statements refer to students’ anxious feelings caused by their inability to understand and follow the teachers in English lessons. The table shows that 170 (72.7%) of the participants agreed with the statement that says what the teacher was saying or correcting in English could contribute to anxiety whereas 37 (15.8%) rejected. This figure is similar to what has been reported by Aida (1994) and Burden (2004), indicating that the difficulty in understanding and following the teachers is considered a serious problem by most language learners regardless of the second/foreign language and classroom settings.
Item 9: I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class

*Table (4-3) (Results of item 9)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-3) and figure (4-3) show that 171 (73.1%), respondents agreed that they feel anxious when they have to speak in English without preparation while, 42, (17.9 %) respondents disagreed. It can be concluded that, in terms of speaking English without preparation, participants tend to panic and become more confused when they had to speak in English without preparation.
**Item 14:** I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.

*Table (4-4 ) *(Results of item 14)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fig (4-4)*

Table (4-4) and figure (4-4) show that 125 (53.5%), respondents agreed that while, 69 (29.4 %) respondents disagreed with the statement that says “I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers”.

This means that more than half of the participants agreed that they would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers. This indicates that when a native speaker encourages, the student self-confidence grows and therefore, anxiety diminishes. A friend is commonly seen as someone who can be trusted and who sympathizes, encourages and supports. In this situation, there
is a reduced fear of negative evaluation because of the assumption that one is not going to be judged.

**Item 15: I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting**

*Table (4-5) (Results of item 15)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the statement I get upset when do not understand what the teacher is correcting 99 (42.3%) participants agreed and 109 (46.6%) disagreed with this item. This means that participants’ communication apprehension resulted from their belief that “in order for students to have any chance of comprehending the
target language message, they must understand every word that is spoken” (Horwitz, et al., 1986, p. 130).

**Item 18: I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.**

*Table (4-6) (Results of item 18)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>59</td>
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<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from the above table (4-6) and figure (4-6) that there were 108 (45.2 %) participants who strongly agreed that they feel confident when they speak in foreign language class and 92 (39.3 %) disagreed. According to Horwitz (186),
anxious students feel a deep self-consciousness when asked to risk revealing themselves by speaking the foreign language in the presence of other people.

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

*Table (4-7) (Results of item 24)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig (4.7)**

This item is designed to understand how self-conscious students are when they use English to communicate in front of other. The result showed that 106 (45.3%) agreed whereas 91 (38.9 %) rejected. This means that less than half of the participants have no problem speaking the foreign consciously in front of other. Everyone has felt anxious or embarrassed at one time or another. This
means that the participants of this study do not experience social phobia or a strong fear of being judged by others and of being embarrassed.

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

*Table (4-8) (Results of item 27)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The purpose of this item is to understand how nervous students are when they use English to communicate with others. The results show that 110 (56.9 %) of the participants indorsed that they get nervous and confused when they are speaking in their language class and 68 (29 %)
rejected. This indicates that almost a third of the participants investigated feel confused when asked to risk revealing themselves by speaking the foreign language in the presence of other people.

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

*Table (4-9) (Results of item 29)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>234</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The result of the item 29 showed that 108 (50.5) of the participants agreed that they felt restless when they did not understand what the teacher said in foreign language whereas 65 (32%) disagreed with the statement. This result showed that more than half of the participants believe that in order to have any chance of comprehending the target language message they must understand every word that is spoken anxieties.

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

*Table (4-10) (Results of item 32)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The result in the above table and figure showed that the presence of native speakers of English seemed to be comforting for the majority of the participants in the study on the one hand, 179 (68%) of the students indorsed that they would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language whereas 46 (19.6%) of the participants denied. This result also assured that the majority of the participants do not feel social phobia and that they have no problem being with the native speakers of the English language.
4.4 Results of Fear of Negative Evaluation

Items 3, 7, 13, 20, 23, 25, 31, and 33 were fear of negative evaluation experienced by EFL learners. The following represents the results obtained from the sample population:

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

Table (4-11) (Results of item 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This statement was developed in order to analyze whether the respondents tremble when they have to speak in English. Those who agreed with the statement accounted for 184 participants (78.6%). Only 36 (15%) of the participants disagreed. It can be concluded that the majority of participants become extremely anxious when they are called on in language class. They may skip class, over study, or seek refuge in the last row in an effort to avoid the humiliation or embarrassment of being called on to speak.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This statement also shows that 106 (45.3%) participants have higher anxiety levels because they keep thinking that other students are better at languages than they are. In contrast, 82 (35%) rejected that the others are speaking better than they are. That means anxious students fear being less competent than other students or being negatively evaluated by them.

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

*Table (4-13) (Results of item 13)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>234</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig(4-13)
From figure (4.13) and figure (4-13) 106 (45.3%) participants tend to be more anxious compared to 82 (35 %) disagreed that they feel embarrassed when they want to volunteer answers in class. Those who agreed with the statement did not like to volunteer answers in class as they lack confidence in themselves. They may skip class, overstudy, or seek refuge in the last row in an effort to avoid the humiliation or embarrassment of being called on to speak.
Item 20: I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class

Table (4-14) (Results of item 20)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table and the figure above show that 126 (53%) agreed that one’s heart pounding when being called on in class whereas 79 (33.7%) rejected the statement. More than half of the participants are apprehensive when called upon to answer questions in the language class.

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

*Table (4-15) (Results of item 23)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>18.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>15.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>234</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fig(4-15)*
It is clear from the above table (4-15) and figure (4-15) that there were 137 (58.6%) who agreed that they always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than they do. 54 (23%) disagreed. This statement also shows that participants have higher level anxiety. Thus, they may skip class, overstudy, or seek refuge in the last row in an effort to avoid the humiliation or embarrassment of being called on to speak.

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

*Table (4-16) (Results of item 25)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is clear from the above table (4-16) and figure (4-16) that there were 100 (42.8 %) who agreed that language class moves so quickly they worry about getting left behind whereas 94 (40.1 %) disagreed. As regards the anxiety experiences lived inside the classroom, so students worried about being left behind because of the lesson’s pace.

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

*Table (4-17) (Results of item 31)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fig(4-17)*
It is clear from the above table (4-17) and figure (4-17) that there were 159 (68%) agreed they are afraid that the other students will laugh at them when they speak the foreign language, 46(19.6%) disagreed. Thus, they may skip class, overstudy, or seek refuge in the last row in an effort to avoid the humiliation or embarrassment of being called on to speak.

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

*Table (4-18) (Results of item 33)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results show that 169 (72.3%) respondents agreed with the statement whereas 46 (17.6%) disagreed that they feel anxious when they have to speak in English without preparation. It can be concluded that, in terms of speaking English without preparation, participants experienced extremely high level of anxiety. They believe that in order to have any chance of comprehending the target language message they must be well prepared in advance.

4.5 Results of Test Anxiety

Too much anxiety about a test is commonly referred to as test anxiety. Test anxiety is very common among students. It can interfere with their studying, and they may have difficulty learning and remembering what they need to know for the test. Further, too much anxiety may block students' performance. They may have difficulty demonstrating what they know during the test. Test anxiety can cause a host of problems in students. Although each person will experience a different collection of symptoms with differing degrees of intensity, the symptoms fall into a few categories. Items 2, 8, 10, 19, 21, were of test anxiety experienced by EFL learners. The following represents the results obtained from the sample population.
Item2: I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.

Table (4-19) (Results of item 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table and the figure above showed that 156 (66.7 %) of the participants did not worry about making mistakes in language class whereas 59 (25.2 %) said that they worried of making mistakes in language class. This means that the fear of being evaluated by others could have been involved in the process of
speaking and that fear of being evaluated by the teacher was as big as their fear of being evaluated by the classroom mates it also means that these students seem to feel constantly tested and to perceive every correction as a failure.

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

*Table (4-20) (Results of item 8)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig(4-20)
As we can see in item 8, 106(45.28%) of students indorsed that they were usually at ease during tests in their language class. Some students 82 (35.1%) participated in the study, denied being at ease during tests in their language class. This piece of data was most probably related to the fact that more than the third of students were worried about the consequences of failing the subject.

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

*Table (4-21) (Results of item 10)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 4-21](image-url)
It is clear from the above table (4-21 and figure (4-21) that there were 171 (73.1%) agreed that they worried about the consequences of failing their foreign language class, 42(17.9%) rejected. The result showed that a large amount of students were worried about the consequences of failing the subject, as item 10 shows.

**Item 19: I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make**

*Table (4-22) (Results of item 19)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fig(4-22)*
It is obvious from the above table (4-22) and figure (4-22) that there were 108 (46.2%) agreed that that they were afraid that their language teacher is ready to correct every mistake they make and that 92 (39.3%) rejected the statement. This indicates that students’ fear of being evaluated by the teacher was bigger than being evaluated by their classroom mates. Anxious students are afraid to make mistakes in the foreign language in the presence of their teacher.

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

*Table (4-23) (Results of item 21)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Fig(4-22)Fig(4-23)](image)

It is clear from the above table (4-23) and figure (4-23) that 130 (55.6%) of the participants feel that when they study more for the language test, they get
confused. Only 79 (33.7 %) of the participants do not feel that confusion and that preparing for the language test is like preparing for any other subject.

**Results of Anxiety in English classroom Class**

Items 5, 6, 11, 12, 16, 17, 22, 26, 28 and 30 were of Anxiety in English classroom Class experienced by EFL learners. The following represents the results obtained from the sample population.

**Item 5: It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language**

*Table (4-24) (Results of item 5)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is clear from the above table (4-25) and figure (4-25) that 111(47.4 \%) agreed that taking more foreign language wouldn't bother them at all. This means that taking more English classes does not provoke the participants' anxiety.

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

*Table (4-26) (Results of item 6)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is clear from the above table (4-26) and figure (4-26) that the majority of the participants 138 (53.3 %) found themselves in class thinking of things that had nothing to do with it. Only 53 (22%) of the participants rejected that they found themselves thinking of things that had nothing to do with it. This results indicates that a great number of the participants feel anxious during English class and try to flee the learning situation.

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

*Table (4-27) (Results of item 11)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fig(4-27)*

158
It is clear from the above table (4-27) and figure (4-27) that 143 (61.2 %) don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes 54 (32 %). These results suggest that anxious students feel uniquely unable to deal with the task of language learning.

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

*Table (4-28) (Results of item 12)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig.(2-28)
Item 16: Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

Table (4-29) (Results of item 16)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Speaking the language seemed to be difficult for a large amount of participants, since item 30 indicated that 111 (47.5 %) of the investigated students felt overwhelmed by the number of rules they had to learn to speak a foreign language and 91 (38.8 %) found no problem dealing with the language rules. This result view that foreign language anxiety is a distinct set of beliefs, perceptions, and feelings in response to foreign language learning in the classroom and not merely a composite of other. It can be concluded that 105 (44.9 %) of the participants experienced more anxiety in terms of forgetting to say things they know. They indorsed that in language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know. 92 (39.3 %) rejected being nervous forgetting things they know.

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

*Table (4-30) (Results of item 17)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is clear from the above table (4-30) and figure (4-27) that 122 (52.2 %) indorsed that they often feel like not going to my language class where as 84 (35.6 %) found no problem to go to their language class. This result shows that those who agreed dined that it would not bother them at all to take more language classes.

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

*Table (4-30) (Results of item 22)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is clear from the above table (4-28) and figure (4-28) that 150 (63.8 %) agreed that they don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class, whereas 54 (23%) disagreed. The majority of the participants do not seem to understand foreign language classes could be a cause of distress to them.

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

*Table (4-31) (Results of item 26)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is clear from the above table (4-31) and figure (4-31) 100 (42.8 %) of the participants showed that they felt more tense and nervous in the foreign language class than in other classes. The results also showed that 94 (40.1 %) denied the feeling of tension and nervousness in their language class.

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

*Table (4-32) (Results of item 28)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is clear from the above table (4-30) and figure (4-30) that 133 (56.9%) agreed with the statement that says when they are on their way to language class, they feel very sure and relaxed. 68 (29%) disagreed.

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

*Table (4-33) (Results of item 33)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result in (table 33) and (figure 33) showed that 111 (47.4%) endorsed that they feel overwhelmed by the number of rules they have to learn to speak a foreign language lend further support to the view that foreign language anxiety is a distinct set of beliefs, perceptions, and feelings in response to foreign language learning in the classroom and not merely a composite of other anxieties. The item is rejected by 91 (38.8%) of the participants.
4.6 Discussion of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The scale has demonstrated internal reliability, achieving an alpha coefficient of .93 with all items producing significant corrected item-total scale correlations. Test-retest reliability over eight weeks yielded an $r = .83$ ($p < .001$). A construct validation study is currently underway to establish foreign language anxiety as a phenomenon related to but distinguishable from other specific anxieties. Pilot testing with the FLCAS affords an opportunity to examine the scope and severity of foreign language anxiety. To date, the results demonstrate that students with debilitating anxiety in the foreign language classroom setting can be identified and that they share a number of characteristics in common. The FLCAS was administered to the students during their scheduled language class the third week of the semester. The items presented are reflective of communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation in the foreign language classroom. Responses to all FLCAS items are reported in 33 tables and figures. All percentages refer to the number of students who agreed or strongly agreed or disagreed and strongly disagreed with statements indicative of foreign language anxiety. Students who test high on anxiety report that they are afraid to speak in the foreign language. They endorse FLCAS items indicative of speech anxiety such as "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class" ,"I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class" ,"I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students" . They also reject statements like "I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class" . Anxious students feel a deep self-consciousness when asked to risk revealing themselves by speaking the foreign language in the presence of other people.
4.7 Results of the Interviews with EFL Teachers

A ground theory approach (Creswell, 1998) was employed to carry out this study. In-depth interviews were adopted to collect data.

Three individual interviews with eight EFL teachers from the Saudi Electricity Company Training Institute, Dammam, Saudi Arabia were conducted to gather in depth information concerning teachers' views of the role of language anxiety and the teacher roles in managing college students' language anxiety.

4.8 Description of the Participants

Eight experienced teachers, three native-English speaking teachers and five native-Arabic speaking teachers from the Saudi Electricity Company Training Institute, Dammam, Saudi Arabia, were interviewed. The eight participants' demographic information including nationality, qualification and years of experience are shown in table 1. For descriptive convenience, participants were identified as P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8.

Table 1 participants' Demographic Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>American M.A in TEFEL</td>
<td>15 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>Canadian Diploma in ELT</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3</td>
<td>American PhD in Education</td>
<td>15 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>Saudi BA in English</td>
<td>20 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5</td>
<td>Tunisian BA in ELT</td>
<td>16 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6</td>
<td>Jordanian MA in Linguistics</td>
<td>14 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P7</td>
<td>Sudanese BA + Diploma in ELT</td>
<td>13 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P8</td>
<td>Egyptian MA in linguistics</td>
<td>10 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.9 Interviews

The interviews passed through three stages. The researcher used the qualitative method for data collection. The reason for the use of a qualitative interview format for data collection is based upon the idea that the researcher can gather data that cannot be directly observed, such as thoughts, feelings, intentions or beliefs (Denzin, 1989; Merriam, 1998), or what is "in and on someone else's mind" (Patton, 1990, P.278). Seidman (1998) also states that "at the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the experience of other people and meaning they make of that experience." (p.3).

Stage I

A group interview was conducted with all the eight participants together. The primary purpose of that interview was to explain the main objective of the research and to define the research questions for the participants. The researcher discussed the nature of the questions to be asked. The expectation of the researcher in terms of the time involved in the research was also discussed. The secondary purpose of the interview was to develop rapport between interviewer (researcher) and the interviewees (EFL teachers). This time allowed the researcher to ask the participants to share information regarding their teaching background as well as their willingness to participate in the study.

Stage II

The interview was administered individually with the participants. Permission was obtained to tape record this interview. The interview began with the researcher asking the participants to give demographic information such as nationalities, qualifications and years of experience. Then the researcher asked the participants the six interview questions which were designed to gather data regarding the participants' actual experiences with anxious students in the classroom. The participants were asked to address issues directly related to the
research questions in this study. To encourage an open and a frank discussion of the participants' ideas, an informal and a relaxed atmosphere was promoted during the interview. Appendix…. Listed the questions for the second interview regarding the role of language anxiety, causes and manifestations and anxiety reducing strategies in the context of college level EFL major classroom.

Stage III

The third stage was a member checking stage. The participants were given 20 minutes after the tape recordings of the interview were transcribed, the data was coded and the major themes were identified for each of the participants. According to Tutty, Rothery and Grinnell (1996) "member checking: obtaining feedback from your research participants is an essential credibility technique that is unique to qualitative methods." The member checking interview was used to confirm and clarify the content of what each participant had said during earlier interviews and to clarify specific statements made by the participants.

2.10 Data Analysis

The format of open coding, axial coding and selective coding in grounded theory were adopted to analyze data (creswell, 1998, p.57). From data collected, key points were marked with a series of codes, which were extracted from the text. These codes were grouped into similar concepts or categories.

The analysis below is based on respondents' answers to the following questions:

1. How do you view the role of language anxiety for EFL learners in learning English language in general and speaking it in particular?
2. What kinds of situations and language classroom activities have you found to be the most anxiety-provoking for the students?
3. What do you think are the causes of students’ anxiety while learning English in general and speaking it in particular?
4. Have you noticed any particular kinds of beliefs or perceptions about learning and speaking English in your students and do you think they play a role in causing language anxiety for the learners? Please explain.

5. What sign of anxiety have you noticed in anxious learners during your experience of teaching English to EFL?

6. How do you think language anxiety can be successfully controlled in the learners?

The questions above were asked to analyze three major themes addressing the research questions; the role of anxiety in EFL learning and speaking, causes provoking language anxiety and the teacher roles in managing and controlling student language anxiety.

4.11 Roles of Anxiety

The majority (if not all) the respondents believed that anxiety should be categorized into two types: debilitating anxiety and facilitating anxiety.

4.10.1 Debilitating Anxiety

Anxiety is viewed to have a negative impact on students' performance and to impede learning. When students are anxious in the classroom, performance at full competence is hampered, and this may result in losing interest and lowering intrinsic motivation to learn. This type of anxiety is referred as a debilitating anxiety which is "associated with poor learning performance" (Alpert& Haber, 1960; Kleinmann, 1977; Scovel, 1978). P1 believed that negative anxiety "can prevent learners from expressing themselves properly. It makes learners fear to speak out and make a mistake." (Personal communication, April, 2013). P2 regarded anxiety to "interfere with second language acquisition, learning and cognition." He believed that it can "hamper the ability to take information and integrated into whatever knowledge you have" (Personal communication, April, 2013). P3 considered anxiety as "unnecessary worries," which is something that should not exist. "Anxiety is a mental disorder when you worry about silly
things” (personal communication, April, 2013). P 4 pointed out the depressing side of anxiety stating that: Anxiety plays its "evil" role in the classroom. This role is crucial. Feelings of anxiety and threat cause brain downshifting that leads to significantly reduced performance in class caused by a reservation to early learned behaviours and programming that leads to primitive answers or no answers whatsoever. We downshift when we experience a threat that is accompanied by a sense of helplessness or fatigue. We find it difficult to perceive new opportunities, recognize context cues, and deal with uncertainty. Sometimes we even find it impossible to access ideas and procedures that we already know. Unfortunately, that is what happens in our classrooms more often than we would like it to happen. (Personal communication, April, 2013).

4.10.2 Facilitating Anxiety

The participants assured that a degree of anxiety is good and necessary for learning or used to motivate students to spend more time on learning. P3 presented that it is good for students to have some pressure and some concern about their level of studies....stress is a very strong motivational force because it pushes the student to learn and to perform better. Students should have worries and be concerned. (personal communication, April, 2013).

The same idea that learning enhanced by challenge and inhibited by anxiety is shared by P1 who contributed that:

There is also good stress. This stress is what we call challenge. Challenge has a very different threat from that of threat. It involves a combination of personal interest or intrinsic motivation together with a sense or a feeling that I can do it. It is in these circumstances that complex and creative patterning becomes possible (personal communication, April, 2013). Another reason to support a degree of anxiety is that an anxiety-free classroom may lead to a lecture classroom in which the communicative learning is impossible, the learning is
teacher-centered and the students feel comfortable because they do not take part in speaking. This claim was raised by P2 who said:

Another role of anxiety is that of a dictator or controller of program. Perhaps an extreme example of anxiety dictating program would be the language classroom that looks like a lecture classroom. The teacher simply eliminated all activities that might produce the slightest discomfort or anxiety to the students. The communicative approach has little chance if anxiety is the dictator (personal communication, April,2013). P6 looks at the positive side of anxiety. According to him "anxiety can be a sign telling teachers that certain students may need more help with instruction" (personal communication, April,2013).

4.11 Causes Provoking Language anxiety

Various causes that provoke anxiety have been cited by the participants. The following discussion exposes to the most frequently cited anxiety provoking factors and causes observed by the participants.

4.12 Lack of confidence in speaking English

The participants indicated that many students lack confidence. P3 stated that "anytime they have to speak or answer questions in front of the whole class, the definitely show anxiety. For me lots of them lack self-confidence and they do not to show the mistake in front of everybody." (personal communication,April,2013). P3 thinks that " students lower their voice to avoid being heard when they are confronting words they do not know who to pronounce when reading aloud or speaking in front everyone" (personal communication,April,2013).

4.12.1 Low English proficiency

Participants also agreed that English proficiency i.e. the ability to use English, is one of the causes that provoke anxiety. P1 said that "the main verbal reason is poor verbal knowledge, real or assumed. Sometimes students think that
their language proficiency is low, and they are kind of desperate to change it. (personal communication, April, 2013).

4.12.2 Unfamiliar content

Difficult or unfamiliar content is said to be an anxiety provoking cause for the vast majority of students in the classroom. P1 for example thinks that "what is to be learnt does not always connect with what students already know, which forces them to resort to memorization because the brain deals with unconnected information differently from the way it deals with meaningless information" (personal communication, April, 2013).

4.12.3 Speaking

Almost all the participants agreed upon the idea that speaking is one of the main anxiety provoking causes because it deals with the production skill. P1 and P2 had the same idea that "the most anxiety provoking causes have to do with speaking, especially in front of peers and other students because the student feels vulnerable and might be criticized for his inability to express himself." (personal communication, April, 2013). P3 stated that "when a new unfamiliar presentation format is required, required either spoken or written show their anxiety with a helpless facial expression" (personal communication, 2013) P7 said that "some students are very anxious when do role plays on the stage for the very first time" (personal communication, 2013). P4 said that "speaking gets students feel uncomfortable and some students do not like it. This activity really gives a lot of anxiety and you see students get very nervous because all the attention is on them." (personal communication April, 2013). P5 thinks that "giving speeches or presentations in front of the group is an anxiety provoking situation. Another one is when a guest or a visitor comes to the classroom and starts asking questions that are off the textbook or when they are forced to have a basic conversation with the visitor of the classroom." (personal communication, April, 2013). P6 said that "actually I find productive skills such
as speaking and writing to be the most anxiety provoking to the students and I put this down to the fact that they are skills where persistent phobias take place" (personal communication,).

2.13 **Low self-esteem**

The participants highlighted the deleterious impact of some anxiety signs such as shyness, sweating, fear of negative evaluation. P3 said "I guess the main causes of anxiety are communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, learners' perception of how others may negatively view their language ability." (personal communication,). P1 and p2 share the idea that "students think that making a mistake, one loses face. Students also think when they lose face or they are not smart, they are foolish. I think this leads to anxiety." (personal communication,). P5, P6,P7 and P8 summed up the signs of anxiety they noticed in their students "signs of anxiety that I have noticed are, hesitation to speak out loud, unjustified shyness, embarrassment. There is nothing wrong with being shy, because if you are shy, that does not mean that you do not have pretty good English. But when students are shy, they do not look at you; they sit in the back of the classroom. They don’t want to embarrass themselves by participating. They want to become kind of invisible in the classroom. Communication apprehension. P1 said that some students avoid eye contacts when teachers are inviting opinions or questions personal communication (see appendices) .

4.14 **Restrictive time lines**

Another example of anxiety provokers was the restrictive time line. P2 explained that by saying "while deadlines are important in their place, a constant barrage of time limitations drives people to do what has to be done to meet the deadline, rather than to reflect the genuine parameters of task." (personal communication).
4.14.1 Lack of preparation

Some participants pointed out that some students are anxious because they do not prepare well for the class. P4 stated that "a lack of preparation causes anxiety and hesitation to get involved in classroom activities."

4.15 Teachers Roles in managing Students' Language Anxiety

The discussion produced the roles that should be played by teachers to successfully control and manage students' language anxiety. The majority of the participant teachers share the same ideas. The following are the tips resulted from the discussion between the researcher and the participants:

- P3 said "teachers should first acknowledge learners' anxious feelings and helping them realize that anxiety is a widespread phenomenon, helps a lot in facing anxiety." (personal communication, April 2013).
- A relaxing atmosphere needs to be created and weak learners need to be helped and motivated.
- Learners should be encouraged to participate in shelf-talk.
- Teachers need to be sensitive to the learners' fears and needs and therefore, play the role of facilitators by providing those learners with a comprehensible output and opportunities to communicate in the target language.
- A friendly relationship can reduce students' fear or anxiety. The ways to create this atmosphere are presented by P3. He said" students appreciate if you use something more personal. I write and talk to them. I remember their names; talk friendly, one to one. Getting to know them and let them know you know them" (personal communication,April,2013).
- P4 said that "teachers have to be very encouraging, put students in homogeneous groups, so if the group is a various levels, the weaker will
feel as outcast and they are very weak in comparison."
(personal communication, April, 2013).

- P5 thinks that: "teachers should look at students' language anxiety as an
  opportunity to improve their language skills rather than a linguistic
defect." Personal communication)

- All the participants agreed upon the significance of instructional
  procedures to support students in terms of reducing anxiety as P4 said "I
  try to anticipate when they are anxious. I try to support them, teach them
  how to approach people." (personal communication, April, 2013)

- P2 submitted that "the obvious and strategies are pair and group work,
  questioning to the entire class rather than individuals, and lots of
  modeling of expected production, written or spoken." (personal
  communication, April, 2013).

- More than half of the participants assured that students can help
  themselves to reduce language anxiety if they take learning more
  seriously. This idea can be illustrated by P1 and P4 respectively; P1 said
  "learners should not be passive listeners but active performers. They
  should perform, monitor and evaluate their own performance, give their
  own feedback and fill in evaluation forms, and express agreement of
  disagreement with the classmates. Ideally, they should enjoy what they
  are doing using more activities in class. (personal communication,
  April, 2013). P4 said " I want them to take responsibilities for their
  learning. I provide opportunities because people need opportunities to
  improve. The more you practice, the better you are. How to control our
  emotions is also important. If students are shy, I develop their attitude.
  There is always anxiety in people. The more practice, the less class
  anxiety. (personal communication, April, 2013).

- All participants agreed on a need to increase students' confidence
  although the strategies vary from teacher to teacher. P2 said " I give those
  lacking confidence opportunities to answer questions to gain confidence
with a concern with 'face saving' problem. For example, instead of open-ended questions, I change to yes/no questions. I offer opportunities for making achievements." (personal communication, April, 2013).

4.16 Discussion of the Interviews

The interviews with EFL teachers showed that all the teachers interviewed are aware of the issue of foreign language anxiety and have expressed their beliefs confidently with a comprehensive understanding of the impact of both facilitating and debilitating anxiety, identification of student-oriented causes of anxiety and explained how students' learning anxiety can be managed and controlled psychologically and pedagogically by teachers. From these results, several issues were addressed with a great of concern.

First, as could be assumed generally, anxiety is regarded as a negative influence which hinders learning. However, a total anxiety-free learning environment in not fully supported by most of the interviewed participants. According to all participants interviewed, students become anxious due to a lack of confidence and practice in speaking. So an anxiety-free classroom might mean a teacher-centered learning in which students refuse to leave their comfort zone and participate actively. The question comes to one's mind is how to motivate learning with a degree of anxiety without impeding the process of learning.

To answer this question one could say that a teacher should be like a good observer, he should know the reason behind the feeling of anxiety experienced by his students. Knowing the reason of the problem is the key to find the solution. Teachers should know what situations can be controlled before adopting any pedagogical or psychological strategies. Well-trained and experience teachers would have the advantage to handle anxiety problems they notice and to consider students' levels, abilities and learning needs.
4.17 Discussion

Based on the results of the participants' responses and the interviews with the native and non-native teachers of English discussed in chapter 4, the study has revealed the following results:

a- Learner characteristics can cause foreign language anxiety which includes inability to comprehend, self-perceived low level of anxiety, competitiveness, perfectionism, self-awareness, speaking activities, test anxiety, fluent speakers’ presence, students’ beliefs about language learning, lack of group membership with peers, fear of negative evaluation, negative classroom experiences, etc. The following major conclusions can be drawn:

b- Inability to comprehend what was being said in the classroom provoked considerable anxiety. Young (1992) also noted that listening might generate anxiety if it were “incomprehensible” (p. 68).

c- Inability to comprehend exercises or the instruction was also cited as anxiety-provoking factor by several students.

d- Many participants told that when they think that they cannot do anything and compare themselves to other students, they feel very anxious. An interview conducted by Price (1991) emphasized the importance of low esteem.

e- Competitiveness is another anxiety-provoking factor as reported by the participants. Bailey (1983) attributed the cause of language anxiety to competitiveness on part of the learners. She found that learners tended to become anxious when they compared themselves with other learners in the class and found themselves less proficient. According to Price (1991), anxious learners often engage in self-comparison with classmates and peers- and this is the practice which can lead to anxiety.
f- Many participants’ response suggested perfectionism as a factor of FLA. Perfectionism is such a personality trait that can be considered as a factor FLA (Gregerson and Horwitz, 2002). When they looked at the relationship between foreign language anxiety and perfectionism, they found that anxious language learners and perfectionists may have a number of characteristics in common (e.g., higher standards for their English performance, a greater tendency toward procrastination, more worry about the opinions of others, and a higher level of concern over their errors) and that these characteristics have the potential for making language learners unpleasant as well as less successful than other students.

g- Self-awareness is reported as a factor of foreign language anxiety by the participants. Self-aware language learners are confronted with the probability that people will perceive them differently from the way they perceive themselves. Thus, learners can experience anxiety or fear and experience the state of “losing oneself” in the target culture.

h- Many of the anxiety-provoking factors reported by the participants appeared to be generated by various speaking activities which they normally encounter in a language classroom. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) stated that anxious students often cite speaking in the foreign language classroom to be their most anxiety producing experience.

i- Fear of delivering a speech in public exceeded even such phobias as fear of snakes, elevators, and heights. Public speaking is considered very difficult as the learners have to not only learn the new language but perform in it as well (Foss and Reitzel, 1988).

j- Test anxiety was mentioned as an important factor of foreign language learning anxiety in the EFL classroom, particularly in connection with oral testing or listening exercises.
Language testing may lead to foreign language anxiety (Young, 1991; Daly, 1991). For example, difficult tests, tests that do not match the teaching in class or unclear or unfamiliar test instructions can also produce foreign language anxiety.

4. 18 Answers of the Research Questions

The present study aims to seek answers to the four research questions posed in Section 1.3. In other words, it intends to explore the levels of speaking anxiety reported by the English major students in the Faculty of Education Hasahisa, University of Gezira. On the basis of the findings of this study, these questions can now be answered in turn. A total of 234 English majors and eight native and nonnative teachers, all learning or teaching EFL, took part in the study.

RQ1. What levels of FLSA possessed by the student participants?

The data from the FLCAS revealed that the level of foreign language speaking anxiety demonstrated by the student participants was high. The participants acknowledged the existence of FLSA in them. Participants agreed that they were lacking in confidence while speaking a foreign language (see the results). On the whole, these student interviewees did experience a moderate level of FLA while learning the foreign language, which was in accordance with the scale results.

RQ 2. What are differences in FLSA among various participant groups

Results revealed that more teachers agreed with both the reasons resulting in and the tactics coping with students Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety students differences: 1) teachers were significantly more affirmative to their students’ motivation in practicing spoken English than students were to themselves; 2) students were less motivated to practice oral English one of the reasons may be that the former’s oral English was already better than the latter’s, and hence they may have less eagerness for improvement. Lack of self-confidence, lack of practice in speaking the foreign language and lack of motivation to speak the foreign language.
RQ 3. What are the reasons contributing to students’ high level of Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety?

One of the main purposes of the present study is to identify the reasons leading to student’s high level of foreign language speaking anxiety, which is of great significance to explore the effective strategies coping with such Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety. The scale data showed that the some reasons could result in students’ foreign language speaking anxiety. These are:
1. Lack of vocabulary or background knowledge of the foreign language
2. Worry about the fluency of speaking the foreign language
3. Fear of being tested orally in the foreign language
4. Lack of confidence when speaking the foreign language
5. Worry about being looked down on for making mistakes in speaking the foreign language
6. Fear of speaking the foreign language
7. Fear of speaking the foreign language in public

RQ 4 – the strategies helping to reduce students’ high level of FLSA

The two instruments (FLCAS and the teachers' interviews) provide some strategies that may help to reduce student’s high level foreign language speaking anxiety. participants agreed with these strategies:
1. Teacher trying to be humorous
2. Speaking a FL in a friendly environment
3. Teacher trying to be patient
4. Not focusing on accuracy while speaking a FL
5. Teacher trying to be encouraging
6. Indirect mistakes correction
7. Knowing that mistakes are part of the FL learning process and made by everyone
8. Having classmates working in small groups
9. Doing relaxation exercises

10. Participating in a supporting group or activity, and

11. Talking with other students about the fears of speaking a FL
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND
RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of four parts. The first part will summarize the findings of the study. The second part presents the conclusion of the study. The third part exposes to the recommendations of the research. Then finally, there are some suggestions for further studies.

5.2 Summary

This study investigates learning and speaking anxiety among EFL Sudanese students at tertiary level. It also explores the factors and the causes which associate with anxiety and which might cause learning and speaking difficulties for EFL students. Moreover, the study comes as an attempt to help students, teachers, concerned educational establishments (e.g. universities and English language centers) understand anxiety, and its deleterious effect and the factors and causes of anxiety which affect this type of EFL students, help Sudanese EFL major students understand some of learning and speaking difficulties associate with anxiety to be aware of the factors causing this anxiety, and offer implications, applications, suggestions, and recommendations that could help EFL learners, teachers and educational institutions overcome or at least reduce EFL learning and speaking anxiety encountered by Sudanese EFL major students. Moreover, in order to investigate and discuss the research objectives, the researcher generated seven questions which were raised at the beginning of this study. These questions were also to learning and speaking anxiety among EFL Sudanese students at tertiary level. They are:

5. Why do EFL major learners encounter EFL learning and speaking anxiety?
6. What are the views/perceptions of EFL learners about the factors reported in this study that cause speaking anxiety for them?

7. What are the attitudes of the EFL learners toward EFL speaking in particular and learning English in general?

8. How do EFL learners perceive their exposure when speak in English?

9. According to the EFL learners' perceptions, what are difficulties they encounter when they learn and speak EFL?

10. According to the EFL teachers' perceptions, what are the factors that may cause learning and speaking anxiety to EFL students?

11. What strategies and suggestions recommended successfully overcoming or at least minimizing anxiety experienced by EFL learners at college level and therefore improving the EFL learning and speaking?

To achieve the purpose of the study, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) which was developed by Horwitz et al., (1986), was administered by the researcher to a 234 faculty Sudanese EFL students studying at the Faculty of Education at Gezira University. This number represents all batches. Interviews were conducted with native and non native English language teachers.

At any rate, this research study is basically composed of five chapters. Chapter 1 contains an introduction, an overview of the English language in Sudan, the objectives of the study, the importance of the study, the problem of the study, the subjects of the study, the need for the study, the questions of the study, the limits of the study and definitions of some abbreviations used in the study. Chapter 2 reviews the literature relating to the following areas:

General anxiety, types of anxiety, foreign language anxiety, general sources of FLA, learners’ interpersonal sources of anxiety, foreign language classroom speaking anxiety, cognitive versus psychosomatic speaking anxiety, psychosomatic speaking anxiety, autonomic arousals, cardiovascular symptoms, factors Associated with learner’s own sense of ‘Self’ and ‘language classroom environment’.

184
The methodology employed in selecting the subjects, developing the materials and collecting the data for the study is discussed in chapter 3. Chapter 3 also includes information about procedures and analyses followed to carry out this study.

Chapter 4 includes the presentation and analysis of the collected data. More specifically, one can say that this chapter provides the results of the study which are discussed in the following sections: outcomes of the FLCAS administration, statistical procedure for the data analysis, results of the demographical information concerning the subjects of the study, results of the items designed to measure the communication apprehension, results of the items designed to measure the fear of negative evaluation, results of items designed to measure the test anxiety, results of the items designed to measure the anxiety in the English classroom classes, discussion of the questions of the study.

Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study, conclusions and suggestions and recommendations for improving the learning and speaking of EFL and reducing or at least minimizing the occurrence of foreign language learning and speaking anxiety.

After collecting the data of the study the researcher made a review so that the data would be analyzed. The sample responses for the (FLCAS) were computed and transferred into numbers and figures where as the English teachers' responses to the interview questions were analyzed manually by the researcher.

5.3 Findings

Based on the results of the participants' responses and the interviews with the native and non native teachers of English discussed in chapter 4, the study has revealed the following findings:
l- Inability to comprehend what was being said in the classroom provoked considerable anxiety. Young (1992) also noted that listening might generate anxiety if it were “incomprehensible” (p. 68).

m- Inability to comprehend exercises or the instruction was also cited as an anxiety-provoking factor.

n- Many participants told that when they think that they cannot do anything and compare themselves to other students, they feel very anxious.

o- Competitiveness is another anxiety-provoking factor as reported by the participants. Bailey (1983) attributed the cause of language anxiety to competitiveness on part of the learners.

p- Many participants’ response suggested perfectionism as a factor of FLA. Perfectionism is such a personality trait that can be considered as a factor FLA (Gregerson and Horwitz, 2002).

q- Self-awareness is reported as a factor of foreign language anxiety by the participants. Self-aware language learners are confronted with the probability that people will perceive them differently from the way they perceive themselves. Thus, learners can experience anxiety or fear and experience the state of “losing oneself” in the target culture.

r- Many of the anxiety-provoking factors reported by the participants appeared to be generated by various speaking activities which they normally encounter in a language classroom.

s- Fear of delivering a speech in public exceeded even such phobias as fear of snakes, elevators, and heights. Public speaking is considered very difficult as the learners have to not only learn the new language but perform in it as well (Foss and Reitzel, 1988).

t- Test anxiety was mentioned as an important factor of foreign language learning anxiety in the EFL classroom, particularly in connection with oral testing or listening exercises.
Language testing may lead to foreign language anxiety (Young, 1991; Daly, 1991). For example, difficult tests, tests that do not match the teaching in class or unclear or unfamiliar test instructions can also produce foreign language anxiety.

5.3 Recommendations

Inspired by the applications, suggestions and recommendations provided in the literature review of this study, and enhanced by interesting and worldwide suggestions and recommendations, the researcher would like to highlight the following recommendations:

1. Teachers of English language should acknowledge the existence of the feeling of anxiety in learning and speaking of the English language and therefore, take initiative for minimizing its occurrence.

1. Teachers should identify individuals with signs of stress and anxiety and should apply appropriate strategies to help EFL learners counteract these feelings.

2. Cognitive, affective and behavioural approaches can be recommended for instructors to select the approach they find suitable for their students.

3. Lack of practice of the speaking skills in the students previous learning represent a significant cause of communication apprehension, a truly communicative approach should be adopted to provide students with more chances to practice speaking skills comfortably.

4. It is important to provide friendly, informal and learning-supportive environments to grante an active participation in the classroom discussion.

5. Teachers' friendly, helpful and co-operative behavior, make students feel comfortable when participating in speaking activities in English classes.
This behavior can help reduce, although not eliminate altogether, the effect of social and status difference between students and teachers to a considerable extent.

6. As it is known students are acutely sensitive to fear of making mistakes, teachers role in this regard is to encourage students to have the confidence to make mistakes in order to acquire good communication skills. Furthermore, as a positive response to students' concern over the harsh manner of teachers' error correction, teachers' selection of error correction techniques "should be based upon instructional philosophy and on reducing defensive reactions in students" Horwitz et al, (1986:131).

7. Formative assessment and feedback rather summative assessment and feedback is recommended in order to allay students' fear that their mistakes in front of the teachers will influence their end of course grades.

8. Teachers should initiate class discussion about the feelings of anxiety and should take measures to reduce the sense of competition among their students.

9. Teachers should encourage students to feel successful in using English. This can be achieved if teachers avoid setting up activities that increase the chances of failure. To achieve this goal, teachers should make sure that their students are ready for the given activity and they have sufficient ideas and lexis to complete the required task successfully.

10. It recommended that teachers should confront students' erroneous and irrational beliefs by cultivating in them "reasonable commitments for successful language learning" (Horwitz, 1988: cited in Onwuebuzie et al.,: 1999:232).
11. Finally, there should be some specific teachers training courses on language anxiety in order to make these teachers aware of this very complex issue and therefore cope with it in an appropriate way.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

Throughout the process of conducting and reporting this study, several thoughts and ideas related to it have knocked into the door of the researcher's mind to search them. Nevertheless, since this study at hand has limits in terms of purpose, goal and time, the researcher recommends that further research can be done on the following areas:

- Replicating the same study on Sudanese students in other cities or universities. The results of these studies should be compared with the results of this study, so a more accurate generalization about anxiety and its negative impact on learning and speaking of EFL that Sudanese students encounter can be articulated.

- Conducting the same study (or one similar to it) on Sudanese students at different levels of education (basic, secondary or English language centers).

- Further research is needed to evaluate the EFL courses used in Faculties of education in Sudanese universities to make sure these courses are free of anxiety-provoking factors.

- Research is greatly needed to evaluate different methods and strategies employed in teaching EFL in general and in faculties of education in Sudanese universities in particular.

- There is much still not yet known about language anxiety (particularly about its relationship with other factors such as motivation, personality, self-esteem and self-confidence), so more research in this area would be particularly fruitful.
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Appendix ( 1 )

Communication Apprehension Items

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.
Appendix (2)

Test Anxiety

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

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

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

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

21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1.</td>
<td>I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>I don’t worry about making mistakes in language class.</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>I tremble when I know that I’m going to be called on in language class.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>It frightens me when I don’t understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>It wouldn’t bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.</td>
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<td>10.</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>I don’t understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>I get upset when I don’t understand what the teacher is correcting.</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>I often feel like not going to my language class.</td>
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<td>18.</td>
<td>I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.</td>
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<td>19.</td>
<td>I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.</td>
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<td>20.</td>
<td>I can feel my heart pounding when I’m going to be called on in language class.</td>
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<td>21.</td>
<td>The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.</td>
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<td>22.</td>
<td>I don’t feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.</td>
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<td>23.</td>
<td>I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.</td>
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<td>24.</td>
<td>I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other.</td>
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<td>25.</td>
<td>Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.</td>
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<td>26.</td>
<td>I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.</td>
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<td>27.</td>
<td>I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.</td>
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<td>28.</td>
<td>When I’m on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.</td>
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<td>29.</td>
<td>I get nervous when I don’t understand every word the language teacher says.</td>
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<td>30.</td>
<td>I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.</td>
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<td>31.</td>
<td>I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.</td>
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<td>32.</td>
<td>I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.</td>
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<td>33.</td>
<td>I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven’t prepared in advance</td>
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| رقم | مرشح باللغة الانجليزية
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<td>لا يهم أن تكون لي أخطاء في درس اللغة الانجليزية</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>أرتفع عندما أعرف أنه سأكون مذنباً في درس اللغة الانجليزية</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>لا أشعر بالخوف والرهبة عندما يكون لزاماً علي أن أتكلم في درس اللغة الانجليزية دون استعدادسبق</td>
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<td>أشعر بالارتباك في دروس اللغة الانجليزية لأني أشعر بالارتباك في غيرها من التدريس</td>
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<td>لا أشعر بالقلق من عواقب الفشل في درس اللغة الانجليزية</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>لا أشعر بالقلق في درس اللغة الانجليزية حتى لو كنت في أتم الاستعداد له</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>لا أشعر بالارتباك عندما لا أفهم ما يصححه المدرس من أخطائي</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>اشتر بالتفوق في درس اللغة الانجليزية حتى لو كنت في أتم الاستعداد له</td>
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Appendix ( 6 )

Interview Questions for EFL Teachers

Country: ..................................................................................

Qualification: ...........................................................................

Teaching Experience: ..............................................................

Level of Students Taught: ......................................................

Q 1: How do you view the role of language anxiety for EFL learners in learning English language in general and speaking it in particular?

Q 2: What kinds of situations and language classroom activities have you found to be the most anxiety-provoking for the students?

Q 3: What do you think are the causes of students’ anxiety while learning English in general and speaking it in particular?

Q 4: Have you noticed any particular kinds of beliefs or perceptions about learning and speaking English in your students and do you think they play a role in causing language anxiety for the learners? Please explain.

Q 5: What sign of anxiety have you noticed in anxious learners during your experience of teaching English to EFL?

Q 6: How do you think language anxiety can be successfully controlled in the learners?
Appendix (7)

Fear of Negative Evaluation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.
Appendix (8)

Benjamin Schwartz
To VE1332@se.com.saMe
Jun 1
Here you go, Fayez.

Ben

From: Horwitz, Elaine K [horwitz@austin.utexas.edu]
Sent: Thursday, May 30, 2013 2:23 PM
To: Benjamin Schwartz
Subject: Re: FLCAS permission

It's nice to meet you. You are doing a nice thing for your friend. I don't know that people need permission because the instrument is available through a published article, but people do send me requests to use it. When people send me those requests, I send them the following note. I hope your friend writes me because I like to keep up with who is using the instruments.

Subject to the usual requirements for acknowledgment, I am pleased to grant you permission to use the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale in your research. Specifically, you must acknowledge my authorship of the FLCAS in any oral or written reports of your research. I also request that you inform me of your findings.

Best wishes,
Elaine Horwitz

********************************************************************
Elaine K. Horwitz
Director, Graduate Program in Foreign Language Education
Professor of Curriculum & Instruction
The University of Texas at Austin
Foreign Language Education,
1912 Speedway Stop D6500
George Sanchez Building Suite 528
Austin, Texas 78712-1293

On Sun, 6/2/13, Horwitz, Elaine K <horwitz@austin.utexas.edu> wrote:

From: Horwitz, Elaine K <horwitz@austin.utexas.edu>
Subject: Re: Thank you
To: "Faiz Hamarai" <hamaraif@yahoo.com>
Cc: "<bjs0016@auburn.edu>" <bjs0016@auburn.edu>
Date: Sunday, June 2, 2013, 7:16 AM

It's nice to meet you, and I appreciate your interest in my work. Please give my regards to your friend.
Subject to the usual requirements for acknowledgment, I am pleased to grant you permission to use the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale in your research. Specifically, you must acknowledge my authorship of the FLCAS in any oral or written reports of your research. I also request that you inform me of your findings. Some scoring information about the FLCAS can be found in my book Becoming a Language Teacher: A Practical Guide to Second Language Learning and Teaching, 2nd edition, Pearson, 2013.

Best wishes,
Elaine Horwitz

On Jun 2, 2013, at 2:37 AM, Faiz Hamarai wrote:

Dear Prof. Horwitz,

Thank you very much for the attention you paid to the email sent by my friend Ben asking you for permission to use your instrument in my dissertation.

I promise to acknowledge your authorship of the scale in any oral or written reports of my research. I also promise to fulfill your request and inform you of my findings.

Thank you again. If I could ask for one more favor to request that you send me the same letter of permission you sent to Ben so I may append it to my thesis.

Thanks,

Faiz M. Hamarai
PhD Candidate
Faculty of Education
Gezira University
Hassahisa, Sudan
hamaraif@yahoo.com