UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

Factors Influencing Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety: An investigation of English learners in four Japanese universities

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by

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Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

March 2013

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

FACTORS INFLUENCING FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY: AN INVESTIGATION OF ENGLISH LEARNERS IN FOUR JAPANESE UNIVERSITIES

By Martins Okon Effiong

Over the past three decades there has been increasing interest in foreign language classroom anxiety in both EFL and ESL settings. Many empirical studies have used a standardised tool to measure L2 anxiety in different contexts and findings have shown varying associations between L2 anxiety and learning outcomes. However, in EFL settings, the influence of cultural and contextual factors on L2 anxiety and L2 oral communication has not been extensively investigated. This thesis focuses on the nature of anxiety experienced by Japanese learners of English in higher education settings, and explores causative agents by looking into classroom pedagogic, social, cultural approaches without ignoring the impact of the nature of the institutions within which these occur.

The research questions aim to explore how foreign language anxiety is influenced by institutional type, pedagogy, teacher and learner variables as well as classroom social factors. In addition, this research aims to explicate the cultural dimension of anxiety experienced in the Asian L2 context and how this affects the development of speaking skills. The study adopted both quantitative and qualitative data collection procedures. The field work took place over a period of four months in four Japanese universities scattered over three prefectures. Whereas one hundred and forty students took part in a survey using a Japanese version of the well-known FLCAS scale, qualitative data was obtained from observing the classes and interviewing twenty four student and four teacher participants.

The findings of this study suggest that Asian EFL learners experience different dimensions of anxiety from those reported in generic literature. Additionally, trainee teachers were found to experience higher levels of anxiety than learners in other disciplines. Teaching approaches largely predicted anxiety in the different classrooms studied. Furthermore, the Japanese learners were notably more anxious than their Asian counterparts; an outcome that is explained by cultural differences between the Japanese and other Asians. Finally, other anxiety predictors that emerged from the study were the age of the teacher and their self-presentation, as evidenced in their dress code. The results indicate that while the domains of anxiety experienced by Asian EFL learners are dissimilar to those in other regions, particularly, the Japanese learners differ from other Asians in both their anxiety profile and approaches to acquiring L2 speaking skills.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, MARTINS OKON EFFIONG

declare that the thesis entitled

FACTORS INFLUENCING FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY: AN INVESTIGATION OF ENGLISH LEARNERS IN FOUR JAPANESE UNIVERSITIES

and the work presented in the thesis are both my own, and have been generated by me as the result of my own original research. I confirm that:

- this work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
- where any part of the thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
- where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
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- I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
- where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
- part of the findings was presented at the 46th Annual TESOL Convention, Philadelphia, USA held in March, 2012.

Signed: ……MOE…….

Date: ……28/08/2012…….

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Firstly, I would like to thank my wife Professor Hiromi Kotani and my brothers Engr Anietie Effiong, Professor Etim Effiong and Mr Usen Effiong for their financial assistance.

I would also like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Professor Rosamond Mitchell whose guidance and support enabled me to stay focused while undertaking this research. Likewise, my advisor Dr Julia Huettner has been a valuable source of advice.

I should like to thank my former boss and employer Mrs Marion Cornick for her maternal love, care and support throughout my doctorate programme, and for believing in me.

Again, I would like to thank my wife Hiromi for translating the interview questions into Japanese and for putting up with my long absences from home.

Similarly, I would like to thank the participants especially the teachers who welcomed me into their classes unconditionally. Without them, this research would not have come to fruition.

Lastly, I would like to dedicate this PhD thesis to my late mother Mma Attah Tom Effiong.

ABBREVIATIONS USED

AET Assistant English teacher

ANOVA Analysis of variance

CA Communication apprehension

CLT Communicative language teaching

EAP English for academic purposes

EFL English as a foreign language

ELT English language teaching

ESL English as a second language

F1 Factor one

F2 Factor two

F3 Factor three

FL Foreign language

FLA Foreign language anxiety

FLCAS Foreign language classroom anxiety scale

FLRAS Foreign language reading anxiety scale

FNE Fear of negative evaluation

JET Japanese exchange and teaching

JHS Junior high school

JTE Japanese teacher of English

L1 First language

L2 Second language

MEXT Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology

NEST Native English speaking teacher

NNEST Non-native English speaking teacher

STEP Society for testing English proficiency

SHS Senior high school

RQ Research question

TA Test anxiety

TESOL Teachers of English to speakers of other languages

TL Target language

UTC Unwillingness to communicate

WTC Willingness to communicate

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"People have deep-seated need to communicate, and the better able they are to do so, the more satisfying and rewarding will be their existence" (Hargie & Dickson, 2004:2).

"You learn to talk to people by actually talking to them." (Cook, 2001a: 215).

1.1 Background and development of the thesis

1.1.1 Joining English Language Teaching Profession in Japan

I left England in 2005 to become a resident of Japan. My prior academic background was in Education, Applied Genetics, Information Technology and Management. I was confident that with such varied academic qualifications, it would not be long before I secured a job. However, I was unable to speak, read, write and understand the Japanese language, and this is a major impediment to any foreigner seeking employment in Japan. All my life, English has been the medium of learning and teaching, but in a monolingual country, such as Japan, my options were limited by the language barrier. Like most foreigners in Japan, teaching English to Japanese learners remains the only means of earning a living. My first job was in a bilingual nursery where toddlers were entertained with games and songs in English language.

It is amazing how first impressions can be so wrong. In the city, I could hear both children and adults shouting "bye-bye" to departing friends and relatives at train stations, restaurants or bus stops; this frequent utterance sounded so natural that I thought English is being used in Japan like any other non-English speaking country that I know. Little did I envisage the phrase "bye-bye" would be the only utterance widely used and with a high degree of confidence. I was even more confounded two weeks later when I got my first teaching job in a junior high school and realised that Japanese secondary school students do not seem to speak or make any effort to speak English at all. It then dawned on me that speaking English as a foreign language is a rare vocation in the country.

1.1.2 Rationale of the study

High School students in Japan often show great enthusiasm whenever a native or near-native English speaker is introduced as the new Assistant English Teacher (AET). In my experience, this expressed enthusiasm; an indication of the learners' willingness to speak English rarely translates into meaningful production when opportunities to speak are presented to them in and outside the classroom. In some schools where I had the liberty to design my instructional materials, I worked out how to incorporate tasks that could promote speaking, I conducted interviews regularly, and changed the power ratio in the classroom to help my learners relax and enjoy the lessons. In schools where I had to follow laid down teaching guidelines, the lessons were, to my frustration, lacking in excitement and with little or no opportunities to build relationships with the learners. I found that classroom activities that lowered psychological barriers helped to increase student participation and made the learning experience more pleasurable. It was this realisation that kindled my interest in seeking ways to make English language learners feel comfortable and relaxed in their learning environment, in the hope that it would make them more willing to speak the language.

Three years later, I got a teaching job in a university. This time, my expectations were quite high because I assumed that, with six years of learning English in junior and senior high schools, undergraduates would show greater willingness to speak English. Again, I was wrong. There was hardly any difference in their speaking abilities compared with junior high school (JHS) students. Although they exhibited greater reading and writing skills in English, their speaking skills did not seem to reflect the number of years of instruction they had received before entering the university and they appeared as apprehensive to speak English as the middle school students I had encountered. In the first few weeks, I spent a considerable part of the class time helping the students to build relationships with each other and I impressed on them that making and correcting mistakes when speaking is normal regardless of the language of communication. This, I demonstrated in some tasks that involved the use of the learners' first language (L1) by the teacher while the learners use L2 for the same task (See Effiong, 2009a).

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) is responsible for formulating, coordinating and evaluating English language education policies. Its policy document "Action Plan" of 2003 aims at cultivating Japanese students' English aptitude with the main purpose of promoting communicative English ability. The document (MEXT, 2003) suggests that English abilities are important in an effort to link Japan with the rest of the world. The inability of Japanese learners to speak or use English despite the number of years spent learning the language, and the financial cost to the government, is indicative of a gap between government aspirations and the reality of pedagogic culture and student experience. Although some of the strategies that I introduced in the JHS and the university classrooms where I had the latitude to implement my teaching ideas appeared to be effective in promoting oral communication among my students, I felt that a deeper understanding of the phenomena that hinder speaking English as a foreign language (EFL) was needed. From my interactions with various Japanese learners of English, my suspicion was that anxiety is a contributor to their reluctance to speak English, hence this endeavour to embark on a detailed formal study of foreign language anxiety (FLA).

From early days in Japan my classroom experiences and observations outside the classroom increased my desire to explore the underlying reasons for the communication apprehension shown by Japanese learners of English. This strong desire evolved into a concerted effort to seek answers to why some graduates from certain universities could communicate in English whereas others could barely make a sentence in English. This led me to assume that some institutions may offer learners greater support and facilities to learn English. My curiosity extended to how the wider learning culture may impact on how learners perceive and approach English, and consequently, influence foreign language classroom anxiety.

1.1.3 Events leading to the current study

My contact with English learners in Japan included teaching in five JHSs and two universities, and teaching numerous private students in cafes, most of whom were successful professionals but felt the need to learn spoken English in the evenings and weekends. Consequent upon my prior experience with the condition, I also offered English lessons to young adults with autistic spectrum disorders. Overall, the responses I received from over a thousand students

that I taught overwhelmingly ranked speaking as the least developed but the most desired of the four language skills. Among my private students, one that stands out is a lady who spent six years in Australia, but on returning to Japan decided to take private English lessons. I asked her why her spoken English did not reflect the length of time she spent in Australia, to which she responded that she spent most of her time with fellow Japanese and used English only when she was out dining with her Japanese husband. My encounter with this lady prompted me into reappraising my overall teaching strategies both in and out of the classroom, which culminated in this research study. When I asked her why she was not doing her weekly printed homework, she retorted angrily that she has studied English grammar for over ten years, and lived in Australia for six years, yet she struggles to speak English, and that she does not want to learn any more grammar. She concluded emphatically that she was paying for my time to enable her to speak English, and wanted nothing more than speaking. From then on, conducting needs analysis became a habit both in schools and with my private students.

Over the years, my exasperated learners have complained about their increased knowledge and awareness of linguistic accuracy without a corresponding increase in oracy. Their expectations are clear and simple; they all claim they want to speak, not only in the classroom, but with other English speakers outside the classroom. My undergraduate students claimed that the ineffectual approaches used in secondary schools are to blame for their poor speaking skill. It is this curious paradox that informs this study; on the one hand, all the learners say they want to speak English, but on the other hand, most of them seem to shy away from utilising the few speaking opportunities offered in class.

The problem of learning an L2 in Japan goes beyond instructional style; as will be shown in detail in the succeeding chapters. Other variables such as personality, anxiety, individual differences, social context, and the cultural ethos play their part in learners' willingness to communicate in English. Although these variables interrelate to impact learners' ability to speak English, some may play more significant roles than others. The dominance of one factor may amplify or diminish another; for example, learners with a more outgoing personality may be more willing and perhaps less anxious about speaking L2 publicly. In the Japanese context, cultural ethos (Wakui, 2006) may cause greater anxiety among L2 learners

compared to some other L2 contexts such as Nigeria where learners are more extroverted and English is considered a vehicle for social mobility. However, reticence in L2 speaking is not peculiar to learners in Japan, because studies show that speaking-related anxiety characterises classroom learners in many L2 contexts (Casado, 2001; Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham, 2008; Ganschow & Sparks, 1996; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Hsu, 2009; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Pawlak, 2011; Toth, 2008a; Yan & Horwitz, 2008).

1.2 Structure of the PhD

I have discussed my initial contact with English Language Teaching (ELT) in Japan; an experience which provides the impetus for the current study. Next, I will present the structure of the PhD thesis. The aim of Chapter 2 is to provide background information on English language education in Japan and bring to the fore some of the issues affecting Japanese learners which might have direct influence on their ability or inability to speak English. It begins with a brief historical perspective on English language education in Japan. The chapter also deals with the concept of English as an international language in Japan, and the attempt by the Japanese government promote L2 communicative abilities of the learners. It examines English language learning culture as well as the pedagogic issues at the tertiary level of instruction.

Chapter 3 takes us to the main agenda of this research. Firstly, a discussion of the construct of anxiety will be presented. Various theories of anxiety will be reviewed, and the concept of FLA will be discussed before a detailed review is provided of empirical research conducted in different contexts. This chapter will seek to identify gaps in the FLA research literature and position this study appropriately to address some of these. The chapter concludes with an introduction to the research questions which drive the study.

Chapter 4 introduces and justifies the selected research approaches. The design of this study is driven by the research questions aimed at investigating the nature and level of anxiety exhibited by learners and the impact of institutional, pedagogic, and classroom social factors on foreign language anxiety in Japanese tertiary institutions. The chapter begins with some

review of the methodological literature and justifies the quantitative and qualitative approaches adopted. Next is a description of the field work, the classroom context, selection of participants (142 for the survey and 24 students and four teachers for the interview), rationale for the choice of the participants, and the research questions. Following this are the research instruments namely: questionnaire, interview, and classroom observation notes and their limitations. A multidimensional approach involving triangulation was adopted for the study and a detailed description of the data analyses will also be presented. The questionnaire used is commonly used in classroom anxiety research (Horwitz et al, 1986), and was not adapted because of its robustness and reliability. Data obtained from this has been analysed quantitatively using SPSS 19. The interview data was analysed qualitatively using QSR Nvivo9 software from which themes relating to the research questions emerged and classroom observation notes have been used to support data triangulation. Shortcomings of the approach would be discussed as well as the ethical issues and other risks involved in the study.

Chapter 5 will present the results of the study starting with the quantitative results obtained from the questionnaire. First will be the outcome of factor analysis aimed at reducing the questionnaire data set and regrouping the variables into fewer domains of anxiety. This will be followed by FLA scores required to compare anxiety levels shown by participants from the different universities. It will also present the degree of anxiety among participants which will indicate the proportion of high-anxiety and low-anxiety participants in each university. Following this will be the interview data obtained from twenty four student participants and four teacher participants will be thematically analysed using QSR Nvivo and relationships among the themes established therefrom. Finally, the observation notes will be included to present dimensions not captured by either the questionnaire or interview and to assist in triangulating the data set.

Chapter 6 reviews and discusses the results to ascertain if the research questions have been answered. Following this will be an evaluation of the research project to highlight its limitations. The implications of the research findings to ELT in general will be discussed as well as suggestions for future research. Finally, Chapter 7 will provide the summary and conclusion for this study. Recommendations are made on how to reduce communicative

apprehension through pedagogy and institutional reform and suggestions made for future research.

CHAPTER 2

SPEAKING AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN JAPAN

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides background information on the development of English language teaching in Japan together with a historical perspective on the use of English as a foreign language. I will then go on to discuss the cultural perception of English language in a monolingual country such as Japan. Following this will be a review of policy issues aimed at internationalising language learners in Japan, and how these impact on the teaching of English in the classroom. I will also discuss some of the issues arising from the implementation strategies with particular reference to the paradox and ambiguity of the actual pedagogic practice vis-à-vis the policies. I will examine communicative language teaching and related issues such as the classroom practices that are largely influenced by the examination-oriented language teaching culture. Finally, I will highlight some studies conducted on the teaching of English in the universities. The issues arising from this chapter will inform how L2 pedagogy and related factors impact on L2 speaking and subsequently, foreign language anxiety, which is the main focus of this research.

2.2 English Language Teaching (ELT) in Japan

This section is necessary in order to further our understanding of the historical origins of the contemporary pedagogical culture in Japan which, to a certain extent, explains the contradictions identified in Chapter 1 regarding speaking goals and speaking practices. It will attempt to highlight studies of both learner and teacher perceptions and attitudes in conjunction with what actually obtains in the language classroom in order to establish the extent to which L2 oral skill is imparted.

2.2.1 ELT transition in Japan

English language education in Japan began in the 19th century because Japan needed to read foreign documents and be able to absorb information from abroad (Butler & Iino, 2005;

Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006; Sullivan & Schatz, 2009). Contact with the west and the drive towards modernisation led to increased prominence of English in Japan, and with the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1871, English became the medium of instruction for all subjects in what is now Tokyo University. Fuelled by patriotic drive, the returnees who went to study in Western countries wished to teach western knowledge through Japanese (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006). By 1883, there was a growing sense among Japanese that they did not need English to access western culture and knowledge, and the status of English changed from being a medium of instruction to a normal school subject. Emerging from this was an ideological conflict in which Japan needed to be close to the outside world through English and at the same time assert national identity through Japanese; consequently, a dichotomous view of English language education evolved that is still prevalent in the school system up to now. This view is echoed by Kubota (2002 in Butler & Iino, 2005, p. 40) who sums up English learning in Japan as promoting "Anglophone culture as well as Japanese cultural nationalism in response to such Anglophone culture".

By 1890, English had become a compulsory subject in middle and higher secondary school as a subject of study that would enable learners to read written texts. Translation reading (*yakudoku*), derived from methods developed in Japan many centuries previously to decode ancient Chinese texts, and focusing on understanding the content of the translated text (Law, 1995) became the established method of learning English. With this goal, rather than serve as a means of communication, English became an academic endeavour, and today, the background influence of *yakudoku* continues. After the Second World War, English lessons continued to feature in a restructured education 6-3-3-4 system. This means six years of primary education, three years of junior high school (JHS), three years of senior high school (SHS), and four years of university education. In the early 1950s, two approaches to English language education remained prominent; the propensity by the government to import new methodological trends and the entrance examination trend which originated in the Meiji era and which became apparent again. In essence, translation reading and the ability to read written text have dominated several generations of L2 teaching without a focus on speaking, an aspect that is still lacking today.

2.2.2 Resistance to ELT in Japan

The resistance to English dating back to the Meiji period still persists today among citizens with patriotic fervour who view English as a threat to their national identity and uniqueness (Reesor, 2002 in Sullivan & Schatz, 2009). This may partially account for the slow uptake of spoken English in Japan because, as Penner (2011) points out, by attaching strong nationalistic sentiments to the Japanese language (L1), the motivation to adopt an L2 may falter. Furthermore, the English language curriculum in Japan is at best self-contradictory because, while it encourages logical thinking and self-expressiveness, it also emphasises patriotic values such as understanding and respect for cultural traditions, love of the nation and the Japanese identity (Kubota, 1999). This gives rise to the parallel emergence of cultural pluralism/multiculturalism and cultural nationalism and an intricate relationship between the Japanese national identity and the English language policies, practices and attitudes.

The resulting tension makes it difficult for the policy makers to distinguish between linguistic imperialism and intellectual endeavour. Kawai (2007) sums up that, regardless of the status of English as an international language, Japanese educators are torn between nationalistic sentiment and L2 development; while promoting English language education, they cannot appear to undermine the importance of the Japanese language. According to Kubota and McKay (2009), there is no evidence to suggest that increased English ability threatens the status of the national language or contributes to the erosion or dilution of the "Japanese-ness" of the learners. However, cultural nationalism creates a Japanese-Foreigner dichotomy in which increasing knowledge of and pragmatic use of English is seen as eroding the Japanese-ness of the learners and increases their foreign-ness. McVeigh (2002) refers to English-speaking Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) who are branded too assertive, and are accused of expressing themselves in thought patterns similar to the foreign language they teach. In addition, they allegedly alienate their colleagues, and are accused of loving Western culture and showing no respect to the Japanese traditions and customs. Similarly, Reesor (2003) claims that, proficient English speakers are often discriminated against in the workplace throughout Japanese society. It is doubtful how any L2 can thrive in the face of such hostility.

2.2.3 Culture and language learning

Language carries specific symbolic meanings in different social contexts; meanings that are constructed within the society in which the language is operational and are specific to that particular society rather than the language itself (Seargeant, 2005; Schiffrin, 1994). Similarly, language is context-driven and patterned in ways that reflect the context in which it is used. It follows that cultural norms shape behaviours of individuals in the society and individuals therefore behave to meet cultural standards in order to gain approval and social acceptance. Notably, L1 culture influences L2 communicative strategies because communication conventions vary from culture to culture (Graham-Marr 2008). In contrast with Western individualism, a Japanese citizen will thus endure and be willing to regulate self for the sake of the group. Of relevance is *nihonjinron*, a theory of the Japanese people which emphasises uniqueness and supports the conception of Japanese as uniquely group oriented and homogeneous. But from a Western point of view, this means that Japanese are routinely stereotyped as "different" and "a homogeneous society of eager conformists" (Valentine, 1997:99).

2.2.3.1 English language learning culture in Japan

Penner (2011) refers to both enculturated learning strategies and ethnocentric attitudes as factors affecting L2 acquisition in Japan. For instance, for the sociohistorical reasons reviewed above, learners may perceive L2 as a threat to the L1, to which their sense of identity is tied, which in turn may compromise their sense of security and possibly invalidate lived experience (Luoma, 2004; Schweers, 1999; Thoms, Liao & Szustak, 2005). According to the government policy document published online (MEXT, 2003), the overall objective of foreign language activities in schools is to seek to develop understanding of languages and cultures through learning the differences in ways of living, customs and events between Japan and foreign countries. However, Morris-Suzuki (2008) cautions that English cannot be taken for granted as a natural and transparent medium for global cultural flows.

From my personal experience within the L2 classroom context, it was apparent that learners, even when they are not averse to interacting with native speakers in the target language (TL) seem to lack confidence to use the little vocabulary they possess; suggesting both proficiency

and confidence problems. The contribution of culture cannot be overlooked because Japanese, as a people, wish to avoid uncertainty and risk (Claro, 2008), risk aversion and the culture of not wanting to stand out (Wakui, 2006) may partially account for low participation in oral activities in class. Furthermore, the lack of real enthusiasm for speaking English is linked to a teacher-centred instructional style that is laden with L1 and with emphasis on grammar translation, and obedience to authority (Law, 1995; Matsuura, Chiba & Hilderbrandt, 2001; Rapley, 2009; Taguchi, & Nagamura, 2006). Thus, L2 instruction which emphasises reading and writing promotes accuracy at the expense of fluency and learners then tend to opt out of speaking because of risk aversion (Effiong, 2009b; Honna & Takeshita, 2005; Manetro & Iwai, 2005).

In addition, the orientation towards placement tests (Akiyama, 2003; Hashimoto & Fukuda, 2011; Kanemaru, 2008; Sugita, 2009) may also contribute to the non-communicative nature of English language classrooms. Less importance is attached to speaking because teachers believe that JHS learners need more writing and reading skills to pass SHS Entrance Examination, and consequently, the learners' role is focused on listening, absorbing, and retaining information (Akiyama, 2003; McVeigh, 2002). This "input only" approach to language learning is detrimental to the functional use of English because it negates the importance of conversation and undervalues output. According to Cowie (2006), cultural learning beliefs are derived from societal values which may constrain teachers to stay with the status quo even when they personally feel the need to change their teaching practice. In sum, the pedagogic approach, an offshoot of the Asian culture which favours conservation of knowledge in preference to the analytical or speculative mode of learning (Kubota, 1999) renders students passive thus suppressing active involvement in verbal communicative activities.

2.3 English in Japan

This section seeks to highlight policy issues as they affect English language education in Japan and provide a basis for assessing the interpretation and implementation of these policies in the classroom. Various educational policies of the government, for example the 2003 Action Plan (MEXT, 2003), are geared towards developing communicative English

abilities among Japanese students. However, the effectiveness of these policies is yet to be fully proven. Periodic changes in the policy guidelines indicate a departure from mastery of grammatical items to the development of speaking skills in classrooms (Taguchi & Naganuma, 2006). We shall examine how these policies address English teaching at the tertiary level of instruction.

Former Prime Minister Keizo Obuchi's Commission on Japan's Goals in the 21st century proposed that "the possession of 'global literacy' skills would determine whether or not a citizen could expect to enjoy a better life in the world of the twenty-first century" (Matsuura, Fujieda & Mahoney, 2004, p. 471). The Commission argued that without English as an international language of communication, it would be difficult for Japanese to make themselves understood in the international arena. The proposal failed to make any headway however, as it lacked any concrete plans. With informed estimates of 400 and 420 million English speakers in the outer and expanding circles of Asia respectively (Bolton, 2008), the English-using communities continue to grow and evolve rapidly. It is this desire to increase the communicative abilities of English language learners in Japan that prompted MEXT in the 1990s to issue guidelines and the overall objectives for the introduction of communicative courses of study in foreign languages in both junior and senior high schools (Honna & Takeshita, 1998). To compare the linguistic competence of Japanese with students of other countries, and to improve English language education, measures such as the Society for Testing English Proficiency (STEP) - 1963, Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) - 1979, and Japanese Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme - 1987 were introduced (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006). The (in)effectiveness of the JET programme as a catalyst to speaking will be discussed later in the chapter, and it is unclear how passing TEST and TOEIC translates into greater willingness to speak English since these tests are not designed to assess oral proficiency.

MEXT recommends that English be used as an instructional medium in the L2 classroom, especially at the tertiary levels. However, there is yet no clear evidence of compliance with this policy in colleges and universities across the nation. All undergraduates are expected to take English courses in their first and second year of study, and all trainee teachers, regardless of their subject of speciality, are required to take courses in English. It is standard

practice for universities to recruit native English speaking teachers (NESTs) for communicative language teaching and Japanese nationals (JTEs) to teach grammar. Recently, however, job adverts are emphasising Japanese language ability as a crucial requirement to teach in the university (JREC-IN, 2011). Teaching qualifications and research skills of the NEST, although clearly stated in the advert, are de-emphasised at the screening stage in preference for Japanese skills needed for faculty meeting and other administrative duties.

Despite the effort by the policy makers to promote functional use of English, instructional approaches utilising L1 in L2 classrooms that emphasise accuracy, and the resultant poor performance in international tests such as TOEIC (McVeigh, 2002) reflect deficiencies in the implementation strategies. Crooks (2001) points out that at Japanese universities, teacher training programmes are constantly under review but this only addresses the topics in trainees' coursework rather than English teaching methods. As a result, many graduates of these programmes are not prepared for the demands of communicative language teaching. English language lessons by JTEs are typically L1-laden as illustrated in Miyazato's (2009) study which reports that only 3.9% of the JTEs in JHSs and 1.1% of JTEs in SHSs conduct English lessons mostly in English. L1 use is not bad per se, because interjecting L1 into L2 lessons helps to keep learners on track, especially those who may not understand the teacher's every L2 word (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Burden, 2000; Cook, 2001b; Effiong, 2009a). Additionally, L1 can be beneficial in helping learners develop circumlocution and task management strategies (Schweers, 1999; Thoms et al, 2005). However, its exclusive use for instruction hampers L2 oral proficiency.

2.3.1 Japanese attitude to varieties of English

Whereas the emergence of World Englishes as a field of academic study brings about the improved recognition of many versions, it fails to fully account for the reality of English use as an international language (D'Angelo, 2010; Seargeant, 2005). The American/British variety has traditionally been the popular choice in the classrooms which in effect denies the existence of or the plurality of native varieties of English (Fukuda, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 1998; Honna & Takeshita, 1998; Seargeant, 2005). This attachment seems to be influenced by social, cultural, and historical backdrops that reflect symbolic colonialism; an Anglocentric

view of English which reinforces the superiority of native speakers (Kubota, 1998; Kubota & McKay, 2009). Moreover, it has also been argued that any cultural argument for the superiority of the American/British variety or its custody is bereft of any evidence (Law, 1995; Widdowson, 1994). Studies reviewed by Morrow (2004) suggest that at the L2 discourse level, Japanese differ in many respects from native speakers; hence exposure to different varieties of English would help them challenge monolithic western-centric worldviews which tend to marginalise regional, cultural, and linguistic norms and values (Miyagi, Sato & Crump, 2009). Miyagi et al. also point to the lopsided recruitment of JET participants, 99.2% of whom are from USA, UK, NZ, Canada and Australia - countries Japan considers as providers of Standard English. With such an overwhelming majority, learners are deprived of contact with other varieties of English.

When exposed to other varieties that sound closer to the local Japanese variety, learners can feel more comfortable to speak "their" English (Honna, 2001), whereas, insisting on just one acceptable version merely raises their anxiety level resulting in reticence; because learners become fearful of speaking if they cannot produce English like Americans (Effiong, 2009b; Honna & Takeshita, 1998; Kirkpatrick, 1998; Sugimoto, 2008). Now that English is being shaped and strengthened not so much by its native speakers, but by those speaking it in non-native contexts (Mehrotra, 2000), Honna (1998a) argues that, the spread of English in Asia is not synonymous with transplanting American or British English into the region; rather, it entails a gradual de-Anglo-Americanization that would enable the establishment of new varieties of English that reflect Asian ways of life.

The conceptualisation of English by the Japanese policy makers is currently at variance with classroom reality. It became clear from my personal experience as an AET in a JHS that attitudes and perceptions of many educational professionals favour Anglo-American norms. On my first day in school, I was met by the 'most proficient' JTE with twenty five years ELT experience who responded to my greetings with "who sent you here? We have always had Australian AETs". Despite arming myself with a Master's degree, a certificate in TESOL, and nearly twenty years of teaching experience at all levels of instruction, she informed me in no uncertain terms that I was not good enough to teach in a public school; that I was best suited to teach in an evening English conversation school (*juku*). After our first lesson

together, I asked her why, with her long history of teaching learners at this level, all the students could say is “I’m fine, thank you, and you?”, she shot back angrily that Japanese students are shy to speak English, and that she would rather they spoke Australian English than Nigerian English. She was not cognisant of the fact that non-native English speaking AETs can offer learners the opportunities to explore cultural differences without uncritically linking the target language to some exotic culture (Miyazato, 2009). With such teacher expectations, when learners compare their actual and potential speaking abilities with the expected ability derived from standard spoken English, they may experience performance anxiety, or lose interest completely in English.

2.3.2 English as an international language

In support of a change in pedagogic approach, Matsuda (2009) calls for the re-envisioning of teaching practices to reflect the international nature of English, especially where learners are learning to communicate with people from different national, language and cultural backgrounds. Recruiting 99.2% of the AETs from the inner circle countries (Miyagi et al, 2009) merely offers learners only the native speaker perspective of L2, whereas, a more representative catchment area extending to the outer and expanding circles would provide L2 versions that are necessary for international communication. In the classroom, teachers remain reliant on the American model often derived from the CDs that accompany MEXT-recommended textbooks. Kawai (2007) claims this situation also over-promotes the culture of other nations and their perception as more powerful than Japanese culture. Similarly, Honna (1998b) criticises the teaching philosophy which encourages Japanese learners of English to understand other cultures without correspondingly expressing the Japanese culture through the language. According to Honna (2000), to foster cultural awareness, opportunities should be provided to learners to learn about Japanese society in English, and to develop related explanatory skills in English; thus, an important contribution could be made in this way to Japan’s intercultural or international education. This would be a positive departure from the cyclical promotion of Anglophone culture and Japanese cultural nationalism via Japanese language (See Kubota, 2002 in Butler & Iino, 2005).

Kirkpatrick (1998) argues that while other nationalities may learn about 'Japanese culture' as a relatively homogeneous entity, it is impossible to isolate an "English" culture that is common to all speakers of English. The thrust of his argument is that, English language, even when linked, cannot be inextricably tied a specific culture. For example, the culture represented by Nigerian English is dissimilar to that represented by Indian English even though both nations are officially designated as English-speaking countries. The belief that English language belongs to the native speakers limits learner participation in the use of English especially in classrooms where diverse models that reflect the pluralistic nature of the language are not offered.

Given that authenticity is central to the manner English is taught in Japan (Seargeant, 2005), its simulation produces a conflicting ideology. Honna (2008:141) argues that "frequent exposure to English-using environments is expected to make speakers of English aware of varieties, thereby helping them recognize that they can speak English and sound Japanese". However, insistence that only Standard English is "authentic" English (Seargeant, 2005) produces an ideology that may be in direct conflict with the prevailing conception of the role of English as an international language (See Kachru, 2005; Kubota & McKay, 2009; Law, 1995; Miyagi et al, 2009). It also leaves learners feeling embarrassed to use their own (Japanese) variety of English in the erroneous belief that native speakers would not understand them. Their inability to speak the standard variety and the shame of speaking the local variety means no English is spoken at all. A vicious cycle is created; the inability to use L2 for international communication results in learners becoming more ethnocentric and more insular thereby restricting their global perception to the shores of Japan. These learners will not see why they need to study a foreign language and why they should even care about a foreign language, which may leave them with a deep loathing of English.

2.4 English Language Learning (ELL) in Japan

In comparison with Korea, Taiwan, Thailand and China, Japan spends far more on foreign language education and learners receive far more hours of instruction per week, yet Japanese learners perform worse and the level of attainment is generally disappointingly low (Bolton, 2008; McVeigh, 2002; Schoefield, 1996). English language education in Japan still has a

primary focus on the development of grammar, reading and writing (Honna and Takeshita, 2005; Kanemaru, 2008; Manetro and Iwai, 2005). Grammar classes rely heavily on written language norms with emphasis on accuracy. The continued use of textbook dialogues to teach grammatical items that do not mirror elements found within naturally occurring speech data (Pennington, 2002; Wong, 2002) is retrogressive for L2 speaking. Traditional grammars are inappropriate to the practical communicative needs of present day language learners and critics suggest the diversionary use of ELT to promote Japanese grammar teaching. For example, Mulvey (1999) posits that Japanese grammar teaching is the supplementary goal of ELT; meaning that developing Japanese grammar is what JTEs aim to achieve through their English classes. In addition, the intolerance of students' grammatical mistakes by JTEs limits their freedom to speak in class (Honna & Takeshita, 1998).

The reluctance by JTEs to teach speaking has been attributed partly to their linguistic insecurity arising from lack of confidence or low L2 self-perception and partly to feeling that their authority in the class would be eroded if they made mistakes while speaking English (Honna, 2008; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Miyazato, 2009; Warren-Price, 2007). In short, the poor English abilities of learners are rooted in the teaching method handed down from the Meiji era as well as the washback effect from knowledge-based language learning that is notably geared towards placement tests.

2.4.1 Assessment-driven ELL

Preparing for examination English (*juken eigo*) has become the paradigm of ELT in Japan (Law, 1995); students do not experience the joy of learning English because they study for extrinsic rewards only (Hashimoto & Fukuda, 2011). Butler and Iino (2005) point out that English education exhibits a strong preference for linguistic knowledge over linguistic performance, primarily for entrance examination (*juken benkyo*). What is of concern is how these examinations impact on the teaching of English in the classrooms – washback (Harrison, 2008; Sugita, 2009).

In a study of the impact of introducing a speaking test in junior high schools, Akiyama's (2003) reports that 80% of the respondents affirm that it will impact their teaching positively because they (JTEs) would change their teaching styles towards improving students' communicative skills. They contend that if the teachers are teaching speaking in class regularly, and over the year, they would not need to prepare the students for a formal test. Importantly, the introduction of a speaking component into the test may at least dissuade some JTEs from focusing on accuracy as the sole assessment criterion.

2.4.2 L2 Oracy and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Evidence from literature indicates increasing approval for CLT in Japan (Nishino, 2008; Taguchi, 2005), and acceptance that it is through tasks that learners can make functional use of learned grammatical features. However, Sato (2009) points to a mismatch between task-based learning and the realities of the Japanese EFL context where activities such as imitation, drills and memorisation are necessary. He argues that some of the new L2 teaching approaches which are mostly of American or European origin are unsuitable in the Japanese context; rather, teacher's own belief rooted in their own learning and teaching experience should inform their teaching of English in Japan. Learners who are for most part passive in the traditional classrooms are ill-equipped for the autonomous learning style associated with CLT. In addition, they are reliant on the teacher whom they perceive as the sole custodian of knowledge and the primary source of input, feedback, and encouragement.

It is notoriously difficult to change what teachers do especially after they have spent many years learning how to be proficient in one set of techniques and methods. From a questionnaire study, Shibata (2007) reports that although JTEs believe that they should spend more time on communicative activities, they do not believe it would enhance the students' L2 communicative ability, and a majority indicated that communicative activities were designed to practise grammatical items. With this interpretation of CLT, it is difficult to envisage how classroom instruction can promote speaking. Having been taught English devoid of a speaking component, when presented with speaking opportunities, the novelty of it is capable of causing anxiety among learners.

2.5 ELT in the universities.

Rivers (2007) comments that university teachers in Japan have the arduous task of undoing ingrained study habits rooted in grammar teaching learnt over six years of compulsory English language education in the junior and senior high schools. McVeigh (2002:157) highlights some of the issues that 'sabotage' the teaching of English at this level. These include: employing unqualified teachers; lower assessment standards, reticence among students, L1 use in L2 classrooms, and fear of negative evaluation. Some universities have nonetheless structured foreign language programmes which offer content teaching through English and are also capable of attracting English-speaking international students who may offer additional speaking opportunities outside the classroom to Japanese learners of English. The availability of this network of interlocutors potentially widens the scope of L2 interaction for learners.

2.5.1 Review of tertiary ELT literature

A few studies have investigated innovative teaching practices and their effectiveness at university level. For example, Thurman's (2008) study in which undergraduates were allowed to choose the task topics shows that they were able to increase their output and produce more complex utterances thus suggesting the effectiveness of learner-centred instruction in promoting L2 speaking. To assist students to develop speaking skills, some Japanese universities have established programmes that simulate immersion environments on campus; for example, conversation lounges or English communication rooms. O'Neill and Hubert (2008) conducted research into these programmes, and found that their popularity rarely meets teachers' and administrators' expectations. According to the authors, the most common type of English conversation lounge in most Japanese universities is a one-hour structured session termed Lunchtime English and organised by the English Speaking Societies/Clubs which are learner-moderated. In some universities, there are open discourse forums where NESTs take it in turns to staff the room. A pilot study conducted by the authors in two universities showed that students were willing to utilise the additional speaking opportunities offered by these programmes. However, levels of attendance depend on the popularity of the teacher with students.

Matsuura et al, (2001) examined Japanese university EFL student and teacher beliefs about learning and teaching communicative English. Their findings indicate that many students prefer the traditional approach, i.e. one that is mainly teacher-centred, with a focus on accuracy, and involving using L1 translation. Rather than learn to speak in class, these learners prefer to learn isolated pronunciation skills. On a more positive note, they report that the teachers show more preference for a learner-centred approach that comes with integrated skills training with a focus on fluency. While acknowledging that speaking was more important than grammar, two thirds of both the student and teacher respondents agreed that reticence was a problem in class. In a later survey across several universities with students and JTEs, Matsuura et al (2004) indicates that the teachers do not emphasise speaking. In the teachers' opinion, writing and reading skills were sufficient for the students to access the Internet and write emails; however a majority of the students in this survey want greater emphasis on speaking and listening skills. The findings also suggest that students would prefer native speakers to teach listening/speaking oriented classes while the JTEs teach reading/writing oriented classes.

In a survey of first year undergraduate students, Kikuchi (2005) explored the extent to which learning pronunciation in middle schools influenced their willingness to speak. Two thirds of the respondents claim they are afraid of making pronunciation errors and that they would have greater confidence in speaking English if they were confident in their pronunciation. Many feel that as long as they remain in Japan, it will be difficult to improve their pronunciation, and consequently, their speaking abilities. In another interview study, Taguchi and Naganuma (2006) inquired into institutional experiences of students enrolled in an English-medium university. Response obtained indicate that the translation habit from high school instruction which offered strong grammatical and vocabulary knowledge discouraged them from processing texts directly in English, consequently, they could not express their ideas in English spontaneously in the university L2 classroom.

Overall, the students' expectations as reported in the survey suggest that if speaking is accorded greater prominence in the English language classroom, learners would be more inclined to show greater willingness to communicate in the L2. Similarly, their preference for

NESTs in speaking-oriented class may be a subtle indictment of the teaching approaches adopted by JTEs who for most part teach English without emphasising oral skill development.

2.5.2 Institutional influence

This study is primarily focused on tertiary institutions; hence the need to appraise aspects of ELT and some of the problems encountered at this level of instruction. CLT is more prevalent in the university because tertiary teachers are not constrained by national curriculum guidelines prevalent in the lower tiers. Some universities may also have the resources to promote communicative language learning; such as liaising with overseas universities and having regular exchange programmes as well as using technology. In communicative context of this type, learners should at least have the opportunity to frequently apply communicative strategies and improve on L2 oral performance. However, institutions differ in the quality resources available to learners and in opportunities to using English language within and outside the university environment. Whereas some universities present opportunities for learners to acquire speaking skills through lunch time and international exchange programmes, others may contend with what is available in the language classroom. In addition, L2 speaking opportunities within the classroom are dependent on the teaching goals, the presence of a native English speaker or Japanese teacher of English and the level of support and freedom the teachers are given by the school administration.

Furthermore, the nature of the institution may influence learners' career goals and expectations. For example, if the learners are going to use English in their future profession, there may be additional pressure for them to acquire speaking skills and this may also impact on their approach to learning the L2. Besides professional expectations, attending a top ranked university may impose additional social demands whereby the learners expect to perform better than their counterparts in lower ranked institutions. For example, in a survey of Thai college students, Koul et al (2009) report that vocational college students were more academic oriented; improving language competence according to self-set standards and identification-oriented towards emulating native speakers of English than the university students. In this case, the nature of the institution is capable of influencing learning goal and L2 perception. Perhaps, the vocational college, which is perceptually ranked lower than

university might create a sense of inequality thus prompting the vocational college students to seek perfection and be more emulative of native speakers than university students.

2.6 Summary and Conclusion

We have also appraised the evolution of English language education in Japan, and the language education policy as it affects the tertiary level of instruction. While the Education Ministry acknowledges the language needs of the nation in relation to its global influence, through its policies on recruitment and teacher training for instance, it fails to lay the appropriate foundation that would ensure that learners are equipped with the oral skills they would need to communicate at the national, regional, and international levels with other users of English. This failure is partly attributable to a lack of political will to overhaul language pedagogy from the grassroots upwards. Besides, there are also subtle cultural issues bordering on ethnoculturalism which impact the implementation of English language education policies. Ethnoculturalism prevents learners from developing a favourable attitude to L2, and consequently, they may not be willing to speak such language. It is by challenging the cultural stereotypes and offering learners alternative global perspectives that linguistic and cultural ethnocentrism can be broken down. The well-intentioned effort of the Ministry at internationalising the learners will remain rhetorical until what goes on in the L2 classroom reflects the policy blueprints.

Some of the curricular changes by MEXT aimed at promoting communicative use of English only came into being in the last twenty years, against a backdrop of over a hundred years of grammar translation method. According to Law (1995), communicative approaches require an ideological underpinning that is internationalist and consciously constructed. At present however, English is learned as an academic subject instead of a language with social functions. As Japan continues to push for internationalisation with its relentless emphasis on attainment of communicative competence in English, it nonetheless fails to take account of the spread of Englishes. It is through recruitment policies that perception and attitude towards English can be changed to reflect its international nature, thereby giving learners cross-cultural capability and the opportunity to speak the variety of English that they are comfortable with. Additionally, without reorienting the JTEs through in-service training, the

teaching ideology prevalent in most classrooms will remain an impediment to communicative use of English. Moreover, the broader cultural and linguistic attitudes which cannot be changed overnight interrelate with other classroom factors to influence oral skills. By aligning classroom instruction with L2 learning goals as contained in the policy guidelines, L2 classroom instruction might evolve to emphasise more oral activities that offer learners greater speaking opportunities in class.

CHAPTER 3

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter shall examine L2 anxiety in order to understand the various ways in which anxiety interferes with L2 learning. The chapter introduces anxiety construct, derived from general social psychology literature, and extended by language learning practitioners to the foreign language learning contexts. I will begin by providing some definitions of anxiety and types of anxiety. Next, I will attempt to link theories of social anxiety to foreign language learning. I will go on to discuss (the emergence of) anxiety that is specific to language learning context by drawing on work done in the field in the last three decades, and specifically, the measurement scale adopted in most quantitative L2 anxiety studies. The focus of this study is foreign language anxiety as it affects L2 production, it is therefore important that it employs a quantitative measurement tool that has been tested and proven for its robustness and reliability and capable of discountenancing discrepancies arising from the use of discordant measurement tools. For this reason, I will also review previous studies that have used similar measurement scale and present alternative views where possible.

While attempting to unravel the nature of anxiety manifesting among Japanese EFL learners, cross reference to general anxiety literature becomes necessary. This is so if we are to distinguish between the nature of anxiety experienced by the participants of this study and that suffered by learners in different geographical contexts. The chapter will examine generic anxiety literature but pay close attention to those studies conducted in Asia, especially in regions that are in close proximity with Japan, such as China, Korea and Taiwan. This review will establish relationships between language anxiety and various L2 learning outcomes. While it will seek to identify other sources of anxiety, attention will be given to both learner and teacher variables as well as the classroom social context. I will review relevant studies conducted in the Japanese EFL context some of which should shed light on how all these factors interact to contribute to anxiety prediction. My research questions will therefore arise from any gap in knowledge identified in these studies.

3.1.1 Definition of Anxiety

Anxiety has been a longstanding focus of psychological inquiry, and was defined in behaviourist psychology as “a specific state of unpleasure accompanied by motor discharge along definite pathways” (Bunker, 1936:70). A more recent view from psychology sees anxiety as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (Spielberger, 1983, in Horwitz, 2001, p. 113). According to Sanders and Wills (2003:3), anxiety is “a complex, multifaceted experience, a feeling which comes flooding into our whole selves, affecting many different aspects of our being”. They add that anxiety arises when individuals perceive the dangerousness of certain situations, and accompanied by a complex web of emotions and actions and physiological reactions. Similarly, Rachman (2004:3) defines anxiety as “the tense, unsettling anticipation of a threatening but vague event, a feeling of uneasy suspense”. It is a state of diffuse arousal, where for a variety of reasons, individuals are unable to direct the arousal into purposive action. Rachman (2004) alludes to the distressing, and often, disabling and costly nature of anxiety which is considered the single largest mental health problem in the United States.

Anxiety arises from expectations of failure and a decrease in processing ability with a tendency to escape a threatening situation (Levitt, 1980; MacIntyre, 1995a; Sanders & Wills, 2003; Whitmore, 1987). Although Dunant and Porter (1996) suggest that it is as much in the mind as in reality, Toth (2006) argues that anxiety is an integral part of human existence with variations in individual susceptibility, and is conceptualised within the cognitive framework as a cognitive response marked by self-concern, feelings of inadequacy, worry, and self-blame. Liu (2009) also contends that anxiety supposedly stems from the uncertainty or novelty of a situation, especially when individuals are aware that their performance or action would be subject to scrutiny and evaluation, and when the situation is perceived as threatening.

The terms fear, phobia, neurosis and anxiety are often used interchangeably, and Edelman (1992) offers a tripartite distinction of anxiety as a multicomponential process, manifesting itself through; affective experience, expressive behaviour and peripheral physiological

response. Sanders and Wills (2003) remind us that, central to our understanding of anxiety is the notion that anxious feelings and physiology, and anxious thoughts and behaviours constitute the main elements of anxiety which interactively create a vicious cycle and sustain the anxiety disorder. Within the social context, anxiety is the experience of distress, discomfort, fear in social situations, and a fear of receiving negative evaluations from others (Watson & Friend, 1969). In the foreign language learning context, Young (1991b) describes social anxiety as a psychological phenomenon that embraces the concepts of group membership and existential anxiety. Although Scovel (1978) argued the inability of scholars to establish a clear-cut relationship between anxiety and language achievement, there were earlier attempts (Kleinmann, 1977; Gardner et al, 1979 cited in Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986) to relate the concept to foreign language context. While anxiety plays a crucial role in determining academic achievement levels of learners (Tsui, 1996), its intriguing and complex nature will continue to sustain researchers' interest into the foreseeable future.

To conclude, it seems reasonable to assume that anxiety, emanating from a potentially threatening situation, evokes an escape or defence mechanism which may alter cognition, emotion, biology, and behaviour of individuals experiencing it. Anxiety seemingly denotes emotional state and is perhaps characteristic of all individuals. A number of definitions have been presented none of which can be considered the ultimate, and as Levitt (1971) points out, these definitions are operational and partial, merely representing a typical instance of anxiety. Within the context of this study, Toth's (2006) definition, conceptualised within the cognitive framework that encapsulates self-concern, self-blame, feelings of inadequacy, and worry will guide us towards developing appropriate research questions. This definition is pertinent because foreign language learning implicates self-concept and self-expression and therefore puts the learner's self-esteem and self-confidence at stake.

3.1.2 Symptoms of anxiety

Anxiety does not manifest itself as a unitary phenomenon and individuals vary in their proneness to it and thus presenting difficulties in identifying the actual source of the associated discomfort. Anxiety manifests itself in faster heartbeat, and self-belittling (Mitchell & Myles, 2004), muscle tension, the desire to withdraw, low verbal output and

nonfluency (Merritt, Richards, & Davis, 2001), and individuals use various behaviours to soften failures and protect themselves from its overwhelming effect in order to maintain a sense of personal worth (Tasnimi, 2009). Other symptoms suggested by Rachman (2004) include tremors, nausea, fast pulse and shallow breathing. Anxiety is also symptomatic in one or more of the following ways: behavioural, cognitive, psycholinguistics, and psychological (Bigdeli, 2010; Gregerson & Horwitz, 2002; Marcos-Llina & Garau, 2009). Behavioural patterns refer to the learners coming to class late or unprepared, cognitive factors refer to language aptitude, cognitive ability and study habits, and psycholinguistic symptoms include low performance, refusal to speak or forgetting words (Young, 1999 in Liu, 2009), palpitating and trembling (Goshi, 2005). These symptoms manifest in foreign language learning contexts which constitute the focus of this study.

3.1.3 Types of Anxiety

Scovel (1978) makes a further distinction between facilitating and debilitating anxiety; the former enables the individual to confront the situation with greater vigour with which the feelings of anxiety can be alleviated, whereas, the latter forces the individual to abandon the task in order to avoid the source of anxiety. However, the concurrence of both conditions in a language learning situation should result in mutual cancellation without an apparent effect on achievement (Dornyei, 2005; Williams, 1991). An alternative explanation offered by Bigdeli (2010) is to view these opposing effects as positive (excitatory) or negative (inhibitory), both of which, although producing different results, lead to unpleasant imbalance in normal state of mind and body. There is also anxiety sensitivity, which according to Schmidt, Lerew and Jackson (1997) is the disposition to developing anxiety without the experience of anxiety or panic in its development. It is crucial in explaining the inability of certain individuals to respond to desensitisation techniques or other forms of anxiety-reduction strategies.

A distinction has been regularly made between *state* anxiety, *trait* anxiety, and *situational* anxiety. Trait anxiety (A-Trait) is a permanent predisposition to be anxious and reflects individual differences in proneness (Brown, 2000; Rachman, 2004; Scovel, 1978; Spielberger, 1966). Anxiety-prone individuals have noticeable upsurge of anxious feelings on more occasions, under more circumstances and in a larger number of different situations than

others, and individuals with trait anxiety react to threatening situations with predictable regularity (Levitt, 1971; Rachman, 2004; Spielberger, 1966). State anxiety (A-State) on the other hand is defined as a "transitory emotional state reflective of one's interpretation of a particular stressful situation at a particular period of time" (Vitasari et al, 2010:491). It is an apprehension experienced at a particular moment in time in response to a definite situation or specific event. It is also a behavioural inhibition; a function of neurological circuits responsible for the detection, appraisal, and appropriate response to threat, and is transient in nature (Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham, 2008; Sawyer and Behnke, 2002). A-State is supposedly transitory, recurring when a threat provides the stimulus but short-lived. However, Spielberger cautions that the two anxiety concepts; A-trait and A-state cannot be conceptualised as a theory of anxiety, but rather as a conceptual framework.

Thus far, I have offered some general definitions of anxiety, highlighted symptoms of anxiety, and made a distinction between the types of anxiety reported in social psychology. In the next section, I will examine the conceptualisations of anxiety particularly relevant within the L2 context, starting with situation-specific anxiety. Following this will be language anxiety, transfer theory and a summary of some theoretical considerations.

3.2 L2-related theories of Anxiety

3.2.1 Situation-Specific Anxiety

Situation-specific anxiety is aroused by a specific type of situation or event, and occurs consistently over time in a given situation (Liu, 2009) and the concept is based on the assumption that certain situations may provoke more anxiety than others, and in different individuals (Toth, 2010). Unlike state anxiety that is more prevalent in social psychology research, situation-specific anxiety is relevant to L2 learning. In other words, language anxiety, supposedly unique to L2 learning, elicits specific anxiety reactions thereby suggesting that a person may be anxious in one situation such as foreign language but may not experience similar anxiety in a different situation. It is further suggested that linguistic insecurity may cause situational language anxiety because of worry and negative emotional reaction arising from inadequate use of L2 (Allen & Herron, 2003; MacIntyre, 1995a). Hence the term "specific" is used to differentiate individuals who may be generally anxious in

various situations from those who are only anxious in specific situations such as L2 classroom (Horwitz et al, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Horwitz et al note, and some empirical studies (Aida, 1994; Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999; Coryell & Clark, 2009; Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002) support the notion that L2 anxiety is a conceptually distinct variable with specific effects on L2 learning. It is therefore interpreted along existing theories and empirical studies conducted on specific anxiety reactions.

3.2.2 Language Anxiety

Tallon (2009) claims that studies in 1970s and early 1980s conducted to establish the relationship between anxiety and language learning produced ambiguous and contradictory results. Some of these earlier studies reviewed by Scovel (1978) provided evidence for positive, negative and no relationships between anxiety and L2 achievement. Both researchers point to the inconsistencies in the findings which stem from the imprecise manner with which anxiety was conceptualised and measured. These studies focused mainly on trait anxiety which was inappropriate for L2 learning context; the measures or anxiety scales used were borrowed from psychology and the anxiety types were not clearly defined (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a; Young, 1991a; Tallon, 2009). Horwitz (2010) comments that, after Scovel, subsequent anxiety researchers have generally been careful to define the type of anxiety considered. On account of this, language anxiety has variously been defined as either a transfer of anxiety from another domain, for example, trait or test anxiety or as communication apprehension. Communication apprehension is a fear of communicating with people or difficulties learners experience while attempting to speak a foreign language. The next section will attempt to make this distinction more salient.

3.2.3 Transfer/Unique Theory

Following the development of foreign language anxiety measurement tool by Horwitz et al (1986) there was increased interest in how anxiety affects language learning and two approaches emerged termed “anxiety transfer” and “unique anxiety” by Horwitz & Young (1991). These approaches conceptualised L2-related anxiety differently. The transfer approach was based on the assumption that L2 anxiety is a transfer of other forms of anxiety

to the learning situation. It supposes that persons who are generally anxious in a number of situations will experience anxiety in a foreign language learning situation, and therefore could be investigated using general measures such as the Manifest Anxiety Scale (MAS) developed by Taylor (1953) and State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) developed by Spielberger (1983 in Liu, 2009). In contrast, the unique anxiety approach was based on the assumption that some types of anxiety are specific to the language acquisition context. Toth (2010) traces the theoretical basis of this to Gardner's (1985) hypothesis which associates L2 anxiety with L2 achievement. Put differently, L2 anxiety is *situation-specific,* aroused by the experience of learning and using a second or foreign language. The measures used in this research tradition were specifically designed to measure anxiety in L2 learning contexts. Without a clear picture of the relationship between anxiety and L2 learning and the inconsistencies in results obtained by studies using the anxiety transfer approach (Scovel, 1978; Young 1991a), examining *unique anxiety* became a more plausible approach that could provide stronger evidence of how anxiety influences L2 learning. The next section highlights an interview by Young (1991b) with four language specialists whose differing opinions on the *modus operandi* of anxiety and language learning offer further insight into how these two processes interrelate.

3.2.4 Theoretical considerations

Drawing on work in psychology of language learning, and from interviews with Krashen, Hadley, Terrell, and Rardin, Young (1991b) describes anxiety as a psychological phenomenon which embraces the concepts of group membership and existential anxiety. In her report, Krashen argues that anxiety is like club membership in which the affective filter would be lowered if the learner considers himself or herself as a member. He maintains that anxiety has no positive aspect and cannot facilitate language acquisition because acquisition appears to work best when anxiety is zero. On the contrary, Rardin suggests that there is a positive aspect of anxiety that is operative all the time, and, it is only when the equilibrium shifts that we begin to talk about negative anxiety. The tension arising from the learner's lack of preparedness to deal with this shift is what causes the negative anxiety that invariably blocks language learning. Hadley argues further that reducing anxiety to zero level would leave the learners so relaxed that they would not attend to input. Without attention to input, learning is unlikely to take place. Anxiety exerts a great influence on personal and social

functioning and is an inseparable part of human life (Bigdeli, 2010); hence it is unlikely that zero-anxiety state could be attained.

Terrell, although disagreeing with Krashen's filter hypothesis, associates foreign language anxiety with target language (TL) group identification. He claims that the need to identify with the target language group drives the learner in search of acquisition. However, this drive to achieve, she posits, is lacking in L2 classrooms. This is especially true in EFL settings where the closest to the TL group may be the sole NEST. Not everyone is in agreement with TL group identity as a prime motivating force. For Rardin, existential anxiety is the type that touches the core of one's self-identity and self-image, which partially explains the resistance to ELT in Japan (see Section 2.3.2). Overall, the above discussion points to the affective dimensions of anxiety with some sociocultural implications for language learning, and despite these divergent viewpoints, the discussants in Young's report agree that learner self-concept of competence; that is, how learners evaluate their L2 ability, accounts for much of the L2 anxiety.

3.2.4.1 Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

The WTC construct is a measure of an individual's predisposition towards communication. It is defined as the probability that an individual will choose to initiate communication in an opportune moment (MacIntyre, 2007; MacIntyre et al, 1998; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011). It is deeply related to language and communication anxiety and findings from WTC studies suggest that anxiety is a key factor when learners seek out and exploit or avoid L2 speaking opportunities (Dörnyei, 2005; Fushino, 2010; Toth, 2010). MacIntyre and Legatto consider WTC as the most immediate determinant of L2 use that is proximally influenced by *state* anxiety and perceived competence, and distally by extraversion. A lack of anxiety is one of the most immediate antecedents of L2 WTC (Léger & Storch, 2009; Peng and Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al, 2004). L2 anxiety operates at both individual (trait) and situational (L2 classroom) levels. It is therefore important to understand how this distinction affects WTC in order to apply pedagogical interventions, because, situational anxiety is likely to fluctuate over time and is perhaps more amendable to instructional intervention (Léger & Storch, 2009).

Yashima (2002), in the first comprehensive study on WTC conducted with Japanese learners examined the relationship among the variables that affect learners' willingness to communicate in English. Her study of Japanese university students engaged in face-to-face L2 communication indicates that students with a high level of motivation perceive they have higher competence and lower anxiety than students with low motivation. The positive effect of motivation on self-confidence led to WTC in L2. The follow-up studies (Yashima et al, 2004; Yashima et al, 2009) confirm earlier findings and further affirm that international posture influences motivation, which in turn influences L2 proficiency and self-confidence, and that greater self-confidence leads to greater WTC to use English. In summary, lower levels of anxiety and positive perceptions of L2 communication competence resulted in greater self-confidence and higher WTC.

3.2.4.2 Reticence

Another term for reticence is unwillingness to communicate (UTC) which is the avoidance of communication by remaining silent in order not to risk appearing foolish (Keaton & Kelly, 2000). Being reticent is not synonymous with lacking social skills; rather, it is the fear of negative evaluation. In comparison with others, Asian learners are considered more reticent and their passive attitude in the language classroom stems from growing up in a cultural and educational environment which discourages independent thinking and places greater premium on the teacher not as the facilitator of learning, but as a person in authority (Littlewood, 2000; Tsui, 1996; Woodrow, 2006).

Tsui (1996) collated action research reports conducted by 38 EFL teachers in Hong Kong in which participants video-taped and audio-taped their lessons and reviewed problems that existed in L2 classrooms. About three quarters acknowledged reticence as a problem, with low L2 proficiency, lack of confidence and fear of making mistakes accounting for poor oral response. As a result, students were reluctant to speak in whole class setting, and when they did volunteer, their voice would be barely audible. The fear of making mistakes suggests that learners aim at perfectionism, especially if L2 learning is assessment-driven, which is made more difficult by their low L2 proficiency and low self-confidence. However, Cheng (2000) challenges the cultural stereotype that portrays Asian students as reticent. He sums it up that

Asian L2 learners have a positive attitude towards classroom oral activities, and that reticence was situation-specific and can be accounted for by low L2 proficiency or pedagogical approaches. This is pertinent because distinct instructional patterns peculiar to particular cultures may bring about different degrees of anxiety in the learners (Aida, 1994; Kunt, 1997 in Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Truitt, 1995 in Kim, 2009). It is possible that differences may arise as a result of the instructional patterns that are tailored to reflect the cultural context.

3.3 Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

Anxiety is said to be one of the most important affective factors influencing successful L2 learning and acquisition (Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 1994; Horwitz, 2001). Having highlighted the types and theories of anxiety in the preceding sections, the general definition offered by Toth (2006) will serve as our background definition which should steer this study towards answering the research questions that will arise. In what follows I will narrow the focus to how anxiety impacts on L2 learning. First, we shall review two models of FLA suggested by Tobias (1979) and Horwitz et al (1986) respectively. The rest of the chapter will provide a more detailed account of how anxiety interacts and interferes with L2 learning, and how it is influenced by variables that are common to L2 classroom contexts. I will discuss what is known about the relationship between anxiety and L2 achievement, its impact on L2 oral performance, and its stability across instructional contexts. Understandably, anxiety is believed to interact with individual learner factors to influence L2 achievement, and as such, learner variables will be given some attention in the discussion that follows. Lastly, the classroom; a social environment with all the social features of the outside world, has norms which guide members and influence their behaviours.

3.3.1 Tobias' model of FLA

Tobias' (1979) model of language anxiety depicts learning in three stages: input, processing and output, and sets out to demonstrate the cognitive effects of anxiety on learning. The model presupposes that anxiety is aroused at the input stage when the learner is first exposed to instruction and the internal reactions resulting from anxiety may distract the learner's attention and impede encoding of the incoming stimuli. It suggests that learners with high anxiety would experience difficulty because of less attentional capacity than their low anxiety

peers. According to Tobias, the high- anxiety learners are outperformed by their low-anxiety counterparts because the latter devote their attention to task demands and are less concerned with task-irrelevant preoccupations. Anxiety interferes at this stage in a cumulative manner because input that has not been internally represented or registered properly will require additional resources to reconstruct. Consequently, it impacts on the next stage as some processing time will be needed to achieve this.

The processing stage is where learning is supposed to occur as new words are given meaning and the learner records, organises, and stores the input. Anxiety experienced at this stage would affect cognitive operations by blocking language comprehension and recognition of novel words. Tobias (1979:576) suggests that it is "at this point three types of manipulations are likely to have the clearest effect on learning". These manipulations are content difficulty, reliance on memory and task organisation. Firstly, content difficulty refers to the performance of anxious learners that is poorer than that of less anxious individuals on difficult content than on easy content. Secondly, reliance on memory suggests that instructional methods requiring reliance on short- and intermediate-term memory are subject to greater interference for anxious learners than content retrieved from long-term memory. Thirdly, task difficulty differentiates learners when materials that are well organised result in superior achievement for anxious learners compared with less anxious individuals. Following this is the output stage, i.e. the production phase where verbal utterances are expected, and anxiety manifesting at this stage would hinder retrieval of vocabulary items, cause inappropriate use of grammatical rules and/or result in lack of response.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) applied Tobias' model to explain the negative effects of anxiety on L2 performance. Their study involving the introduction of a video camera at various stages in a French vocabulary task indicates that anxiety interfered with cognitive activities at each of the stages in the model, thus disrupting learning. The result provides an explanation for the *affective filter* proposed by Krashen (1982) by theorising why learners cannot receive and encode language input. They went on to develop new measurement scales for each of the three stages (an Input Anxiety Scale, a Processing Anxiety Scale, and an Output Anxiety Scale). However, there is no evidence in the literature that these scales have been widely used in anxiety research.

In summary, the three-stage model suggests the likely consequences of cognitive interference of anxiety on language learning.

3.3.2 Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's model of FLA

Horwitz et al (1986), in their seminal article were the first to situate anxiety within the language learning context as a distinct combination of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours that is unique to the language learning process. Rather than view L2 anxiety as a transfer phenomenon from the psychology literature, they claim that it is concerned with performance evaluation within academic and social contexts, from which they draw parallels between L2 anxiety and three related performance anxieties: (1) communication apprehension (CA); (2) test anxiety (TA); and (3) fear of negative evaluation (FNE). CA, which stems from interpersonal interactions, is characterised by fear of speaking, and as such, is relevant to the conceptualisation of L2 anxiety. The authors define it as "a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people" (p. 127). Oral communication difficulties in group or dyad settings are manifestations of CA (Fushino, 2010; Koga, 2010; Nagahashi, 2007) especially where learners have no control over communicative situations and their performance is being monitored. It is likely to arise from the personal knowledge that individuals will have difficulties making themselves understood when speaking a foreign language.

Mejias et al (1991) studied Mexican American learners of English using Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24; an instrument which focuses on apprehension concerning oral communication) and argue that CA may shape a learners' perception of their oral performance in specific contexts. For instance, the level of CA manifested by learners is potentially critical in the learning process because learners with a high CA may withdraw from participating in classroom activities and develop negative attitudes towards oral communication and even avoid it. Mejias at el also noted that CA increases with increasing formality and social complexity of communication situations.

Test anxiety, which is a complex construct capable of influencing individual performance both positively and negatively (Young, 1991c), is derived from fear of failure. It is more pronounced during tests or examinations and increases under evaluative situations. Speaking in L2 classrooms constitutes an ongoing evaluative aspect of L2 learning and sometimes, grades may be at stake. Given this, learners may self-impose unrealistic attainment targets such that anything less than a perfect test performance is considered a failure. There are differing results on TA in the anxiety literature however (Asker, 1998; Bailey, Daley & Onwuegbuzie, 1999; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Gürses et al, 2010; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Horwitz, 2001; Phillips, 1992). Some studies for example indicate that anxiety is reduced when the test offered does not count towards course grades and is reportedly raised during translation tasks (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Madsen, Brown, & Jones, 1991; Young, 1991c).

FNE is apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation of negative evaluation from others (Watson & Friend, 1969). Although similar to test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation is much broader in scope because it may occur in any social context or evaluative situation in and outside the classroom. However, within the classroom environment, learners are subjected to evaluation not only by the more proficient teacher but by peers. Learners who fear negative evaluation tend to be more apprehensive to speak and anxious about tests (Kim, 2009; Liu and Jackson, 2008; Luele, 2010; Mak, 2011). Liu and Jackson's (2008) survey of Chinese learners of English indicates that learners who fear negative evaluation are unwilling to communicate.

Against this background, Horwitz et al (1986:128) propose that foreign language anxiety is not merely a combination of CA, FNE, and TA that are transferred to foreign language learning; rather, it is "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process". However, these authors maintain that understanding the relationship between these three concepts and anxiety will help language teachers and scholars understand the anxiety-provoking potential of language learning. Coryell and Clark (2009) comment that the combination of these three factors is something unique to L2 learning contexts. To sum up, Horwitz et al have provided useful conceptual building blocks for describing FLA which

have remained as the three classic dimensions of anxiety experienced by L2 learners. However, L2 anxiety is not the sum of these factors, because subsequent studies have been conducted to establish the generalisability of the FLA construct as conceptualised by them, and additional predictors have emerged, some of which will be examined later in the chapter.

3.3.3 An alternative viewpoint

With so much attention paid to the effects of anxiety on L2 learning, and despite consistent results obtained from several studies which show negative relationships between FLA and measures of L2 performance, there are alternative opinions. Sparks and Ganschow (1991), in their first of several studies that query the manifestation of FLA, question claims made by L2 educators about the importance of anxiety by suggesting that FLA is likely to be a consequence of a learner's L1 literacy learning. They conclude that L2 difficulties stem from the learner's L1 strengths and weaknesses as demonstrated by performance in language aptitude tests. In a later study, Ganschow et al (1994) claim that FLA may be related to weaknesses in understanding and applying the systems of linguistic and phonological codes, and that, even when learners can compensate well for them in L1, the compensatory mechanism breaks down when learning L2. Furthermore, they assert that the negative cognitive effects of phonological difficulties could therefore lead to motivational and anxiety spin-offs capable of causing more difficulties in L2 learning. Based on a more recent study (Sparks and Ganschow, 2007) which shows that anxiety, as measured by FLCAS, is negatively correlated with learners' L1 literacy skills nine years prior to encountering a foreign language course, they continue to question the existence of a type of anxiety specific to L2 learning.

To Sparks and Ganschow's argument, Horwitz (2000, 2001) counters that the percentage of anxious language learners exceeds the percentage of learners with L1 disabilities and that even successful language learners experience FLA. Similarly, MacIntyre (1995a, 1995b) points out that Sparks and Ganschow fail to acknowledge non-linguistic aspects of language learning and that some people may be anxious about language learning independent of processing deficits. Horwitz goes further to debunk the use of language aptitude test as evidence of L1 deficiency because one third of participants in anxiety studies (Aida, 1994;

Horwitz, 1986; Phillips, 1992; Price, 1991; Saito, Horwitz & Garza, 1999; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Young, 1990) are students enrolled in prestigious universities who have been selected based on rigorous Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and grade point average entrance requirements. Consequently, these participants cannot be said to have L1 disabilities. On account of this, one wonders how learners in less prestigious universities will perform, and if anxiety is independent of university status.

3.3.4 FLA Measurement Scales

Gardner, Tremblay and Masgoret (1997) review different measurement tools derived for FLA, such as the French Class Anxiety Scale tailored towards motivation and attitude, the English Use Anxiety Scale, and the Anxometer (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Cheng (2004) used an adapted eight-item English Use Anxiety Scale (EUAS) to measure the amount of anxiety experienced when using English in interpersonal situations.

Of greatest note is the development by Horwitz et al (1986), of a 33-item instrument to measure FLA termed The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The availability of this tool stimulated greater interest in anxiety research among foreign language educators, resulting in FLCAS becoming the benchmark for measuring anxiety across various contexts. For Horwitz, FLA is independent of other types of anxiety (Horwitz, 2001) but may be best described when conceptualised in a specific situation. FLCAS is reflective of the three classic domains of anxiety conceptualised by Horwitz et al. It is seen as reliable, and has become the most widely used instrument designed to measure situation-specific anxiety such as that associated with L2 speaking situation (Dewaele and Thirtle, 2009; Horwitz et al, 1986) without tapping into the temporal state of the learner (Aida, 1994; Arnold, 2007). Its development as a distinct situation-specific measure of FLA seems to resolve the issue of appropriate anxiety measurement and many studies have adopted it as a tool of choice, including some conducted in the Japanese EFL context. (See Aida, 1994; Bekleyen, 2009; Chen & Chang, 2004; Cheng et al, 1999; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Ewald, 2007; Ganschow et al, 1994; Goshi, 2005; Gregersen, 2005, 2007; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Kitano, 2001; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Liu, 2009; Luele, 2010; Mak, 2011; Phillips, 1992; Piniel, 2006; Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003; Saito et al, 1999; Toth, 2006, 2010 for general studies; see Matsuda & Gobel,

2004; Nagahashi, 2007; Takada, 2003; Yashima et al, 2009 for studies in Japan), Bailey et al, (1999) point out that its reliability and validity has been established via numerous studies. For example, some of the FLA studies (Aida, 1994; Chen & Chang, 2004; Frantzen & Magnan, 2005; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Horwitz, 1986; Toth, 2010) that have used FLCAS report high reliability index with an alpha coefficient ranging from .67 to .95.

However, a number of criticisms of FLCAS have been expressed in the literature. Firstly, the fact that most of the items contained in FLCAS tend to address speaking situations, makes it rather unsuitable to measure other language skills (Cheng et al, 1999). Secondly, Sparks and Ganschow (1991, 2007) are critical of FLCAS because, in their opinion, many of the items seem to gauge students' feelings about anxiety whereas anxiety, according to them, results from learners' language processing deficit. Sparks, Ganschow & Javorsky (2000) estimate that 60% of the 33-items involve comfort level with expressive or receptive language, 15% involve verbal memory for language and 12% for speed of processing.

Thirdly, the universal relevance of FLCAS has been queried. Kondo and Yang (2003) also question the applicability of aspects of FLCAS, arguing that FLA experienced by Japanese EFL learners is dissimilar to that of ESL learners in the US or Canada where English is used throughout the L2 lesson. This is unlike the Japanese L2 classroom where grammar drills and composition constitute the bulk of the lesson with JTEs using L1 most of the time thus confounding the validity of the scale. For example, item 27 on the scale "I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class" may not apply if English is not used throughout the lesson as is the case in most Japanese university EFL classrooms. Kawashima (2009), in a review of FLA studies in Japan, also argues against its validity and reliability and contends that it is inappropriate to use FLCAS without modification in the Japanese context.

In defence of FLCAS, it can be said that regardless of whether anxiety results from (Sparks et al, 2000) or accounts for (Horwitz, 2000) poor performance, most studies report negative relationships between anxiety and achievement in the L2 classroom. Findings from studies using FLCAS have been relatively uniform, and negative association between FLCAS scores

and achievement has been found at different levels of instruction or proficiency as well as in different target languages (Horwitz, 2001; for more details see Section 3.4.1 below).

The construct validity of FLCAS has also been tested by factor analysis (Cheng et al, 1999; Koul et al, 2009; Liu, 2009; Mak, 2011; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Toth, 2010; Yashima et al, 2009). Some of these validation studies (Liu, 2009; Toth, 2010) have provided empirical support for Horwitz et al's three-part FLA construct, while others (Cheng et al, 1999; Mak, 2011; Matsuda & Gobel, 2001; Yashima et al, 2009) report additional domains beyond Horwitz et al's classic dimensions of FLA.

Overall, FLCAS has been judged appropriate for use in the present study on grounds of the reasonably consistent findings emerging from factor analytic anxiety studies involving its use. The successful use of FLCAS in different contexts and TLs as well as with learners at different proficiency levels makes it a suitable tool to measure FLA among the participants of my study. It is possible that there may be variables, unaccounted for by FLCAS, which are capable of predicting anxiety better than some of the items contained therein. It is also possible that Japanese students' responses may pattern differently from those in other international studies. These possibilities will be examined later in the thesis, both through quantitative analysis of FLCAS results, and also through complementary qualitative data analysis.

3.4 The overall impact of FLA: empirical findings

Horwitz (2001) suggests that understanding language anxiety can shed broad light on how learners approach language learning, their expectations for success and why some may continue or discontinue with L2 study. She adds that it is often difficult to determine if anxiety actually interferes with learning to influence achievement levels, or if anxious learners who have attained language competence have difficulties displaying such competence. This section will therefore highlight relevant empirical studies that have investigated L2 anxiety in a range of domains. Of special importance are studies that investigated the effect of FLA on oral performance because speaking has been noted to be

most anxiety provoking in L2 learning. A related topic is how anxiety hinders classroom performance because most of the speaking done by language learners occurs in the classroom.

It is also in the classroom that learner variables such as self-confidence, perfectionism, and proficiency become salient, and a more detailed discussion of how these factors predict anxiety and interfere with L2 speaking will further our understanding of the FLA construct. This section will also explore teacher variables such as personality and teaching approaches both of which are capable of predicting L2 classroom anxiety. The classroom in itself is a social environment that mimics the larger society; a microcosm of the outside world that learners live in. Given this, cultural attributes obtained in the larger society can permeate the language classroom and interact with other factors to influence relationships between both the teacher and learners, and among the learners. This section will attempt to point out, where possible, the role of culture in interpersonal communication and its association with L2 anxiety.

3.4.1 FLA and Achievement

Several studies have examined the relationship between FLA and achievement (Aida, 1994; Bailey, 1983; Bailey et al, 1999; Campbell and Ortiz, 1991; Elkhafaifa, 2005; Ganschow & Sparks, 1996; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Horwitz et al, 1986; Levine, 2003; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989, 1991a, 1991b, 1991c; Sheen, 2008) with a few focusing on course grades and test scores (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a; Young, 1991c). Others have studied learners at different proficiency levels, (Aida, 1994; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Kim, 2009; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000; Pichette, 2009; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007; Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986), and different L2s (Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003; Saito et al, 1999). Despite its claimed facilitative tendency (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Scovel, 1978), most studies have shown FLA to be a major hindrance to L2 learning. These studies, most of them correlational, have generally reported a moderately negative association between measures of FLA and a range of L2 learning outcomes. Other studies have also noted negative associations between FLA and L2 performance (Kitano, 2001; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989; 1991a; Muircheartaigh & Hickey, 2008; Phillips, 1992; Vitasari et al, 2010; Young, 1986, 1990, 1991a), some have provided

further evidence for the links between FLA and learner's overall WTC (MacIntyre et al, 1998; Levine, 2003; Yashima et al, 2009), and previous experience with the L2 (Kim, 2009).

A bidirectional relationship between anxiety and achievement is often reported in literature (Horwitz, 2000; Kim, 2009; MacIntyre, 1995a). However, Yan and Horwitz (2008), in a survey and interview study of Chinese university students, claim there is a unidirectional relationship in which anxiety influences achievement, but not the other way round because the participants in their study did not mention lack of achievement as contributing to their anxiety. Overall, it is evident that anxiety influences achievement. In the following sub-section, we will discuss how anxiety impacts on oral performance in particular, because the present study seeks to unravel how anxiety impedes the communicative ability of Japanese EFL learners.

3.4.2 FLA and Oral Performance

Several studies have examined the effect of FLA on learner's oral performance in particular (Aida, 1994; Bailey, 1983; Campbell & Ortiz, 1991; Ewald, 2007; Goberman, Hughes, & Haydock, 2011; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Horwitz et al, 1986; Kim, 2009; Koçak, 2010; Koch & Terrell, 1991; Levine, 2003; Mak, 2011; Merritt, Richards & Davis, 2001; Toth, 2010; Phillips, 1992; Xu and Li, 2010; Yan and Horwitz, 2008; Young 1991a). In comparison, just a few attempts have been made to relate FLA to writing (Cheng et al, 1999), reading (Matsuda and Gobel, 2001; Saito et al, 1999), and listening (Bekleyen, 2009; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Kimura, 2008), and a combination of skills (Hilleson, 1996; Kim, 2009). Research findings confirm that anxiety is exacerbated during oral tasks or when a learner is called upon to speak in class (Young, 1990; Koch & Terrell, 1991; Xu & Li, 2010).

Sheen (2008), in a study of college ESL learners, used a questionnaire to investigate the relationship between language anxiety and learners' responses to recasts. She investigated whether FLA affects learners' ability to improve accuracy in their use of English articles when offered corrective feedback, and whether FLA influences the extent to which learners modify output following recasts. Sheen (p. 860) argues that recasts are non-threatening to

learners and therefore not anxiety-provoking since they come without overt signals like “no”, “you should say y, not x”. Findings indicated that the low-anxiety group that were offered recasts produced high levels of modified output, thus leading Sheen to conclude that anxiety is a factor influencing the effectiveness of recasts, and through this, language learning itself.

In a questionnaire and interview study of advanced level English L2 learners, Toth (2010) similarly reports an inverse relationship between FLA and oral performance (cf: MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Phillips, 1992). Her findings reveal that in both the high-anxiety and low-anxiety groups, anxiety interfered with performance. Toth sums up that anxiety interfered with the cognitive processing abilities of the learners; evident in their inability to comprehend what was said, stifling their ability to think of what to say, and posing challenges with retrieval of words during conversation. Similar to her earlier study (2006), it provides a psycholinguistic explanation for the negative association of FLA with performance, due to interference with attentional processes. These studies provide further evidence that affective variables exert influence during language processing, which Spark and Ganschow (1995) claim was lacking in MacIntyre’s research.

Thus far, the negative associations reported here between anxiety and oral performance suggest that the level of speaking anxiety can rise considerably depending on the context. Next, we shall discuss the L2 classroom context in which several factors all combine to influence anxiety.

3.4.3 FLA and Instructional context: The classroom

L2 classrooms prepare learners for real-time and real-world interaction by offering authentic communication tasks. These tasks may be stressful to learners even in their L1 (Horwitz, 2000), and even more so in L2. The first few words uttered in a foreign language may be exhilarating but scary, and Dewaele and Thirtle (2009) draw an analogy between this and the first tentative steps taken on thin ice. How an individual classroom learner progresses depends on several factors such as teacher personality, pedagogic approaches, classroom atmosphere, peer relationships, group dynamics, all of which are potential FLA predictors.

The classroom is especially important in most EFL contexts where it serves as the only avenue for learners to experience a L2. Understandably, learners come to class with diverse attributes, some of which are external to the learning processes, but capable of interfering with L2 learning. While the classroom environment can potentially aggravate FLA, it can also ameliorate it or at least play a palliative role. The classroom is therefore pivotal to understanding the processes that influence FLA, and as such, should be explored. Next, we shall examine sources of L2 classroom anxiety and how these manifest themselves in the classroom.

Other potential sources of anxiety in the classroom include; class size, task demands and difficulty of the course (Kitano, 2001; Tani-Fukichi, 2005), painful memories of stressful classroom experience, whole class oral activities instead of small groups, and poor interaction with the teacher (Koch & Terrell, 1991; Price, 1991). In a factor analytic study involving FLCAS, Mak (2011) investigated sources of anxiety among university EAP students and the inability of learners to use L1 in L2 classroom, error correction, fear of failing the course or the consequences of personal failure, and the feeling of discomfort when speaking with native speakers contribute to classroom anxiety. According to Mak, students' negative attitudes towards the L2 class contribute to overall FLA, which in turn affect oral performance and grades.

3.4.4 Sources of L2 classroom anxiety

Given that language learners react to learning situations in a variety of affective ways, classroom anxiety begins as an undifferentiated, negative affective response to some language classroom experiences, but with repeated occurrence, this anxiety becomes disassociated from other contexts and reliably linked with language class (Arnold, 2000; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b). FLA is therefore the negative emotion arising from learners trying to protect themselves from embarrassment in L2 classrooms, although learners with perceived competence, higher self-worth, and higher scholastic competence tend to suffer less (Campbell & Ortiz, 1991; Coryell & Clark, 2009; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 1999).

There are many claimed sources of classroom anxiety such as proficiency (Cheng et al, 1999; Ewald, 2007; Liu, 2006, 2009; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Pichette, 2009; Pan, Zang & Wu, 2010; Toth, 2007, 2010), perfectionism (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Koga, 2010; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Price, 1991), learners' competitive nature (Bailey, 1983; Pan et al, 2010), tests (In'nami, 2006; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Elkhafaifi, 2005), learner perceptions (Yan & Horwitz, 2008), learner attitude to L2 (Kurihara, 2008; Mak, 2011), fear of negative evaluation and self-perception of speaking ability in the TL (Kitano, 2001; Young, 1990), setting high standards (Horwitz, 1996; Kunt & Tüm, 2010), the lack of knowledge of vocabulary and syntax (Koçak, 2010), classroom procedures, teacher behaviour, learner and instructor beliefs (Kim, 2009; Xu & Li, 2010; Young, 1991a).

Some studies have noted that anxiety does not operate in isolation (Gardner et al, 1997; Onwuegbuzie et al, 2000; Sparks & Ganschow, 1991) as well as the lack of uniformity in learners' L2 behaviour (Cao and Philp, 2006; Kimura, 2008), hence, a more holistic appraisal of classroom anxiety becomes necessary. Koch and Terrell (1991) report great variability in learner reactions to activities that were specifically designed to reduce learner anxiety. That is, tasks that were considered comfortable for some learners turned out to be stressful for others. Importantly, Kimura cautions that the composition of the factors influencing anxious feelings might be as important as the strength of the feelings. Purely classroom-based language instruction has been linked to higher levels of FLA, in comparison to instruction that involves extracurricular use the language (Dewaele et al, 2008; Onwuegbuzie et al, 1999). Dewaele et al suggest that having a network of interlocutors affect FLA levels because learners who only use the language for casual encounters with strangers experience higher levels of FLA, whereas, those with a stable network of interlocutors tend to report less FLA. These opportunities to use L2 beyond the classroom are often provided by other L2 speaking members of the learning community.

3.4.5. Learner variables

3.4.5.1 L2 Proficiency

The evidence regarding the influence of learner proficiency on FLA is somewhat mixed. Up to one half of classroom language learners experience debilitating levels of language anxiety,

but those learners with perceived competence, higher self-worth, and higher scholastic competence tend to suffer less (Campbell & Ortiz, 1991; Onwuegbuzie et al, 1999). In general, self-perceived language proficiency has been found to be a better predictor of learners' anxiety level than scores obtained from proficiency measures (Cheng, 2002; Cheng et al, 1999; Kondo & Yang, 2003; Liu, 2006, 2009; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Onwuegbuzie et al, 1999; Toth, 2007, 2010). This, according to Toth (2007), is consistent with cognitive self-evaluation theory of the causes of social anxieties; meaning that learners' subjective feelings have the potential to influence FLA.

In a survey and interview study with Hungarian university advanced English learners, Toth (2010) reports a close link between learners' L2-related self-perceptions and anxiety. She points out that L2 self-concept, not poor TL skills as enunciated by Sparks et al (2000), was the most useful predictor of FLA among the participants. Apparently, L2 self-concept distinguishes learners with high-, mid-, and low-levels of FLA better than any other learner variable because while the high-anxiety advanced learners did not differ from the less proficient counterparts in L2 aptitude and motivation, their L2-related self-perceptions were significantly lower than those with mid- and low anxiety. Toth's findings support Horwitz's (1986) view that this type of anxiety is not a result of a rational analysis of actual TL abilities of the learners. In an earlier emic study with Hungarian EFL students, Toth (2006) explored learners' feelings and self-perceptions about how FLA affects production. Her findings provide evidence for anxiety's interference with Levelt's (1989) lower level processes involved in L2 speech production. This manifested itself as failure to retrieve vocabulary items from the mental lexicon; that is a mental block characterised by going blank, thus lending credence to a cognitive interpretation of anxiety especially from a psycholinguistic perspective.

Although FLA is mostly associated with low L2 proficiency, studies have shown that advanced learners can exhibit high levels of anxiety (Cheng, 2002; Ewald, 2007; Kitano, 2001; Pan et al, 2010; Pichette, 2009). In a survey study, Marcos-Llina and Garau (2009) investigated the effects of FLA on achievement among beginner, intermediate and advanced learners of Spanish. Findings indicate that FLA differs across proficiency levels; advanced learners showed higher anxiety levels than beginner and intermediate learners. They also note

that higher levels of anxiety did not correspond to lower course grades, which challenges the assumption that FLA interferes with L2 proficiency and achievement. The fact that high anxiety level does not always result in poor performance by learners contradicts studies which highlight the debilitative effect of language anxiety on L2 proficiency and achievement (Horwitz, et al, 1986; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991b; Tsui, 1996). Other studies (Cheng, 2002; Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Ewald, 2007; Horwitz, 1986; Kitano, 2001; Pan et al, 2010; Pichette, 2009) suggest that highly proficient and perhaps equally motivated learners suffer high levels of anxiety, which in some cases, persists throughout the learning experience even when the learners are making remarkable progress (Casado, 2001; Tani-Fukichi, 2005).

Pan et al (2010), in a questionnaire study, reports no difference in anxiety between students in advanced English class and those in ordinary English class, and although the advanced learners show a better attitude towards the L2, majority in both classes exhibit high anxiety levels. The ambitious ones aim to be top of the class, and the more they tend to be emulative, the higher their anxiety. However, in questionnaire and interview studies conducted in a top Chinese university to establish relationships between anxiety and self-rated L2 proficiency and classroom factors, Liu (2006, 2009) found that the more proficient students felt less anxious, and anxiety was felt most when the teacher singled students out to speak in class.

FLA may be expected to dissipate over time as learners become more proficient in the TL, but this is not always the case (Casado, 2001; Ewald, 2007; Kitano, 2001; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009). Even students who like foreign languages suffer anxiety, and in some cases, highly proficient learners exhibit higher FLA levels than their less proficient peers (Horwitz, 2000, 2001; Muircheartaigh & Hickley, 2008). In an earlier study of a large group of learners, Horwitz et al (1986) found a small subgroup of anxious students who found L2 study easy but were nonetheless anxious and some low-anxious students who found the same L2 quite difficult.

The studies reviewed so far show no clear and consistent pattern of the effect of proficiency on FLA and vice versa. It is possible that what accounts for most the variations observed are

intervening contextual and learner variables thereby revealing further the multicomponential nature of the FLA construct. Negative association between proficiency and anxiety is however especially pertinent in the Japanese EFL context discussed in Chapter 2, where teacher-instructional style that is laden with L1 hinders the development of L2 oral proficiency (Law, 1995, Matsuura et al, 2001, 2004; Miyazato, 2009; Rapley, 2009; Taguchi & Nagamura, 2006).

3.4.5.2 Self-confidence

Quantitative studies have also indicated a negative relationship between self-perceived L2 confidence and FLA (Dewaele et al, 2008; Kitano, 2001; Liu & Jackson, 2008; MacIntyre et al, 1997b, Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Onwuegbuzie et al, 1999), and these results are supported by some qualitative studies (Bailey, 1983; Ewald, 2007; Price 1991). Horwitz et al (1986:128) claim that it is the "disparity between the 'true' self as known to the language learner and the more limited self (that) can be presented at any given moment in the foreign language" that distinguishes FLA from other academic anxieties.

Self-confidence is an important learner variable which is conceptually related to FLA; it comprises perception of confidence and absence of anxiety. Clement (1980 in Gardner et al, 1997) proposes that the development of self-confidence, especially in multicultural contexts is a function of the frequency and quality of contact with members of the L2 community. Clément et al (1994) portray self-confidence as a two-componential concept where anxiety represents the affective aspect and self-evaluation of proficiency is the cognitive component. They report significant and appreciable correlation between indices of self-confidence and measures of L2 proficiency. Furthermore, learners who lack self-confidence suffer communication apprehension (Clément et al, 1994; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Tsui, 1996). It is also linked with self-efficacy, which refers to learners' judgement of own abilities to carry out certain specific tasks. Although the inclusion of anxiety differentiates self-confidence from self-efficacy, low self-efficacy and low self-esteem are nonetheless associated with high levels of anxiety (Léger & Storch, 2009; Liu, 2009; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

According to Dörnyei (1998), the choice of activities, level of aspirations, amount of effort exerted, and persistence displayed are determined by a learner's sense of efficacy. Self-efficacy is concerned with an individual's beliefs in their own capabilities to pursue a course of action required to accomplish a task (Ehrman, Leaver & Oxford, 2003). It follows that individuals will not attempt to make things happen if they believe they lack the power to produce results.

Japanese students generally are said have low self-esteem and exhibit relatively high social anxiety (Takada, 2003; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003) and some research findings seem to support this assertion. Matsuda and Gobel (2004), in a study of university students in Japan, compared general FLA with foreign language reading anxiety using FLCAS and FLRAS. They highlight the key role self-confidence plays in influencing components of FLA. Similar Asian anxiety studies have identified self-confidence as a component of FLA (Cheng et al, 1999; Liu, 2009; Mak, 2011; Yashima et al, 2009). It may be that self-confidence influences learners' L2 proficiency both directly and indirectly through their effort and attitude towards learning the L2. Liu & Littlewood (1997) attribute learner silence in class to lack of confidence, anxiety, low proficiency, misperception of learner role and teaching methodologies. What aggravates FLA is that it emphasises oral skills that require active participation and a high degree of risk taking and self-exposure (Arnold, 2000; Kim, 2009). Arnold argues that learners' self-esteem is reduced as they try to express themselves in front of peers in an obviously immature linguistic vehicle. Notably, and as discussed in Chapter 2, Japanese learners are averse to risk-taking (Claro, 2008; Honna & Takeshita, 2005; Kikuchi, 2005; Manetro & Iwai, 2005; Wakui, 2006) which then makes it even more difficult to develop the necessary L2 self-confidence. This therefore makes self-confidence a key variable which teachers should assist learners in fostering in order to reduce FLA.

Anxiety may have cultural underpinnings because, according to Woodrow (2006), learners from Confucian Heritage Cultures like China, Korea and Japan suffer more from FLA than other ethnic groups. In Asian culture, group norms are said to override individual attributes: for example, speaking up frequently might be perceived as showing off when others remain silent in class. Peng and Woodrow (2010) posit that such culture-fuelled beliefs can have a controlling effect on students' self-confidence in specific classroom situations. They

conclude that willingness to speak in L2 is directly and indirectly predicted by classroom environment and indirectly by learner beliefs, and that, if two anxious learners are engaged in a classroom dialogue, the less anxious partner has the potential to pull the more anxious partner along. To summarise, self-confidence influences learners' oral proficiency both directly and indirectly through their effort and attitude towards learning the L2 thus making self-confidence a key variable to controlling FLA.

3.4.5.3 Perfectionism and risk-taking

Learners sometimes strive for flawlessness and set exceedingly high attainment goals and performance standards for themselves. This tendency to be perfect may interfere positively or negatively with L2 learning. In an interview study, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) investigated personality characteristics such as perfectionism and their link with FLA. They report that anxious learners set themselves high personal standards, such as achieving native-like proficiency, grammatical accuracy, and pronunciation. Perfectionists tend to be overtly more self-critical by overreacting to errors. For example, in a study using FLCAS, followed by open-ended questions to elicit students' self-reports of FLA, Kunt and Tüm (2010) report that the goal of the oral interview was perceived differently by anxious and non-anxious learners. Anxious learners tried to avoid mistakes while the non-anxious learners valued talking even if they made mistakes. Similarly, Koga's (2010) survey study of Japanese EFL learners showed that the least anxious learners were those who were more willing to take risk without fear of making mistakes. As noted in Chapter 2, within the Japanese EFL context, Miyazato (2002), in an interview study, reports that participants froze at the prospect of interacting with NESTs who speak perfect English, and two thirds of respondents in Kikuchi's (2005) study claim they are afraid of making pronunciation errors which accounts for the low self-confidence reported. By aiming at perfectionism, the anxious learners pursue ideal L2 proficiency beyond their actual proficiency level and thereby become more anxious. However, contradictory evidence is found in a quantitative study conducted by Toth (2007) involving first year English major students. The findings show a negative correlation between perfectionism and anxiety scores, which contradicts earlier findings reported in qualitative studies (Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002; Price, 1991).

3.5 Teacher influence

Teachers are routinely claimed to play a key role in producing and relieving anxiety as a result of the communicative environment they create, and in their interaction with students (Xie, 2010). Providing a positive classroom environment can help learners feel more comfortable with the language learning experience. In the classroom, learners perceive EFL teachers along four central dimensions: the nature of the subject matter, the content, the teaching approach, and teacher personality (Lee, 2010). Lee, in a questionnaire study of College level students in Japan, reports a positive correlation between teacher enthusiasm and increased rapport with learners, which may be presumed to lower anxiety. The pace of the lesson is also an important FLA predictor because studies have also shown that anxious learners feel left behind by the fast-paced classroom instruction, with some skipping classes to alleviate their apprehension (Horwitz et al, 1986; Price, 1991; Xu and Li, 2010). Findings from empirical studies involving the use of FLCAS (Kim, 2009; Kunt and Tüm, 2010; Liu, 2006; Luele, 2010; Piniel, 2006) indicate that other teacher-related FLA predictors include unjustified error correction and the adoption of a critical or condescending attitude towards the learners' L2 use, posing questions students are not prepared for, and asking students to speak spontaneously or in front of the class.

In a review of L2 anxiety literature, Xu and Li (2010) highlight how teachers' verbal behaviour in class affects learner anxiety and report that tests, classroom communication, teaching materials and classroom atmosphere may contribute to learner anxiety. Learners are embarrassed and fearful when asked to offer answers in front of the whole class (cf: Kim, 2009), and their voice becomes smaller and smaller so that the teacher would not notice any errors they may make (cf: Tsui, 1996). Participants' anxiety also increases when they cannot answer teacher questions within the time allowed or when the teacher makes comparison by calling on another, perhaps more proficient student, to answer the same question. Furthermore, the speed of teacher talk, error correction techniques, the use of complex language and the teacher's preoccupation with achieving the teaching aims may leave the learners tense and pressured thus increasing their levels of anxiety.

Anxiety is not only the preserve of learners because college teachers may also experience some forms of anxiety (Baiocchi-Wagner, 2011). The discomfort arising from instructor anxiety may influence how the teacher handles students' behaviour in class. Teacher anxiety hinders informal interaction with students and attempts at interpersonal relationship which may in turn impede the teacher's desire to create a warm and relaxed environment in the classroom. Citing earlier studies (Horwitz, 1992, 1993) on non-native teachers including pre-service FL teachers, Horwitz (1996) highlights how anxiety affects teachers' feelings of self-confidence, use of TL, and instructional choices, resulting in decreasing speaking opportunities in class. She argues further that, like other teachers, language teachers have knowledge gaps in their teaching specialty. In her opinion, NNESTs may not be able to predict the path of classroom conversation, therefore, there is the possibility of mistakes and vocabulary lapses, all of which contribute to teacher anxiety and affect the amount of learner L2 input offered. We noted in Chapter 2 (2.5) the reluctance by JTEs to teach speaking as a result of national proclivity for Native-Speaker English and related linguistic insecurity (Honna, 2008; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Miyazato, 2009; Warren-Price, 2007). It is predictable that the resulting low self-confidence and low self-perception will contribute to FLA experienced by these JTEs.

3.6 Peer collaboration/competition

Another significant FLA predictor is learners' competitive nature; the desire to outperform one's classmates, manifested as overtly comparing oneself to classmates, personal expectations, feeling of having to outdo other learners, and preoccupation with test and course grades in comparison with other students (Bailey, 1983; Koga, 2009; Kurihara, 2008; Toth, 2007). Toth claims that competitiveness, in conjunction with negative L2-self-concept, can induce FLA. Similarly, Yan and Horwitz (2008), in an interview and diary study, examined Chinese learners' perceptions of how anxiety works together with other variables such as personal and instructional factors in influencing language learning. They report that the more anxious learners rated themselves as lower in ability than those with moderate and low anxiety (cf: Chen, 2002). Their choice of words such as 'uncomfortable' and 'envious' describe these learners' reaction towards perceived pressure from their peers. An anxiety-free atmosphere enabled learners to speak more easily and from which Yan and Horwitz concluded that one of the most immediate sources of anxiety was peer comparison.

Similar to Yan and Horwitz's participants, Japanese EFL learners often rate themselves low in L2 ability. It is probable that low self-perceived proficiency exhibited by the Japanese learners, which has been shown in literature to be a source of anxiety, is a consequence of modesty, an adjunct to the Japanese culture, which makes it difficult for learners to publicly acknowledge their capabilities, and not wanting to stand out (Wakui, 2006). Research also shows that anxious learners believe that their language skills are weaker than those of their classmates; consequently, their performance in class diminishes (Bailey, 1983; Young, 1991a; MacIntyre et al, 1997a).

Collaboration involves group work and research indicates that uncertainty is created when students are required to work in groups, which in turn, induces anxiety of both cognitive and affective dimensions (Strauss, U, & Young, 2011). Learners may experience anxious moments during L2 interactions in classes of mixed background because of previous experience with language learning with individuals from other cultures (Coryell & Clark, 2009), and anticipation of miscommunication and difficulties arising from cultural misunderstandings. Additionally, learners may experience cognitive anxiety when they are unsure of the work ethos of other group members, or suffer affective anxiety as a result of emotional discomfort in heterogeneous settings. For example, if domestic students remain negative in their attitudes towards cross-cultural group work, it is possible for international students to come to share these reservations and eventually resort to working in homogeneous groups where anxiety may be less. In a survey of first year university students, Strauss et al (2011) report that international students were more favourably disposed towards working in multicultural groups than their domestic peers. However, this disposition was short-lived because they became more inclined to work in homogeneous groups as a result of being continually rebuffed by the domestic students. Within the Asian context, peer relationships have a positive effect on anxiety because FLA level is high when interacting with quiet and unfamiliar group members, but lowered when learners work with preferred group members. This is exemplified in Kurihara's (2008) study of high school learners where students became more active and vocal in English with familiar group members. She concludes that peer familiarity results in a change in learners' L2 attitude and lowers anxiety levels.

To conclude this section, we have examined sources of anxiety in the language classroom. A myriad of issues, some of which are intertwined, aggregates to influence FLA in the classroom. The teacher can be a source of anxiety through personality, instructional approach, materials used, degree of rapport, and the level of support offered. Finally, learner characteristics cannot be separated from teacher factors, because in addition to learners' self-concept, L2 perception, and attitudes, how the teacher responds to these can potentially individually or interactively influence FLA within group settings.

3.7 FLA studies in Japan

Most of the anxiety studies conducted in Japan have focused on language skills other than speaking or on general anxiety as it affects L2 learning (Goshi, 2005; Kimura, 2008; Kondo & Yang, 2004, 2006; Matsuda & Gobel, 2001, 2004; Matsumura & Hann, 2004; Miyanaga, 2005; Noro, 2005; Takada, 2003; Tani-Fukichi, 2005), while just a few have reported on speaking-related anxiety (Kurihara, 2006, 2008; Pribyl, Keaton and Sakamoto, 2001; Yashima, 2002, Yashima et al, 2009). Kondo and Yang (2004, 2006) in particular paid attention to anxiety-reduction strategies. The majority of these studies were conducted in tertiary institutions while a few (Kurihara, 2006, 2008; Takada, 2003; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004) focused on the lower tier. However, most of the speaking-oriented studies report mainly on the relationships between learners' L2 motivation, willingness to communicate, and anxiety (Fushino, 2010; Koga, 2010; Matsuoka & Evans, 2005; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al, 2004; Yashima et al, 2009). Japanese anxiety studies involving the use of FLCAS are of special interest to this study, and are reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Koga (2010), in a survey of 93 Japanese first year university EFL students, demonstrates that developing cooperativeness among a group of lowly motivated but highly anxious learners ultimately leads to reduction of anxiety because cooperativeness subsequently accounted for increased motivation. That is to say, negative relationship between communication apprehension and motivational variables such as persistence, integrative and instrumental orientations dissipate as a consequence of increased cooperativeness by learners. In a similar FLCAS study with Japanese university students, Nagahashi (2007) investigated the effect of

short-term interventions, such as creating a relaxed and supportive environment for L2 production, on anxiety. Findings show an association between high FLA scores and CA. Noticeably, CA is reduced when learners are provided opportunities to develop L2 speaking skills in small groups thus suggesting once again that cooperative learning strategies may help to reduce FLA. In the two groups studied, although the initial average FLA score was higher for Health Science majors than Education majors, the former experienced a greater reduction in FLA than the latter after the intervention. Nagahashi opines that the intervention period, which was rather short, could have accounted for this. Undoubtedly, both groups were subjected to the same intervention duration, and the Education majors (pre-service teachers) who were more anxious after the intervention are likely to use English in their professional lives and thus have more expectations of their career. This may make it more difficult for short term intervention to decrease their underlying FLA level.

In an interview study by Miyazato (2002) in which university students engaged with NESTs in the TL, findings reveal that the speed of NS speech, nonverbal features, and the use of unfamiliar vocabulary were the major sources of FLA. Facial expression by the NESTs indicating lack of understanding resulted in students 'freezing up'. The students reported that they required tremendous courage to speak because NESTs speak perfect English. Whereas some participants reported that they felt more at ease with an Asian-looking NEST, a Japanese-American, others indicated that the physical appearance of another NEST; an American from a non-Japanese ethnic background, made them realise they are using English.

In a separate study, Tani-Fukichi (2005) used a questionnaire to evaluate the environmental contexts in which Japanese university students learn English. He reports that two thirds of the 313 students sampled have negative feelings, and their anxiety resulting therefrom arose from the large class size and the mandatory nature of the language course. She concludes that emotions exhibited are culture-specific and that the culture-specific needs of Japanese learners should be addressed in order to implement a language curriculum suited to Japanese.

In a recent survey study, Lockley and Farrell (2011) investigated how grammar anxiety hinders English speaking in Japanese EFL university students. Findings showed no

significant relationship between confidence in grammar proficiency and speaking proficiency. The authors suggest a possible mismatch between participant self-perception and reality; that is students assessing their grammatical ability too modestly and concluded that measurement of actual proficiency might correlate better with speaking ability.

Other anxiety studies in Japan include Goshi (2005) who used FLCAS to establish the relationship between students' FLA and L2 beliefs in a private university in Japan. Findings suggest that learners with negative beliefs about learning English experienced higher levels of anxiety. In another study to test the effectiveness of using a skills-based programme to reduce anxiety among Japanese sophomores, Pribyl et al (2001) observe that a systematic approach to developing presentation skill was linked to reduction in communication apprehension. Matsuda and Gobel (2001) sought to determine the reliability and validity of FLCAS and FLRAS across three groups of learners in a Japanese university. Findings indicate that FLCAS and FLRAS measure two clearly independent constructs. In a subsequent factor analytic study (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004) in which a two-component solution emerged, they report that overseas experience positively influences self-confidence, which in turn plays a significant role in learners' ability to speak English.

3.8 Summary and conclusion

This chapter has offered some definitions of anxiety and made a distinction between types of anxiety. It has also examined some theories of anxiety to illuminate both the physiological and psychological bases underpinning the anxiety construct. Research portrays anxiety as a conceptually distinct variable with specific effects on L2 learning; a unique experience associated with language learning described as a situation-specific anxiety (Horwitz & Young, 1991). It is also perceived as a part of the learning process which touches the core of one's self-identity and self-image with some sociocultural implications (Young, 1991b). FLA is conceptualised as a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning and originating from the uniqueness of the language learning process (Horwitz et al, 1986). Anxiety therefore interferes with language learning by influencing language processing, and the interrelationship between anxiety and L2 learning

encompasses factors beyond language proficiency. There is no doubt that anxiety plays a vital role in L2 learning as evident in numerous studies reviewed here.

Unlike ESL learners, most EFL learners only encounter the TL in the classroom. The synergy between learner variables and classroom factors sheds further light on how anxiety manifests in the L2 classroom, and in some cases, the learners' responses to the effects of anxiety. However, the classroom is pivotal to understanding the processes that create FLA, along with an array of issues combining to influence FLA in the classroom. As we have seen, the teacher can be an additional source of anxiety depending on the instructional approaches, pedagogic materials, personality, teacher-learner relationship, learner-learner relationship, and the level of support offered in and outside of the classroom. All these predictors make FLA multidimensional, interacting with situation-specific and context-dependent features of L2 instruction. Kim (2010) suggests that it is only when FLA is considered as a situation-specific rather than as a constant and stable property can research be more concrete. A number of inquiries looking at anxiety within the Asian EFL context have supported this view. They have examined how the classroom facilities, teaching materials, teacher characteristics and behaviour, and peer comparison impact anxiety (Xu & Li, 2010; Yan & Horwitz, 2008), and on attitude towards L2 class. Asian studies have also highlighted the effect of native speaker interlocutor on FLA (Mak, 2011; Miyazato, 2002), and variability of anxiety across proficiency levels (Kim, 2009; Pan et al, 2010).

The discussion has also touched on learners' self-concept which accounts for much FLA. Of note in some of the studies conducted in the Asian EFL context is the learners' self-comparison and negative perception of scholastic competence. By underestimating their ability, anxious learners believe that their language skills are weaker than those of their classmates, and as a result, their performance diminishes. In most of these studies, moderately negative correlation have been found between learner anxiety scores and various outcome measures of L2 proficiency. In addition, Asian learners' reticence is traceable to the learning culture in which respect for authority is crucial.

In Japan, very few studies have been carried out to investigate the effect of speaking on anxiety and the prominent anxiety studies in Japan were in combination with other variables such as motivation and WTC (Koga, 2010; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al, 2004; Yashima et al, 2009). Discussion thus far suggest that distinct instructional patterns, whether global as dictated by the teaching and learning culture, or local, as determined by the teacher, may bring about different degrees of anxiety in learners (Kim, 2009). Anxiety can also be an issue for non-native English teachers (Horwitz, 1996). Within the Japanese EFL context, and to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is no evidence in literature showing studies that involve observing FLA in the classroom. Similarly, no study has adopted a mixed method utilising both quantitative and qualitative data to investigate FLA exclusively in the classroom. No study in Japan has addressed learner anxiety in a comprehensive manner whereby learners' anxiety scores are compared across tertiary institutional contexts. Finally, no study in Japan has also addressed anxiety in relation to teaching methodology and (non)nativeness of teachers in different institutions.

In Chapter 2, we discussed ELT in Japan and various issues that impact on effective English learning. Most of the factors discussed are somehow neglected in the FLA literature; my broad aim in this study is to bring the two perspectives together, and to look at ELT in Japan through the lens of anxiety. The learning culture as dictated by the general culture and pedagogic approaches current in Japan are among the factors that hinder the development of L2 speaking skills. Yet while many anxiety studies have focused on the measurement of L2 anxiety and on some learning outcomes, none has explored how culture influences learners' perception of L2 and consequently the resultant effect on FLA. I am convinced by the overall approach of Horwitz and her co-workers, but as in most other anxiety studies, the cultural dimension of anxiety is neglected in their work. The limitation stems from a view of anxiety as universal without taking account of the culturally specific context, e.g. Japan. In particular, low self-confidence has been identified and associated with Japanese inability to speak English (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Yashima et al, 2009) and it is not very clear how L2 pedagogy and culture combine to produce this phenomenon. By examining the anxiety construct through cultural lens, further light will be shed on how the learning culture, an adjunct of the general culture, influences the learners' L2 learning approaches and consequently, anxiety.

This FLA study expects to find interactions between and among pedagogic, personal and sociocultural variables in different learning settings. Consequently, the research questions will partly draw on the findings discussed in this chapter and partly on our understanding of Japan, a culturally specific context as enunciated in Chapter 2, in order to explore associations of pedagogy and culture with L2 anxiety.

By attempting to explore anxiety systematically in English lessons using a triangulated methodology, this study hopes to reveal the underlying factors causing anxiety in and across institutional settings. Firstly, I will use a quantitative approach (factor analysis of FLCAS data) to explore the nature of anxiety in Japan. The first hypothesis to be investigated is that Japanese learners of English exhibit different dimensions of FLA in comparison with learners from other backgrounds. This leads to the first research: 1) *What is the nature and level of FLA obtaining among Japanese students learning English as a foreign language?*

In line with the assumption that FLA may be context-specific, we have also seen the possible effect of institutions on learners' attitude to L2, their motivational intensity, and consequently, their FLA level (Koul et al, 2009). Given the strong hierarchy among tertiary institutions in Japan, the present study places emphasis on how learner perception of their institution influences L2 anxiety. For this purpose I will move beyond FLCAS data to explore institutional resources, and enquire into possible institutional differences concerning teaching, the employment of NEST/NNEST, power relations in the classroom, peer relationships, and other institutional dimensions. To be specific, the second hypothesis to be explored in this study using qualitative data is that a high profile university will place additional demands on general learner confidence, and expectations; hence the status of the institution impacts on learners' perception of L2 and consequently influences their L2 attitude and FLA levels. The second research question is therefore: 2) *What institutional factors influence FLA?* The subquestions are:

(a) How do these factors influence learners' attitude to learning English?
(b) How do institutional factors affect the availability of speaking opportunities?

The third hypothesis to be explored in the study is also related to the general aim of understanding situation-specific dimensions of anxiety. With different results emerging from different anxiety studies, it is clear that anxiety is not stable across instructional contexts. This inconsistency demands further examination of the extent to which anxiety is associated with specific classroom learning goals and instructional techniques. My third hypothesis is that learner anxiety scores will depend on the pedagogic experiences that learners have in the L2 classroom. The third research question is therefore: 3) *What pedagogical factors influence FLA?* The subquestions are:

(a) How do these factors influence the learning of speaking skills?
(b) What relationships exist between speaking opportunities and FLA?
(c) How do teacher variables influence speaking skills and consequently FLA?

We have seen in the literature review that teacher behaviour and the level of support offered learners are capable of influencing anxiety. The creation of a relaxed atmosphere necessary for L2 learning will largely depend on teacher and the interpersonal relationship existing between the teacher and the learners. Similarly, the intergroup and intragroup relations among students and other learner variables will play a vital role in how learners manage their anxiety. The fourth hypothesis is that there are social factors operating within the classroom capable of influencing FLA. The fourth and final research question is therefore: 4) *What social factors influence FLA?* The subquestions are:

(a) How does classroom atmosphere impact on FLA?
(b) What learner variables influence FLA?
(c) How do interactional features affect speaking skills and FLA?

The next chapter will describe the overall design of the study and show how it combines quantitative and qualitative methods to address all four research questions.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The chapter begins with the justification of the mixed-method research methodology adopted in the current study. The study itself is biased towards oral performance anxiety, and consequently, will draw on similar studies that have focused specifically on and used techniques that have successfully measured FLA in different L2 learning contexts. Following this introduction I will re-present the research hypotheses and the research questions arising from these hypotheses. I will describe the research context, participants and their respective profiles, and my role as the researcher. I will also provide an account of the field work and discuss in detail the research instruments chosen for the study. Finally, the chapter will discuss the approach to data analysis, ethical issues, validity and trustworthiness of the study.

Although research methods abound in L2 acquisition and learning, the preferred approach used in this study is a combined one; quantitative and qualitative. The use of combined or mixed methods to investigate FLA has been in practice for more than two decades, and using mixed method allows the collection, analysis and mixing of both quantitative and qualitative data at some stage in the study and offers a more holistic view of the research problem.

4.1.1 Justifying the methodology

From the data collection point of view, the tools that may elicit the sort of data capable of addressing the research questions include: questionnaire, interview, and classroom observation. A closed-ended questionnaire will yield quantitative data while qualitative data will be obtained from interviews and observation. Qualitative data analysis is sometimes perceived as subjective while quantitative data analysis is considered the more objective approach. Irrespective of the method of choice, subjectivity is involved when analysis involves choice and interpretation (Richards, 2009). In qualitative analysis, computer programmes such as QRS Nvivo9 can be used to aid the development of codes and themes,

so that the data speaks for itself. According to Freeman (2009, p. 38), what makes a particular study 'qualitative' is not the use of a particular research method, rather, it is the relationships among the following key elements: that your research questions will be (re)shaped by the setting in which you study them; that the information surfaces as data in an iterative fashion in this particular setting in relation to the research questions you are asking; that your analysis will likely be more cyclical than linear – often raising more questions than they answer; and that your claims, or findings, will primarily be anchored in warrants of the meaningfulness of your findings to those in the setting, more than in numerical characteristics.

The quantitative and qualitative tools used for data collection in this study will be applied concurrently. This, according to Ivankova and Creswell (2009), is consistent with Triangulation Design, and the relative importance given to each type of data, would be determined as the analysis progresses. Triangulation is an approach that enables the researcher to obtain data from different sources; an idea that at least two perspectives are needed in order to obtain an accurate picture of a phenomenon (Bailey and Nunan, 1996). Richards (2003, p. 264) acknowledges that triangulation helps the researcher to get a "fix" on the data. Moreover, it can aid credibility, transferability, confirmability, and dependability in qualitative research (Mackey and Gass, 2005), reduce researcher bias and enhance the validity and reliability of the information (Johnson, 1992 in Mackey & Gass, 2005).

In addition, findings obtained are usually well-validated and substantiated because the weaknesses of one method are offset by the strengths of the other. It offers an in-depth understanding of trends and patterns and is capable of both generating and testing theories (Creswell et al, 2003 in Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). The challenges posed by triangulation are that, if there is no convergence of results from two data sets, comparison becomes difficult, and it also requires a lot of expertise to simultaneously collect and analyse separate sets of data.

4.2 Researching FLA

Most FLA studies have adopted a quantitative approach relying much on questionnaire data. Many of these studies tend to be correlational seeking to establish relationships among FLA, learner, and pedagogical factors. As discussed in Chapter 3, several studies have used the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) in combination with other tools e.g. test (Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009; Ganschow et al, 1994; Kim, 2009; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Nagahashi, 2007; Onwuegbuzie et al, 2000; Pawlak, 2011; Phillips, 1992; Rouhani, 2008; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007; Takada, 2003; Tallon, 2009; Toth, 2008b; Yashima et al, 2009). Others have focused specifically on the use of FLCAS to investigate FLA (Arnold 2007; Bailey et al, 1999; Cheng et al, 1999; Cheng and Chang, 2004; Ganschow & Sparks, 1996; Goshi, 2005; Gregersen, 2005, 2007; Kawashima, 2009; Kitano, 2001; Luele, 2010; Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003; Toth, 2008a). A few have combined FLCAS with interview (Frantzen & Magnan, 2005; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Kitalin, 2006; Yan & Horwitz, 2008), or interview with other types of questionnaire (Kurihara, 2006; Leger, 2009). There are also studies which have adopted a purely qualitative approach using interview only (Coryell & Clark, 2009; Gürses et al, 2010; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011) and diary studies (Bailey, 1983; Cohen & Norst, 1989 in Horwitz, 2010). Furthermore, there are studies that have used FLCAS and introspection (Ewald, 2007, Phillips, 1992), and FLCAS, interview and introspection (Hurd, 2007). Of special interest for this project are the FLA studies that used FLCAS, interview and observation (Liu, 2006; Luele, 2010; Mak, 2011) which are the very tools employed in the current study. Within the Japanese EFL context, most of the FLA-related studies have focused on reading, listening and strategy use. As described in Chapter 3, only a handful has reported on speaking anxiety (Kurihara, 2008; Pribyl, Keaton and Sakamoto, 2001; Yashima, 2002, Yashima et al, 2004; Yashima et al, 2009).

The FLA literature cited above and reviewed in Chapter 3 is testimonial to an extensive research programme to establish the relationship between FLA and classroom L2 learning. Most of the studies have used similar tools, especially FLCAS which has proven to be robust with a high reliability index (Frantzen & Magnan, 2005; Horwitz, 1986). The use of qualitative analytical tool such as interview however allows the learners not only to describe a particular classroom task and its impact on anxiety in richer detail, but to offer greater

insight into how anxiety affects their overall L2 experience beyond the classroom. Ewald (2007, p. 126) reminds us that qualitative research should be used, "not simply to strengthen or inform statistical findings but rather to clarify the extreme complexity of the language learning experience". To summarise, FLA has been intrinsically linked with L2 learning. FLA impedes learning in a number of ways and there is no "cure-all" approach to dealing with FLA. The fact that FLA manifests itself differently in various contexts also raises the question of its stability. It is therefore the aim of this study to shed further light on the intricacies of the FLA construct with reference to speaking skill, in specific context of EFL in Japan.

In the next section, I will present and discuss the research questions and go on to describe the research methodology. Following this will be the research context, participants, instruments used and the limitations of the chosen research method.

4.3 The study

4.3.1 Research questions

Horwitz et al (1986) identified FLA as a conceptually distinct construct and drew parallel between it and three related performance anxieties namely: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. However, FLA is not restricted to these three building blocks, rather, it encompasses "self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviour related to classroom language learning process" (p. 128). On the other hand, Cheng et al's (1999) study of Taiwanese EFL learners identified only two domains of speaking-related anxiety among the participants. These were low self-confidence and general English classroom performance anxiety. Matsuda and Gobel (2004) obtained similar findings in a study of Japanese undergraduates. Liu (2009) reports both a three-solution analysis in line with Horwitz et al (1986) and a two-solution analysis in line with Cheng et al (1999). The present study aims first of all to identify the dimensions of FLA exhibited by Japanese EFL learners. In other words, the question is whether the FLA factors derived from administration of FLCAS with the participants in the present study reflect those documented in the existing anxiety literature. The first hypothesis is that Japanese learners of English will exhibit different dimensions of FLA in comparison with learners from other backgrounds and that

the levels of anxiety obtained will vary from institution to institution. The first research question (RQ1) is:

1) What is the nature and level of FLA obtaining among Japanese students learning English as a foreign language?

The second area of interest for this study is institutional affiliation and its possible impact on FLA. Firstly, institutional prestige may influence FLA levels in more than one way. From the global perspective, Horwitz (2000, 2001) points out that one third of participants in anxiety studies are students enrolled in prestigious universities who have been selected based on rigorous Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and Grade Point Average (GPA) entrance requirements. If learners with good standard test scores experience considerable degree of anxiety, one wonders how learners in lesser ranked universities will perform, and if anxiety is independent of university status? Also, attending a high-profile university with many international students may exert some influence on the learner's self-expectation. How does the availability of a network of more proficient interlocutors influence the learners? Does such a learner's self-perception change in relation to students from lesser-ranked universities? Does the learner set higher achievement targets because of the status of the institution? Secondly, the institution's vocational focus may influence FLA. For example, institutions preparing teachers may be more demanding in their expectations for learners' English achievement, than other types of institution. (In elementary schools, English language education has recently become mandatory.) Thirdly, the availability of technology may vary across institutions, with possible consequences for FLA. (Although technology-based language learning is more prevalent at the university level, the resources such as Internet technology that are available to promote this vary from one institution to another: Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006; O'Neill & Hubert, 2008; Rink & Yamauchi, 2008; Suzuki et al, 2004).

All of these institutional factors may interact with classroom factors to influence the level of anxiety experienced by the learner in the L2 classroom. Given this, one of the aims of this research is to find out if the reputation, nature and the status of the institution learners attend have any influence on how they learn English, and consequently, on the level of anxiety exhibited in the classroom. The second hypothesis is that a high profile university will place

additional demands on learner confidence, and expectation; hence the status of the institution impacts on learners' perception of L2 and consequently influences their L2 attitude and FLA levels. This leads to the second research question (RQ2) and subquestions which are:

2) *What institutional factors influence foreign language classroom anxiety?*

   a) How do these factors influence learners' attitude to learning English?

   b) How do institutional factors affect the availability of speaking opportunities?

Instructional patterns can be global as dictated by the teaching and learning culture, or local, as determined by the teacher. Instructional approaches to ELT vary from institution to institution, the learning culture, a derivative of the general culture, is capable of influencing L2 learning outcome (Thurman, 2008). Furthermore, distinct instructional patterns may bring about different degrees of anxiety in learners (Kim, 2009); once again, with different results emerging from different anxiety studies, it is clear that anxiety is not stable across instructional contexts. This inconsistency demands further examination of the extent to which L2 speaking ability and anxiety are associated with specific instructional techniques, and with teacher characteristics. Anxiety can also be an issue for non-native teachers (Horwitz, 1996); and this may in turn affect their pedagogic practices especially the teaching of L2 speaking skills; therefore, this study will examine how pedagogic approaches by both foreigners (NESTs) and Japanese (NNESTs) affect L2 speaking ability and classroom FLA.

My third hypothesis is therefore that learner anxiety levels and their willingness to speak in the classroom will be influenced by the pedagogic experiences that learners have in the L2 classroom. Maintaining a relaxed atmosphere is important for L2 learning (Ewald, 2007; Xie, 2010); teacher personality, accessibility to learners, error correction techniques, appearance, group selection principles, and classroom management techniques also play a significant role in L2 learning and FLA (Liu, 2006; Luele, 2010; Piniel, 2006). The third research question (RQ3) and subquestions are:

3) *What pedagogic factors influence foreign language classroom anxiety?*

   a) How do these factors influence the learning of speaking skills?

b) What relationships exist between speaking opportunities and FLA?
c) How do teacher variables influence speaking skills and consequently FLA?

In addition to the opportunities and facilities available in the institution for learners to advance their foreign language skills, and the instructional approaches adopted by the teacher, there are other factors in the classroom that are beyond the control of the school administrators and the teacher. Within the Asian context, culture combines with learner factors such as *face*, group unity, self-comparison, and negative perception of scholastic competence to influence FLA (Hinenoya & Gatbonton, 2000; Wen & Clemént, 2003). According to Peng and Woodrow (2010), culture-fuelled beliefs can have a controlling effect on students' self-confidence in specific classroom situations. We have also seen in Chapter 3 that teacher behaviour, personality, and the level of support offered to learners are capable of influencing anxiety. Similarly, grouping of learners for oral tasks, intergroup and intragroup peer relations, and other learner variables will play a vital role in how learners communicate in L2 and manage their anxiety (Strauss, U, & Young, 2011; Tani-Fukichi, 2005). Dewaele et al (2008) posit that paying attention to social variables is essential because the larger social circumstances, such as the availability of supportive conversation partners, play an important part in helping learners control anxiety. The learner-learner relationship in class, power ratio between the teacher and learners, learner autonomy and personal L2 learning goals can all influence perceptions of L2, and FLA. The fourth hypothesis is that there are social factors operating within the classroom capable of influencing FLA. This therefore leads to the fourth research question (RQ4) and subquestions which are:

4) *What social factors within the classroom influence foreign language anxiety?*
   a) How does classroom atmosphere impact on FLA?
   b) What learner variables influence FLA?
   c) How do interactional features affect speaking skills and FLA?

4.3.2 Research context

This study is situated in Japan. As pointed out in Chapter 2, English language education in Japan spans nearly two centuries, and given its global influence, Japan wants its citizens to possess English abilities. However to date, English learners experience limited oral

proficiency and opportunities to use English. Exploring anxiety and its impact on English learning is one way of addressing this problem, and Japan presents an ideal context to conduct such a study.

In order to facilitate study of the relationship between FLA and institutional context, the participants for this study were chosen across four universities three of which are public and one private. These universities differ in status and prestige and are located in three different prefectures in Japan. The sample of institutions is an opportunity sample; I wrote to seven universities of high, medium and low rankings for permission to conduct this study, but received affirmative responses from these four. These universities would be hereafter referred to as Pok, Doh, Dek, and Nuk universities. Pok University is a private institution. Doh and Dek are specialised public universities for teacher education. Nuk University happens to be one of the best ranked universities in Japan and one can expect that only the very able students would be offered places in this university. Doh and Dek universities which are ranked in the mid table comprise first to third year trainee teachers majoring in different subject areas. As trainee teachers, one expects a fair amount of commitment to learning, awareness of graduation requirements, and ability to learn in ways they would expect their future students to learn. Finally, Pok University, ranked lowest in comparison with others, is a private institution whose teaching philosophy is based on Japanese traditional religion *"shinto"*. It is not a first choice for most of the participants, who enrolled there because they could not secure admission into public universities. Researching FLA in four universities, settings where approaches to English language instruction differ significantly is expected to reveal how these different approaches in differing contexts impact on FLA.

Within the four institutions, one class per institution participated in the study. Lesson observations and interviews were all conducted with these classes, which also constitute an opportunity sample, i.e. their teachers were willing to collaborate with the research. My previous relationship with Pok University enabled easy access but the other three universities were accessed through friends, and friend's friends. The participants in Pok University are Education and Communication majors. The Education majors at Pok, and all of the student participants at Doh and Dek, are trainee teachers, some of whom will become English teachers in junior and senior high schools, or elementary school teachers where English

language instruction has now become mandatory. Participants in Nuk University are postgraduate students taking a course in Business Negotiation. Most of them are MBA students, but with a few specialising in Statistics, Agriculture, and Science. I chose this group because there was no suitable speaking-related course at the undergraduate level to observe in the second semester. The students that constitute the research sample study English for a variety of reasons. It is a requirement for both the undergraduate and for the postgraduate students. The latter category is likely to use English in their places of work after graduation whereas some of the undergraduate participants may not, except those who will be English teachers or elementary school teachers.

All undergraduate students in this study have studied English for at least six years in both junior and senior high schools, and received a further one or two years of instruction in the university. The postgraduate students have studied English for at least eight years, and some were actually using English at work before embarking on postgraduate studies. The undergraduates range from first to third year students depending on the institution. Two of the four classes taking part in the study were taught by native English speakers and the other two by Japanese teachers of English.

The postgraduate class was principally a speaking-oriented class in which students made presentations and negotiated simulated business deals in English. Standardized test scores were not available to categorise these students, but the researcher would place them on the intermediate level of English proficiency. There were several international students mostly from China and two others from Vietnam and Poland respectively which helped to ensure that group discussions were conducted in English. In Doh University all participants were first year Japanese students except for one Chinese student and were considered false beginners. Dek University had first to third year students participating in the course. There were two foreign students from Russia and Iran, and L2 abilities range from false beginner to lower intermediate levels. Students in Pok University were second and third year students and were considered false beginners. They were all Japanese.

4.3.3 Participants

Two of the participating professors, females, are Japanese teachers of English while the other two, males, are native speakers of English from the United States. All four teachers have had several years' experience of teaching English at tertiary level in Japan. Using Japanese teachers of English in the study is expected to offer a different perspective on how classroom factors could influence FLA. One male and one female were colleagues of the researcher at two different universities prior to embarking on his doctorate programme, and the other two were contacted through social networking.

Selection of the participating teachers was based on the premise that these teachers take the teaching of speaking seriously. The focus of the study is on speaking-related anxiety, and it was therefore important to observe classes where L2 speaking occurred. This was made clear to the teachers when the researcher was negotiating access to the field. From the actual classroom observation, it turned out that one Japanese teacher (Doh University) taught oral proficiency through a focus on pronunciation and used music as an instructional tool. The teaching method adopted by the other Japanese teacher (Pok University) had a traditional focus on grammar, but embedded in it were opportunities for students to use English for classroom interaction. The native speaker teacher in the postgraduate class (Nuk University) used learner centred approach where students were speaking for most of the class time. Finally, the other native speaker teacher was teaching oracy through reading. This was more of a reading comprehension class but with ample opportunity for students to engage in pair and group work using English to discuss the various outcomes of the reading activities. This study thus had the opportunity to observe four different teaching approaches by teachers with different teaching philosophies and L2 background.

The student participants are those taught by the participating teachers. In total there were 142 participants; Pok University (56), Doh University (33), Dek University (25), and Nuk University (28). While all student participants took part in the quantitative part of data collection, selection for the follow-up interview was random with equal gender representation, except in the postgraduate class where there were only two Japanese female students; one of whom had spent several years in America and was therefore not considered a suitable

candidate for this study. Six participants were chosen for interview from each class. In all twenty four student participants and four teacher participants took part in the interview strand.

4.3.4 Researcher role

Having taught English in Japan from kindergarten through to university level, I feel I have some insider knowledge of the problems learners have in trying to communicate in English as detailed in Chapter 2. In addition, I taught for nearly two years in the private university under consideration (Pok), and therefore understand the setting. I taught some of the third year students in the observed class when they were freshmen. As far the institutional setting is concerned, therefore, in this case I have an insider perspective. The class itself comprised second and third year students and although many of whom were unknown to me, I could not assume the role of an unknown researcher. However, with properly developed research schedule and tools, I was confident that background assumptions and expectations would not in any way interfere with my data collection. Additionally, as a result of my previous relationship with them, my former students taking the course might find my presence in class less intrusive and be able to act more naturally compared to the rest I had not taught previously.

In any case, as far as the remaining student participants were concerned, I was a complete outsider, and had no inside knowledge of the workings of these institutions, neither did I know any of the students. In Nuk University, I was introduced simply as a “postgraduate student from England conducting a research study as part of his graduation requirements”. To some extent, it helped to create the sort of atmosphere that I was perceived as “one of them”, a fellow student albeit from England and made the observation less intrusive. In fact, in Dek University, the undergraduates were very hospitable, engaging me after classes and extending invitations to join them in social or recreational activities. I say this because in Doh University where I was introduced as a former university teacher currently embarking on a doctorate degree programme, the social distance between me and the students was greater.

Although the observed teachers were professional colleagues, I needed to reflect on my relationship with them, partly because, as Richard (2003) observes, the observer's perspective can move from being an outsider to an insider, especially when the observer begins to professionally identify with the observed teachers and share their taken-for-granted assumptions. Making the familiar strange (Holliday, 2007) is the avoidance of any taken-for-granted attitude. Observers, regardless of how familiar they may be with the context, should strive to act as strangers in a new situation, question what goes on and try to explain the unquestioned. Everything needs to be seen afresh. In order to maintain an acceptable level of objectivity, I kept a diary of my interactions with the teachers before, during and after each observation, and also made deductions from email communication between us. This was to gauge the chemistry between us and to determine what impact my presence in class was having on them and their teaching. I assured them that my research was not about evaluating their teaching, rather, it was merely seeking to unravel why and how anxiety manifests itself in learners in the course of the entire lesson.

4.3.5 Field work

The field work took place over a four month period between October 2010 and February 2011. In Japan, the school year begins in April and the field work occurred in the second semester which began on October 1, 2010. In most cases, a new course in a new semester means having a new set of students in class. The researcher arrived three weeks after the start of the semester to give the teachers time to familiarise themselves with the students. Although both student and teacher interviews were initially piloted in Southampton University with some postgraduate students of Asian, Middle Eastern, and Latin American origin, it was necessary to re-pilot these in the context where the research would take place. The questionnaire was piloted in one of the public universities studied but in a different class consisting mainly of second year students. The piloting was successful as the students could complete it in the fifteen minutes allotted to it. This was followed by a pilot interview with one student, and data elicited was sufficient to give the researcher the necessary confidence to proceed with the main study. A schedule was worked out in which the researcher visited each institution at three- to four-weekly intervals to minimise overlap especially as the universities were located in three different prefectures in Japan. Four visits were made to each institution, and an English lesson was observed on each occasion. Having discussed with the teachers by

email, it was agreed that the questionnaire should be administered on the first day of observation towards the end of the lesson. This was done successfully in all four universities. After each observation, the researcher would interview two students randomly chosen, usually a male and female. Whenever the selected student had time constraints, arrangements were made for the researcher to visit the school on a later date, but within a week, to conduct the interview. The teachers were interviewed at the end of the fourth observation to allow room for reflection on all the lessons observed. Teacher interviews lasted between seventy and one hundred minutes; three of these were conducted in their office and one over lunch.

Observation Schedule

Kun University	25/10/2010, 06/12/2010, 20/12/2010, 06/01/2011
Doh University	29/10/2010, 26/11/2010, 17/12/2010, 28/01/2011
Dek University	02/11/2010, 29/11/2011, 17/12/2010, 11/01/2011
Pok University	08/11/2010, 20/11/2010, 13/12/2010, 24/01/2011

4.3.6 Research instruments

Whereas quantitative inquiry relies on deductive reasoning, inductive reasoning on the other hand is associated with qualitative inquiry. This study used both but I will begin with the quantitative dimension of the inquiry.

4.3.6.1 Questionnaire

One essential feature of quantitative research is that categories and viewpoints are predetermined by the researcher. One of the most popular methods of quantitative data collection is the use of questionnaires. Brown (2001 in Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 92) defines a questionnaire as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers”. It offers response options to choose from and seeks to elicit specific pieces of information. Through questionnaires, information about learners’ beliefs and motivation about learning or their reactions to learning can be obtained. Dörnyei (2003) points out that

questionnaires are popular because they are easy to construct, and extremely versatile with a unique capability to gather a large amount of information quickly in a form that can be readily processed. He adds that, though seemingly easy to prepare, questionnaires with sufficient and well-documented psychometric reliability are hard to come by in the field of applied linguistics. Questionnaires can be open or closed ended; the former requires respondents to answer in their own words and are best suited for exploratory research which can serve as a basis for further and more structured research (Brown, 2009). Closed-item questionnaire are more suited to studies in which hypotheses have been formulated, whereas, responses from open-ended questionnaires may guide the researcher in formulating the hypothesis.

Questionnaires can yield factual, behavioural, and attitudinal types of data. The last two attributes are pertinent to this study because learners have attitudes, opinions, beliefs and values about L2 learning, and the behavioural aspect of anxiety is linked to these learner attributes. A good questionnaire would elicit comparable information in a short period of time from several respondents and also ensure fast and straightforward analysis. The use of questionnaire is cost-beneficial because of ease of administration. It can be done via email, regular post, phone, and in person. However, from a qualitative perspective, data obtained from questionnaires are rather superficial because the questions are unlikely to yield the sort of in-depth information about individual learners that interviews can provide (Dörnyei, 2003); some researchers (Ewald, 2007; Young, 1990) adopt open-ended questionnaires presumably as a way of addressing this short-coming. Dörnyei points to other vulnerabilities of questionnaires; for example, respondents may only report what they think they ought to feel and not how they actually feel. This poses a threat to the validity of the questionnaire as the researcher has no means of double-checking with the respondent. Mackey and Gass (2005) also express concern about the difficulties learners have in describing learner-internal phenomenon such as attitudes and perceptions. This means that learner responses may be inaccurate or incomplete and can therefore not provide a complete picture of the complexities of individual contexts.

Further demerits of questionnaires outlined by Dörnyei (2003, pp 10-11) are:

- time constraints; unwillingness to spend a lot of time working on a questionnaire
- unmotivated respondents who may not "want to take the trouble"
- literacy problems; finding questionnaires intimidating
- inability to correct respondents' mistakes
- social desirability; that is respondents responding as they feel they should, not as they actually are,
- self-deception; assigning greater value to personal worth;
- acquiescence; merely going with the flow
- halo effect; the tendency to over generalise
- fatigue effects

The fifteen minutes allocated at the end of the lesson for administration of FLCAS was sufficient for the participants to complete the survey independently. In addition, using the Japanese version helped to minimise any literacy problems they might have encountered with the English version. A response rate of over 95% was high and the observer noticed no sign of fatigue. Other limitations of questionnaire surveys outlined by Dörnyei were beyond the direct control of the researcher. However, use of a well-developed instrument (FLCAS) with known characteristics and proven usefulness was expected to minimise these potential problems.

4.3.6.1.1. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

Since its inception, FLCAS (Appendix 1) has been administered in a number of studies to a large number of students. It has proven to be a rigorous tool for measuring foreign language anxiety and was used in many of the studies discussed in Chapter 3. FLCAS was used for this study because of its sufficient psychometric reliability and validity and relative robustness in relation to the potential criticisms rehearsed by Dörnyei. It consists of 33 five-point Likert-type statements that describe feelings or behaviours learners are likely to exhibit in the classroom. FLCAS purportedly measures three dimensions of FLA: fear of negative evaluation (FNE), communication apprehension (CA), and test anxiety (TA). Although these three performance-related anxieties provide useful conceptual building blocks with which we can describe FLA, as we have seen, Horwitz et al (1986) propose that FLA is not simply a combination of these fears transferred to L2 learning situation. Rather, FLA is conceived 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).

The 33 items in FLCAS are roughly distributed into three main domains including FNE, CA and TA. Fear of negative evaluation is defined by the authors (p. 128) as "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively". A total of nine items (2, 3, 10, 13, 19, 25, 30, 31, and 33) are linked with this domain of anxiety. Communication Apprehension is a type of shyness caused by fear of or anxiety about communicating in public or dyads. Associated with CA are eight items of FLCAS (1, 9, 14, 18, 20, 24, 27, and 32). Finally, Test Anxiety which stems from fear of failure has two items directly linked to it (8 and 21). FLA reflects a set of beliefs, perceptions, and feelings in response to L2 learning experience, consequently, other domains represented in FLCAS are self-perceived proficiency (4, 15 and 29), self-confidence (5, 11, 22, and 28), comparison (7 and 23), nervousness (12, 16 and 26), and motivational intensity (6 and 17). FLCAS has a high test-retest reliability of .83 and remarkable internal consistency represented by a co-efficient alpha (α) of .93 (Horwitz, 1986), and an output reliability of .68 (Frantzen & Magnan, 2005). Matsuda and Gobel (2004) also report internal consistency of .78 while Sellers (2000) reports item-total correlation of .71.

To overcome any misunderstanding that may arise from using the original FLCAS (developed in English), the Japanese version of the FLCAS (Appendix 2: Yashima et al, 2009) was used for the present study. Kimura (2008, p. 179) refers to the amorphous nature of the Japanese translation of 'anxiety'. According to him, in the Japanese version, the verbs "fear" and "worry" are expressed with the same word, "fuan-ni-naru" which could influence how participants respond to this item. Additionally, a Japanese colleague of mine who checked the translated version expressed concern over *it does not bother me* in item 5 of the questionnaire. She points to the ambiguity of the expression which can be translated to mean any of 'I don't care/I am obliged/it is not a problem/if you say so'. Despite these possible sources of ambiguity, with 33 items to respond to, it should still be possible to get a good overall representation of anxiety from responses from the rest of the items on the questionnaire.

Doubts have been raised about the validity of research findings regarding classroom anxiety that are culled from learner response to questionnaires, journal writing, diary reports, and think-aloud protocols (Horwitz and Young, 1991). Inconsistency may be shown between self-report and behaviour, because of the generic nature of the questionnaire, while classroom interaction differs substantially from one context to the other (Cao and Philp, 2006; MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Conrod, 2001). It was therefore clear that the FLCAS questionnaire could not measure state anxiety that participants may have experienced in the actual observed lessons; rather, in administering FLCAS, the researcher was interested in investigating the overall anxiety levels obtainable in the whole sample. The questionnaire captures a broad range of variables that interact to influence FLA as they relate to the overall L2 learning experience, and also provide a general basis for comparison of participants' anxiety levels in the four institutions studied.

For these reasons, the Japanese version of FLCAS was administered in class during the first observation. The last fifteen minutes of the lesson was used to fill and return the questionnaire. All the responses were collected on the spot from the participants. A total of 142 responses were obtained from 148 issued. Three English version of FLCAS from non-Asian students were eliminated from the study and three were unreturned in Kun University.

4.3.6.2 Interviews

Interview offers insights into how anxiety manifests itself in a particular individual, and thus can help account for individual differences in anxiety scores discovered through questionnaires or surveys. It is interactional and the interviewee's account must be represented accurately because any utterance that is interpreted out of context can jeopardise the research goal (Richards, 2003). Richards suggests that interview should be captured as everyday conversation but the challenges facing the interviewer in terms of both data collection and analysis are great. Yan and Horwitz (2008) argue that research which relies on interviews that encourage reflection has the potential to yield a richer understanding of how FLA functions to influence learning. With interviews, questions constitute the core of the data, it is the responses of the interviewee that guide the interaction rather than the

researcher's and by focusing on events, attitudes and beliefs will emerge from the context (Nunan, 1992; Whyte, 1984 cited in Richards, 2003).

There are benefits in using interview in applied linguistics research. According to Richards (2009), if properly conducted, interviews provide insights into people's experiences, beliefs, perceptions, and motivation in a manner that cannot be achieved with the use of questionnaires. Interviews may not offer the breath of information that questionnaires do, but they provide a depth of understanding about the world lived in by the respondent. In mixed mode research, interview probes and provides the experiences and beliefs that inform the responses obtained from questionnaires. Although it seems the most appropriate tool capable of delving into the inner workings of the respondent's mind, to make comparisons and summarise the results meaningfully (Johnson & Weller, 2002 in Richards, 2003), the same themes need to be covered with all participants.

According to Nunan (1992), interviews can be structured, open or semi-structured. A structured interview seeks specific information that is collected in a way that allows as little variation as possible. In an open or unstructured interview, questions are not predetermined. This type of interview provides a deeper insight into another person's view or understanding of the world but makes it difficult to make valid comparisons across participants.

Semi-structured interview is the most commonly used approach in applied linguistic research. The researcher knows the topics to be explored but allows sufficient flexibility to probe deeply other aspects of the research agenda. In this type of interview therefore, the researcher knows the agenda, and can dictate the direction of the interview; hence the power ratio is in his favour. Nunan (1992) identifies this asymmetrical relationship as a source of bias capable of influencing the language and content of the interview. To reduce this asymmetry during a semi-structured interview, it is important to establish a good relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee right from the outset. The whole exercise is based on a guide that identifies key issues or topics that need to be covered, but the topics and issues rather than a list of questions determine the course of the interview. In addition, there is the

possibility of the interview evolving in unexpected directions capable of opening up important new areas.

In this study, semi-structured interview was used in which issues dictated the tone, and questions served as guide posts. It was possible for the discussion to digress and uncover aspects that were not factored in at conception. Participants had sufficient time to respond to the questions or issues. Each question, while serving as a guide had potential probes or paraphrases to enhance comprehension, raise the participant's awareness, and provide a more global view of the issue. The themes covered in the interview were chosen in order to address the research questions of the study. The first theme was institutional factors; the choice of the university, the facilities available for L2 learning and its impact on L2 learning. The second theme was to do with motivation and personality traits such as introversion and perfectionism. The third theme was the pedagogic factors; teacher personality and instructional strategies of the teacher. The fourth theme concerned social factors inherent in L2 classrooms. The interview commenced with some small talk typical of any social interaction and gradually, the interviewer raised a topic or theme and sought the opinion of the interviewee and encouraged the participant to comment freely.

During the student interviews, the researcher mostly initiated the interaction in English, and used participants' L1 as much as his knowledge of the Japanese language permitted. Some student participants responded in English and used Japanese where there was an L2 vocabulary deficiency. More than half responded wholly in L1. To enhance validity, students were invited randomly for interview without any predetermined criteria, and the interview was conducted at a mutually agreed venue that offered a friendly and relaxed atmosphere; an unused classroom, café or on a bench outside. Participants were asked to speak freely on the topic under discussion and there was enough time for meaningful exchange that would elicit useful data to complement those obtained from the questionnaire. The student interview (Appendix 3; Japanese version, Appendix 4) lasted between thirty and seventy minutes.

The themes in the teacher interview include institutional support, the students, teaching strategies and philosophy as well as other issues that arose from the discussion (See

Appendix 5). These themes were chosen to mirror the student interview in order to find commonalities and discrepancies in both learner and teacher perceptions and beliefs. The teacher interview data should reflect individual perspectives hence biographical variables and belief systems were considered when interpreting the data.

All of the interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed, and translated, and during qualitative analysis, the responses were coded to aid the identification of patterns, relationships, and themes that emerged.

4.3.6.3 Observation

With qualitative research, it is helpful to work with observation and interviewing in tandem. The relationship between the two goes beyond checking interview facts against observation or confirming our intuition with the interviewee's statements (Richards, 2003). Cowie (2009, p 166) defines observation as "the conscious noticing and detailed examination of participants' behavior in a natural setting". It is systematic and purposeful, and not restricted to sitting at the back of a classroom and watching the proceedings of a lesson. Observation demands identifying and pinpointing relevant detail, so as to build a description capable of yielding valuable insights. Observation is not a mechanical process to overcome; rather, it encompasses applying a full range of our perceptual and analytical skills as intensively and extensively as we can in the pursuit of understanding (Richards, 2003). Observation is a skill that involves "the ability to see with acuity, to select, identify and prioritise among a myriad of co-occurring experiences" (Wajnryb1992, p. 1). Having an eye for details is essential, but the desire to focus on a particular theme or issue runs the risk of losing other genuinely interesting details. However, the researcher can participate in addition to observing a particular context. In a classroom setting, this may involve occasionally interacting with students while they are performing a classroom task.

According to Whyte (1984 in Richards, 2003), observation also opens up possibilities to encounter phenomena that are completely unexpected and likely to be more significant to warrant further interest by the researcher. It allows the description of participants' behaviour

from an open, inductive and holistic perspective which allows the researcher to discover aspects of the learning context that has not been described before (Cowie, 2009). Observers also need to separate their own assumptions from what goes on in the classroom because of the risk of making what is observed in a particular way becoming the standard way of seeing things.

Qualitative research is about interpersonal relationships, and the creation and maintenance of good and positive relationship by the researcher with the person to be observed is crucial to the success of the study (Holliday, 2007). Having a stranger in your class observe your teaching can have unsettling effects on the teacher. Even college teachers are not immune to anxiety (Baiocchi-Wagner, 2011), especially if the teacher happens to be a non-native speaker of English (Horwitz, 1996) and is being observed by someone of higher L2 proficiency. Furthermore, Mackey and Gass (2005) posit that, an observer may compromise the quality of the lesson because learners can be easily distracted by the presence of the observer. There is also the Hawthorne effect; whereby productivity increases when observers are present. However, in L2 studies involving repeated observations, the Hawthorne effect may be reduced as both the teacher and students begin to feel more comfortable and natural about being observed.

Unstructured observation is considered a suitable design for qualitative studies because of its flexibility. It can be revised at various stages of the inquiry in line with changes that may occur in the classroom. The researcher might observe one thing in week one and a completely different thing the following week, but a practical approach would be to use the research question as a starting point and focus on participants within a given context. For example, in a study like the present, one can isolate an element such as teacher question and how this provokes anxiety in the students that are being called upon. The observer can note the frequency of occurrence of such incidents and at what stage in the lesson they occur. How the researchers document their observations is key to collecting rich yet flexible data, and this will have consequences for the kinds of data available for later analysis.

The researcher liaised with the teacher to agree on the best mode of entrance into the classroom and the seating location that would ensure minimum disruption and distraction. In three of the schools, I was asked on one or more occasions to join the student-student interaction. This was helpful as it brought me into close proximity with the learners as a participant observer. I made observation notes per chunks of fifteen minutes and audio recorded participants' utterances when they were engaged in oral activities. Overall, I observed each class four times at three/four-weekly intervals, taking notes and audio recording all the lessons except the first ones. Repeated observation, as noted earlier reduces any Hawthorne effect and also allows the researcher to discern patterns in the instructional approaches adopted by the teachers. Data obtained was used to triangulate data obtained from the interviews and the questionnaire.

4.3.6.4 Research diary

The third type of qualitative data gathered for the study is the diary notes taken alongside class observations. I kept a diary which I filled in on my observation days and also made notes whenever a teacher and I exchanged emails or had telephone conversation. This was to help me establish a possible link between our interaction outside the class and what went on in class. I also made post-observation notes on the students' nonverbal communication and a summary of my impression of them in terms of confidence and anxiety.

4.3.6.5 Participant profile

This section provides a general profile of the interviewees across the institutions studied. 60 males and 82 females filled out and returned the questionnaire thus giving a total of 142 participants. The breakdown is as follows: Pok University 18 male, 38 female; Doh University 8 male, 25 female; Dek University13 male, 11 female; Nuk University 20 male, 8 female. Forty percent of the class members in Nuk University are international students, mostly Chinese plus one Polish student, an Indonesian, and a Vietnamese. Dek University had two international students from Russia and Iran, and Doh University had a Chinese student. A few of the participants had experienced home-stay in English-speaking countries for period ranging from one to three months. Three questionnaires from the non-Asian students were excluded from the analysis.

4.3.6.5.1 Student interviewees

For the interview, efforts were made to have a balanced representation of the student body with respect to gender. Except in the postgraduate class where there was only one Japanese female participant, the rest had equal representation. Selection was not based on any particular criterion such as proficiency because at the time of the study, the teachers had no data on the proficiency levels of the students. The researcher intended to use participation as a basis for selection; that is students who were vocal and participating orally in class, the quiet ones that said nothing throughout the lesson, and the ones who would only speak when called upon by the teacher. The researcher randomly chose two vocal students for the first interview, but it turned out that these were both Chinese students. Since the research is focused on Japanese learners, data from these two were discarded. Thereafter, to reduce bias, the researcher approached students (Japanese) before the commencement of the lesson and asked if they would be willing to take part in the interview afterwards. 6 participants were selected from each class giving a total of 24 (14 male and 10 female). Across all four universities, all the students that I approached except two students agreed to participate. Undergraduate participants were aged between 19 and 23 while the postgraduate participants were aged between 24 and 33. They are all Japanese by nationality and a detailed profile of each interviewee will be provided in the next chapter.

4.3.6.5.2 Teacher interviewees

One female interviewee, Nao-Doh (Professor) has twenty five years teaching experience at the university level. She describes herself as a linguist and calls her class Pronunciation Class. She had previously lived and studied in London for three years. The second female interviewee, Jun-Pok (Associate Professor) has twenty years teaching experience at the university level and describes her class as Practical English Class. She studied in the United States for her Master's degree. Both female interviewees are Japanese nationals. One male interviewee, Tim-Nuk (Associate Professor) is an American who has lived in Japan for six year and has taught in the university for the same duration. He teaches the postgraduate Business Negotiation Class which he describes as student-centred. The second male interviewee, Dan-Dek (Associate Professor) is an American who has lived in Japan for

nineteen years and has taught in the university for fifteen years. He describes his class as a Speaking and Comprehension Class. All four participants, aged between 42 and 52, have an MA in Applied Linguistics and one male is currently studying for his doctorate.

4.3.7 Data analysis

The participants were interviewed and audio recorded using a Sanyo ICR-S280RM voice recorder. Interview data were transcribed verbatim in Japanese and translated into English. In order to minimise inconsistencies and discrepancies, both the transcription and translation were proofread by a proficient bilingual Japanese individual.

The questionnaire data was analysed statistically using the software package SPSS 19 to investigate the nature and overall anxiety levels obtaining in the whole sample, and to determine if there are differences in anxiety levels of participants across institutional boundaries. Specifically, a factor analysis with Varimax rotation and univariate ANOVA were used to investigate FLCAS and its subscales and to measure FLA across institutional contexts. With factor analysis, the overall patterns found in correlation coefficients can be determined. The correlation between the observed variables is a consequence of the variables sharing common factors or sources but not because one variable influences the other as it is often the case in correlations. The fewer common factors extracted from the analysis will clearly identify the domains of anxiety exhibited by the participants and univariate analysis will highlight differences between the institutions. This statistical analysis was used primarily to answer RQ1 as well as contributing to answering other RQs.

With the aid of appropriate qualitative data analysis software (QRS NVivo9), interview data was stored and coded to develop categories, themes and areas of interest. In analysing data, Richards (2003) reminds us that the relationship between data and analysis is an intimate but complex one. Much depends on identifying key features and relationships in the data in order to develop effective categories that would eventually answer the research questions. In this case, the analysis was guided by grounded theory which Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 179) define as “developing theory based on, or grounded in, data that have been systematically

gathered and analyzed". With grounded theory, data can be examined from multiple vantage points in order to obtain a holistic picture of the phenomenon under investigation and therefore allows the data to guide the analysis rather than placing preconceived notions on the data.

The interview data was analysed to explain any differences (not captured by the questionnaire) in anxiety levels obtained from the different universities. In this way it contributed to answering RQ1. The interview data was also the main source used to develop answers for RQ2, 3 and 4.

The observation notes was reviewed in line with the themes that emerged from the interview data. The observation notes also corroborated outcomes of quantitative analysis of the questionnaire. The researcher diary entries may explain some observed classroom phenomena as well as proving insight into unexpected dimensions the data analysis assumed.

4.3.8 Ethics, validity and trustworthiness

Permission to commence the study was granted after the researcher had met the ethics requirements of the Research Governance Office of University of Southampton. Risks to both researcher and participants were minimal and duly acknowledged. Before administering the questionnaire, student participants were first given the Participants' Information Sheet (Appendix 6) that explained the purpose of the study and thereafter requested to sign a Consent form (Appendix 7). The participants were given a short description of the procedures and purposes of the research, as well as the potential risks and benefits. The participants' comprehension was ensured by having the information on appendices 6 and 7 translated verbally into Japanese by the teachers in three classes. Translation was not necessary in the postgraduate class. Participation was voluntary and it was reaffirmed that participants could withdraw at any stage from the study. Before commencing the interview, the nature of the research, the purpose of the interview and how the data would be used were explained again to participating student and teacher interviewees. They were assured anonymity and reassured

their responses would in no way influence their course grades. Permission to audio-record the lessons and interviews was sought and obtained.

It is essential to be clear about the validity of any research study and its significance to both the sampled population and the broader relevant population. For this reason, the researcher focused on content validity; representativeness of measurement regarding the phenomenon about which we want information, face validity; familiarity of the instrument, construct validity; "the degree to which the research adequately captures the construct of interest", and external validity; generalisability of the research findings (Mackey & Gass, 2005, pp. 106-119).

Considerations of trustworthiness border on competent practice and ethics. Competent practice seeks to establish the credibility, rigour and potential usefulness of the research (Richards, 2003). This study derives credibility from a data collection process which spanned over a three-month period learning from and learning with the participants. Secondly, obtaining data from multiple sources consistent with triangulation adds to its credibility. The conceptual framework of this study was fully explicated; that is, it was carefully thought out to ensure the data collected will inform the research questions. (However, for logistics reasons, it is devoid of what Rallis and Rossman (2009 p. 266) call "member checking"; that is sharing the analyses "with the participants to see if they agree, argue with or want to add" to your report.)

Providing a detailed account of the approach chosen for this particular study should help readers and users of the findings to adopt and adapt the findings in their local contexts. Finally, the findings will seek to establish *connections* with other FLA studies. This will also enable the readers to connect the researcher's version of reality with theirs.

4.3.9 Methodology limitations

One limitation of this study is the lack of uniformity in the instructional setting. One would ideally aim to study learners in different institutional settings but where teachers use a similar pedagogic approach, but this was not possible because of the various teaching agendas adopted by the teachers studied. The four classes studied were not strictly and wholly speaking-oriented classrooms although there was a fair amount of speaking within each class. This limitation will be offset by the quantitative data from the questionnaire which did not seek to measure state anxiety, that is, anxiety experienced as a result of teaching and learning experience in the observed lesson; rather a broad range of variables interacting to influence FLA. Moreover, studying participants under different instructional approaches should provide a new perspective on how FLA can vary in different pedagogic settings. Notwithstanding, caution would be exercised in reporting the institutional findings.

The second limitation is the non-uniformity in proficiency levels of the participants. The postgraduate students were intermediate to advanced learners, while some undergraduates, especially the first year students, were false beginners. However, one of the postgraduate participants used L1 during the interview, which may indicate that the proficiency gap between them may not be so wide. The inferences drawn from results may be limited by the nature of this particular sample, in terms of their language proficiency, and other specific characteristics. This fact would be taken into consideration when making associations or correlations, and when making generalisations to other contexts.

Finally, while exploratory factor analysis can transform quantitative data into qualitative data, qualitative data obtained from the interview and observation may not be readily converted into quantitative data, thus imposing limits on the extent of triangulation which was possible.

4.4 Summary and conclusion

I have presented the methodology for the study in this chapter. The choice of mixed methodology involving quantitative and qualitative data has also been justified. The research hypotheses giving rise to the research questions have been discussed. Both the research

context and participants have been identified and the role of the researcher specified. The research instruments have been discussed in depth and their limitations pointed out. Quantitative and qualitative data analyses will be done using relevant computer programmes and efforts would be made to ensure the trustworthiness and validity of this study. Finally, the limitations of this study have also been discussed. In the next chapter, the analyses of the different datasets will be presented in turn.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the main results obtained from the fieldwork, organised by data type, and seeks to establish a link between the results and the research questions. First, it will present the results from the questionnaire and the subsequent factor analysis. Next, a detailed account is provided of the observed EFL lessons in four target institutions. Following this will be the analysis of the interviews with both teacher and student participants. The results from the questionnaire and interviews, and from the interviews and observations, will be compared and relationships sought among the themes that emerge from this comparison.

In this chapter, results obtained will be presented sequentially by data type, i.e. quantitative analysis of FLCAS, qualitative analysis of observation notes and interviews. This order of presenting the data may not answer the research questions sequentially, and as such, the following chapter will ensure the synthesis of data of all types to develop full answers to the research questions. This chapter will highlight the participants' FLA experiences as reflected in their perceptions and opinions of English language learning. It will also shed light on the learners' perception of the status of the institution and how this perception impacts their confidence to learn and use English. In addition, it will reveal the role of the teacher, the teaching approach, lesson resources, and the classroom environment and their associations with FLA. Together, the dataset will assist in answering the research questions and subquestions that were presented and justified in chapter 4. These are:

RQ1 - What is the nature and level of FLA obtaining among Japanese students learning English as a foreign language?

RQ2 - What institutional factors influence FLA?

(a) How do these factors influence learners' attitude to learning English?
(b) How do institutional factors affect the availability of speaking factors?

RQ3 - What pedagogical factors influence FLA?

(a) How do these factors influence the learning of speaking skills?

(b) What relationships exist between speaking opportunities and FLA?

(c) How do teacher variables influence speaking skills and consequently FLA?

RQ4 - What social factors influence FLA?

(d) How does classroom atmosphere impact on FLA?

(e) What learner variables influence FLA?

(f) How do interactional features affect speaking skills and FLA?

5.2 FLCAS and the selection of the research participants

As discussed in the previous chapter, FLCAS was the preferred questionnaire because of its acknowledged standing as a valid measure of classroom anxiety and its technical qualities (Frantzen & Magnan, 2005; Horwitz, 1986; Matsuda and Gobel, 2004; Sellers. 2000). The Japanese version (Yashima, 2002) was used to enhance comprehension. In total, 82 female and 60 male participants took part in the survey giving a total of 142 respondents. The results of the survey which would assist to answer RQs 1 and 2 are presented in this section.

5.2.1 Returns

Table 5-1: FLCAS questionnaire returns

	Administered	Returned and complete	% returned and complete
Pok University	56	56	100.0
Doh University	33	33	100.0
Dek University	28	25	89.3
Nuk University	31	28	90.3

Table 1 indicates that the return rate was high at over 95% of the total number of 148 students. The research aimed at investigating FLA among Japanese EFL learners, and for this reason, responses from one Polish student in Nuk University and two Russian and Iranian students in

Dek University were eliminated from the returned questionnaires. However, responses from a few Chinese students in Nuk University were retained owing to cultural similarities between Japanese and Chinese.

5.2.2 Quantitative analysis of FLCAS

The term ‘combined’ will be used to represent total participants and where relevant, the names and results of individual universities will be cited. The questionnaire was analysed for the combined sample and subsequently for individual universities. The result of the combined analysis and that of each university showing the mean ratings of the FLCAS items will be presented. The analysis began with the descriptive statistics. This was followed by computing overall FLA scores and the estimation of degree of anxiety. To partially answer RQ2, one-way ANOVA was run to establish if there were any significant differences among the universities. In addition, to answer RQ1, factor analysis of the questionnaire scores was performed using SPSS 19 to yield more information on the relationships between the items on FLCAS.

To assess how anxiety influences learners’ performance, a FLA score for each participant was computed by summing up the ratings of the 33 items on FLCAS (Liu, 2009; Toth, 2010). Responses were coded as follows: “strongly agree” = 5, “agree” = 4, “neither agree nor disagree” = 3, “disagree” = 2, “strongly disagree” = 1. The scores for items 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28, 32 were reversed to reflect decreasing anxiety (Toth, 2010). For the 33 items, raw scores can therefore range from 33 to 165; the higher the score, the higher the anxiety level reported by that individual.

5.2.3 Results

Table 5-2: FLA Scores of individual institutions

Institution	Pok	Doh	Dek	Nuk	Combined
N	56	33	25	28	142
Total FLA score	5476	3298	2618	2546	13938
Average FLA score	97.79	99.94	104.72	90.93	98.15

Table 5-2 shows the average FLA score and the cumulative total of individual participant's FLA scores which is calculated by adding the scores of the 33 FLCAS items (Toth, 2010).

Table 5-2 indicates that the cumulative average FLA score for total sample population was 98.15. The average FLA scores across institutions varied from 90.93 (Nuk) to 104.72 (Dek). Comparable results from Asian FLA literature include: Goshi (2005) - 123.93, Kim (2009) – 102.6, Mak (2011) – 80.09, Nagahashi (2007) - 107.8, Yashima et al (2009) - 100.95, Liu (2006) – 101. With these scores, the participants in this study appear less anxious.

Table 5-3: Degree of Anxiety by institution

Institution	N	No-Anx (%)	Pos-Anx (%)	Anx (%)	Hi-Anx (%)
Pok	56	4 (7.1)	30 (53.6)	17 (30.4)	5 (8.9)
Doh	33	1 (3.0)	16 (48.5)	15 (45.5)	1 (3.0)
Dek	25	1 (4.0)	7 (28.0)	16 (64.0)	1 (4.0)
Nuk	28	5 (17.9)	15 (53.6)	7 (25.0)	1 (3.6)

Key:

No-Anx: Individuals who scored 33-66 are considered not anxious.

Pos-Anx: Individuals who scored 67-99 are possibly anxious.

Anx: Individuals who scored 100-132 are anxious.

Hi-Anx: Individuals who scored 133-165 are highly anxious.

Table 5-3 shows the level of anxiety and proportion of anxious participants based on their FLA scores. The classes at Dek University and Nuk University have the highest and lowest percentage of anxious students respectively. 69% of the respondents from Dek University and 48% from Doh University are presumed anxious. This is high compared with 22% of anxious participants reported in Toth's (2010) study. Tables 5-2 and 5-3 already contribute to answering RQ1. Table 5-3 compares both in the method of scoring and results with Liu (2006) who obtained scores ranging from 108-144 as signifying moderate anxiety, Toth (2010) reported scores ranging from 100-132 for considerably anxious participants, and Yan and Horwitz's (2008) scores ranged from 104.5-115. Gregersen (2005) obtained figures ranging from 94-111 for high-anxiety participants.

Table 5-4 (Appendix 9) allows us to identify the FLCAS items that account for the highest mean ratings in different institutions and in the combined population. Item 11 has the highest mean rating of all at 3.91. This is closely followed by items 1 and 18 with mean ratings of 3.69 and 3.62 respectively in the combined sample. The table shows that the participants gave high ratings to the FLCAS items associated with speech anxiety. For example, item 1 "I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class" has a high mean rating of 3.69; item 9 "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class - 3.35; item 20 "I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class" - 3.11; and item 27 "I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class" - 2.89. Some items received negative endorsement, such as item 18 - "I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class" - 3.62; and item 14 - "I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers" - 3.45. Further high mean ratings for items associated with peer comparison include "I keep thinking that the other students are better at language than I am" (item 7 = 3.51); and "I always feel that other students speak the foreign language better than I do" (item 23 = 3.45).

While Table 5-4 allows us to identify individual FLCAS items which account for the highest mean ratings both for individual institutions and for the group as a whole, it is also helpful for

answering RQ2 to establish statistically the variability between institutions. The variation across institutions termed between-group variance can be determined by one-way ANOVA. This analysis, set at 95% confidence interval, shows the magnitude of any real differences among the population means for the four institutions. Table 5-5 (Appendix 10) indicates that there are significant differences between the institutions with respect to items 5, 10, 13, 18, 19, 22, 25, 26 and 32. Notable are items 10, 13, 18, and 25 with $p=<.01$ indicating that there are highly significant differences between the institutions for these items. It is significant to note at this stage that both Doh and Dek, teacher training institutions, record the highest mean scores for these. The effect size measured by eta squared (η^2) refers to the effect of replicating the experiment across institutional boundaries. A large effect size signifies greater variability and item 13 has the largest eta squared value of .205. (According to Kinnear and Gray (2010:385), eta squared is the "proportion of the total variability in the scores that is accounted for by variability among the group means".)

5.2.3.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis aims at reducing the data set to more meaningful and interpretable form (DeCoster, 1998). It permits the reduction of a large number of observed variables into constituent components by examining the variance of the synthetic variables underlying the observed variables (Kieffer, 1998). The primary aim of carrying out factor analysis here is to explore the factor structure of the FLCAS items. That is to say, reducing the 33 items on FLCAS to a smaller number of factors that depict certain domains of anxiety will assist in partially answering RQ1. The outcome, in conjunction with the qualitative analysis, could address all four RQs. According to Kinnear and Gray (2010, p. 574), a correlation matrix is usually the starting point for factor analysis and all items "should show at least one correlation of the order of .3 before it is worth proceeding with a full factor analysis". In this study, only item number 24 fails to meet this requirement. Table 5-6 (Appendix 11) shows the correlation matrix of the combined sample.

Table 5-7 (Appendix 12) shows communalities which, for a given variable, are the portion of the total variance that are shared with the remaining variables and accounted for by the

factors extracted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For example, 67% of the variance of the score on item 1 is accounted for by the common factors extracted by the analysis.

Table 5-8a (Appendix 13) shows all the factors extractable from the analysis along with their eigenvalues in the total sample population, the percentage of the variance attributable to each factor, and the cumulative variance of each factor and the previous factors. Eigenvalues denote the amount of variance in the original data set that is reproduced by a given factor and can range from zero to the total number of variables (Kieffer, 1998). According to Kieffer, factor extraction refers to the removal of the common variance that is shared among a set of variables. In other words, "only a certain proportion of the variance for any given variable will be reproduced by the factors" (p.8). The initial number of factors is the same as the number of observable FLCAS items (variables), but a total of 8 factors have been extracted which account for 64% of the total variance. Factors with small variances are unimportant and variables loading highly on such factors are similarly unimportant. Therefore, all remaining 25 factors which account for a third of the total variance are not considered significant because each has an eigenvalue of less than one.

Table 5-8b (Appendix 13b) indicates that the cumulative percentage of variance for these eight factors remain unchanged, when they are both unrotated and rotated. That is, in this eight-factor solution, the total variance after rotation (63.89%) is exactly equal to the total variance accounted for before rotation. This means that no new variance is generated as a result of rotation; rather, the variable variance produced by a given factor is only redistributed in the rotated solution.

Figure 5.1 (Appendix 14) is the scree plot of the total sample population showing eigenvalues plotted against the FLCAS items. It is a graphical representation of Table 5-8a which shows that the amount of variance accounted for by successive factors plunges as successive factors are extracted. Only factors with eigenvalue of 1 or greater are retained (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Of interest is where on the curve flattening begins; the 'scree'. The 'scree' begins to appear between the eighth and ninth factors. Notice in Table 5-8a that Factor 9 has an eigenvalue of less than 1.

According to Kim and Mueller (1978), at this stage in the analysis, it is of lesser significance whether the extracted factors are interpretable or meaningful; rather, the issue is whether the 33 FLCAS variables can be accounted for by a smaller number of factors. By transforming the observed variables (33 FLCAS items) into another set of variables (8 factors), the analysis reduces the dimensionality of the data set from 33 correlated dimensions to 8 uncorrelated dimensions.

Table 5-9 (Appendix 15) shows the component matrix for the total sample population and the loadings of the 33 FLCAS variables on the eight extracted factors. Factor loadings are equivalent to correlations between the factors and the variables (Kim & Mueller, 1978). Loadings greater than .5 in absolute value are considered to be highly significant while those that are less than .5 are suppressed. Loadings greater than .3 are usually considered significant, but for the purpose of this study, only loadings of .5 or larger are used because the higher the absolute value of the loading, the more the variable is a pure measure of the factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Notice that, based on .5 loadings, the first three principal factors explain most of the variation among the variables. At this stage, the first factor which accounts for 32% of the total variation among the variables has a high correlation with 16 FLCAS items (.617-.767). The second and third factors account for 7% and 5% respectively of the total variance. The largest factor such as Factor 1 is often termed the 'size factor' because it serves as an index which best summarises the data (Dunteman, 1989).

5.2.3.2 Varimax Rotation

Having extracted the minimum number of factors that can account for the observed correlations, the next step is to rotate the axis orthogonally, based on the Varimax criterion, to obtain the best structure and a simpler solution that could be interpreted more easily (Kieffer, 1998). Varimax rotation maximises the variance of each factor thus accounting for the redistribution of the total variance over the extracted factors (Kinnear & Gray, 2010; Kline, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Rotation makes larger loadings larger and smaller loadings smaller within each factor and each original variable tends to be correlated with one factor. Rotation does not increase or decrease the total variance in the population; rather, it

facilitates the redistribution of the variance to enhance factor identification. Importantly, the variances highlighted by the eight factors are more proportionate after rotation (Compare Tables 5-10 – Rotated Factor Matrix and 5-11). These factors are assumed to be orthogonal (at right angle) to each other and not contribute to covariation among the variables. Table 5-8b shows that even after rotation, the total cumulative variance accounted for by the extracted factors remains unchanged, and Table 5-10 (Appendix 16) indicates that most of the variables with large loadings tend to be associated with the first three factors.

Table 5-11: Rotated 8-Factor summary at .50 loading

			Factors				
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
Self-confi-dence	**Commu-nication Appre-hension**	**General class-room perform-ance Anxiety**	**Under-standing the teacher**	**Nega-tive Self-evalua-tion**	**L2 Rules**	**Motiva-tional intensity**	**L2 Self-concept**
Unsure when speaking L2 in class (item 1)	Worry about mistakes (item 2)	Tremble when called upon (item 3)	Frighten-ed when teacher is not under-stood (item 4)	Think others are better (item 7)	Worry about con-sequence of failing (item 10)	Is bothered to take more L2 classes (item 5)	Self-conscious about using L2 in front of others (item 24)
Embarr-assed to volunteer in class (item 13)	Panic when unprepared (item 9)	Under pressure to prepare well (item 22)	Upset when teacher correction is not understood (item 15)	Feel others speak better (item 23)	Over-whelmed by L2 rules (item 30)	Distract-ed by other thoughts in L2 class (item 6)	
Nervous to speak with NS (item 14)	Nervous and becomes forgetful (item 12)	More tense and nervous than in other classes (item 26)	Nervous when teacher's every word is not under-stood (item 29)	Not at ease during L2 test (item 8)		Often feels like going to L2 class (item 17)	
Not relaxed and unsure en-route L2 class (item 28)	Anxious even when prepared (item 16)	Nervous and confused when speaking L2 (item 27)					
Not comfort-able around NS (item 32)	Heart pounds when called upon (item 20)	Not relaxed and unsure en-route L2 class (item 28)					
Not	Tremble						

confident to speak in L2 class (item 18)	when called upon (item 3)

Table 5-11 shows variables with loadings of .5 or larger on the eight factors. It attempts to identify the factors by name and shows associations among the variables within each factor.

As a method of data reduction, factor analysis ensures that the extracted factors are further rotated to formulate a better solution. It is usually necessary to continue to rotate the factors until a 'simple structure' (Kieffer, 1998:10) that is more interpretable is obtained. (See Factor Transformation Matrix: Appendix 17). Kieffer suggests that factor transformation redistributes the variance that has been previously explained by the extracted factors. Often, the number of factors to retain in the analysis is left to the discretion of the researcher. According to Hetzel (1996 in Kieffer, 1998), in certain situations, relying on eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and scree test can underestimate or overestimate the number of factors that should be retained. Based on eigenvalues and scree test, 8 factors have been extracted in this analysis which would create a model too complex for the purpose of this study. Considering that FLCAS, as conceptualised by Horwitz et al (1986), measures three dimensions of FLA, it is therefore difficult to interpret the eight-factor solution in its present form. To more easily interpret the results, a three-factor solution rotated to the Varimax criterion capable of explaining a substantial amount of variance in all items is desirable.

Obtaining a three-factor solution should establish if the FLCAS items form clusters that are consistent with previously hypothesised view of FLA. Liu's (2009) study of Chinese EFL learners selected a three-factor and two-factor solution respectively at loadings of >.1, whereas Cheng et al's (1999) study of Taiwanese EFL learners selected a two-factor solution at loadings of >.5. Similarly, at loading of >.5, five factors emerged in Mak's (2011) study of Hong Kong learners, and Yashima et al (2009) also reported a five-factor solution. In the current study, three factors emerged at >.5 loading. Figures 2, 2a, 2b and 2c show the factor plot rotated in space and the reduction of 8 factors into 3 major factors. The rotation spins a new set of domains for the participants in this study and correlations among the 33 FLCAS items can therefore be accounted for in terms of three independent dimensions of anxiety

with each group of items within a factor measuring a separate dimension of anxiety. After rotation, the three factors account for 31% of the total variation with F1 contributing 12%, F2; 10% and F3; 9% accordingly. The outcome of this factor analysis therefore helps in answering RQ1.

Figure 5.2: Factor Plot rotated in space (Combined)

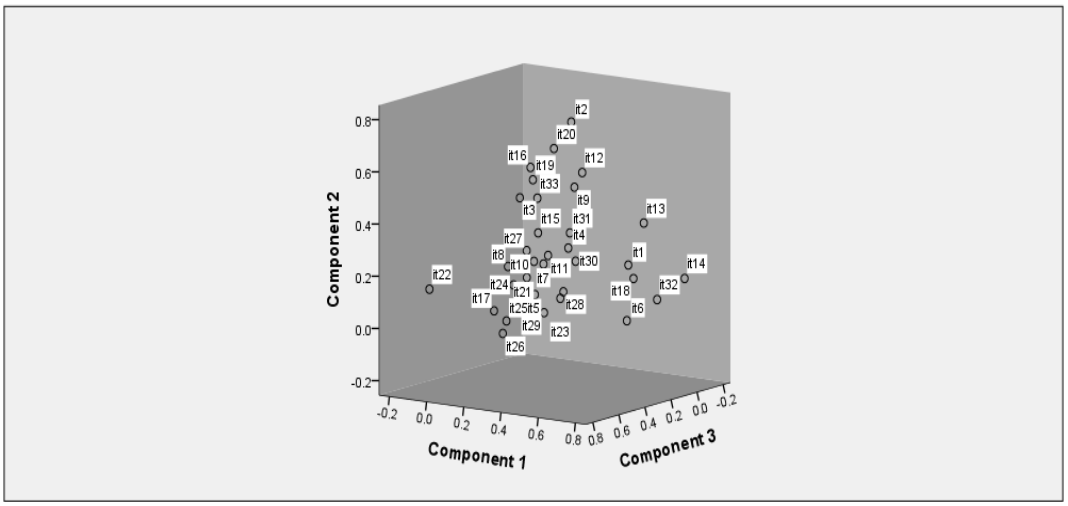


Figure 5.2 is the factor plot which shows the loadings on three factors. This can be interactively rotated in SPSS to see how the items (variables) are organised in the common factor space. Figures 5.2a, 5.2b and 5.2c reveal the association of the variables with the three extracted factors.

Figure 5.2a: Factor 1 values

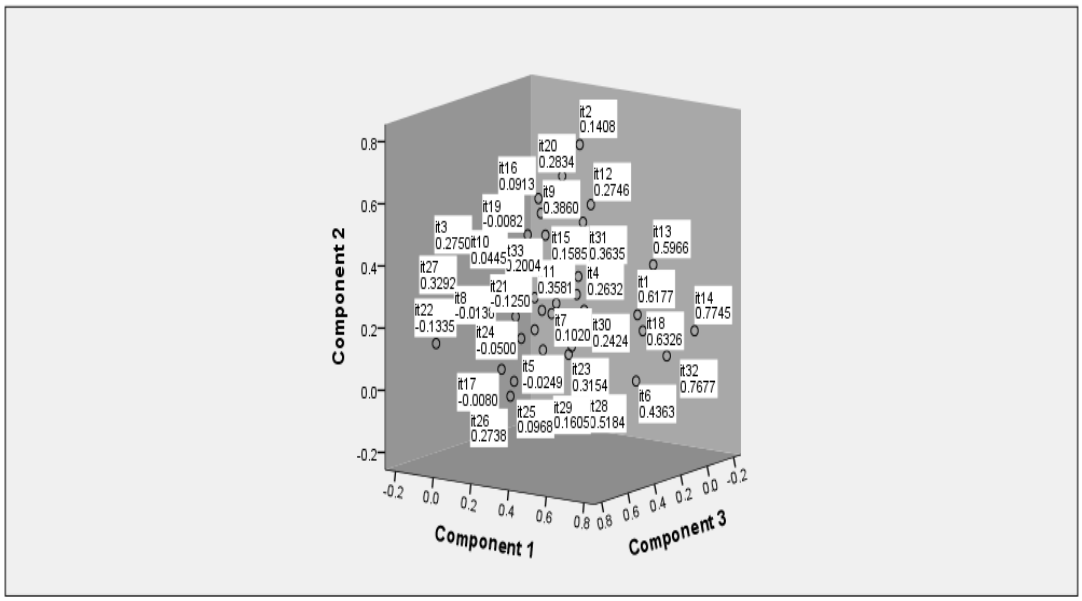


Figure 5.2a shows that FLCAS items 14, 32, 18, 1, 13, and 28 have loadings of .5 or larger on Factor 1. These variables indicate that participants have low self-confidence with speaking English. Participants are nervous to speak with and feel uncomfortable around native speakers (items 14 and 32), are never quite sure of speaking English and lack confidence to do so in class (items 1 and 18), are embarrassed to volunteer answers in English class (item 13), and are unsure and not relaxed on the way to English class (item 28). These are indices of low self-confidence which directly impact FLA in class. Factor 1 is therefore classified as low self-confidence (cf: Cheng et al, 1999; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004).

Figure 5.2b: Factor 2 values

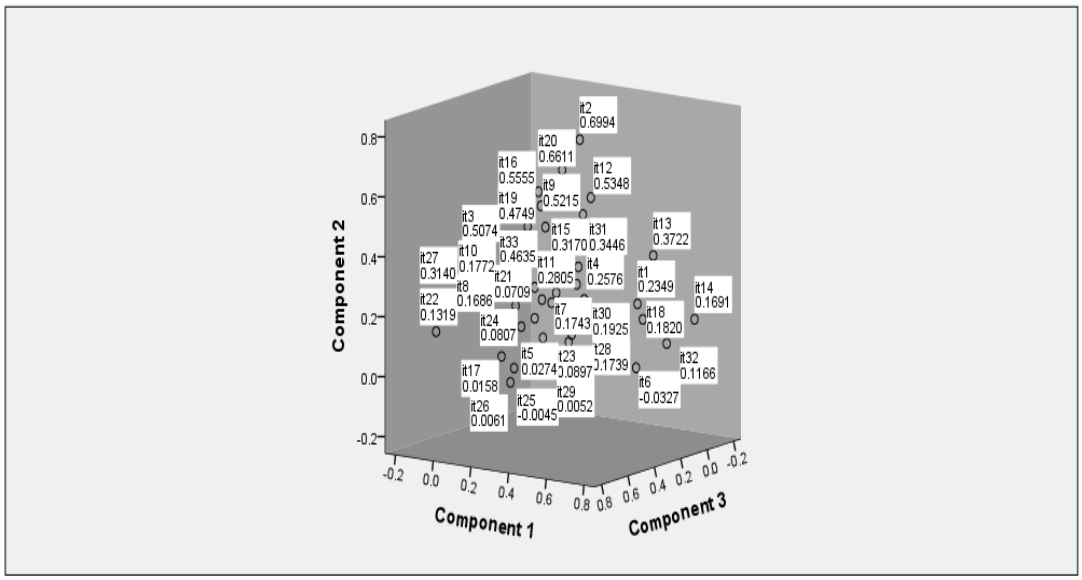


Figure 5.2b shows that FLCAS items 2, 20, 16, 12, 9, and 3 have loadings of .5 or larger on Factor 2. Participants worry about making mistakes (item 2), they panic, tremble and their hearts pound when called upon (items 9, 3 and 20), feel anxious even when well prepared for class (item 16), and get so nervous and become forgetful (item 12). Factor 2 describes communication apprehension (cf: Liu, 2009).

Figure 5.2c: Factor 3 values

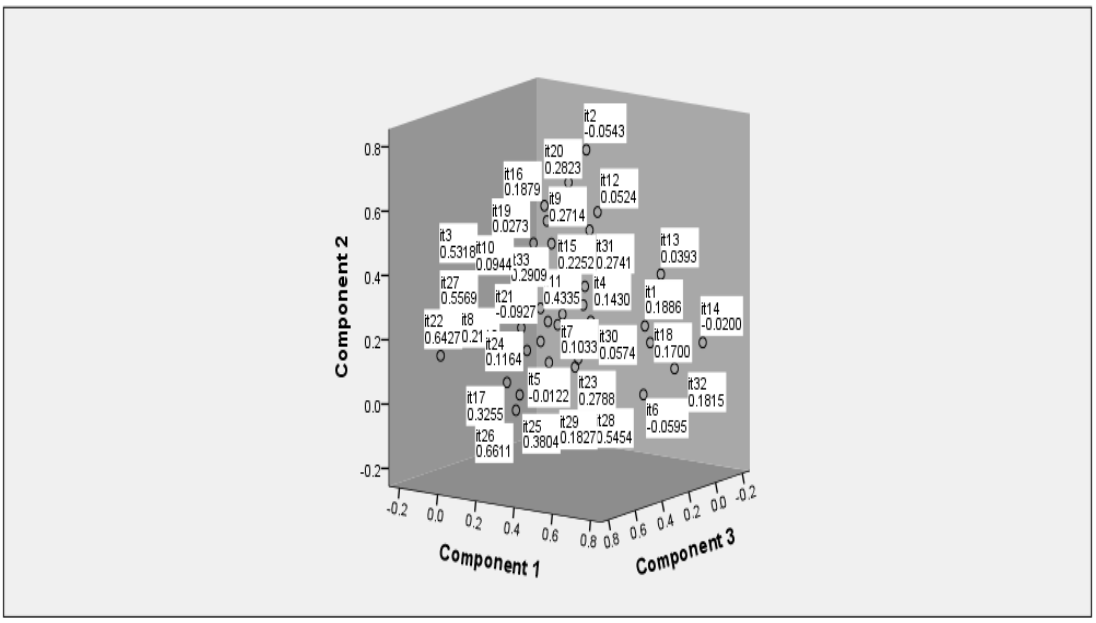


Figure 5.2c shows that FLCAS items 26, 22, 27, 28 and 3 have loadings of .5 or larger on Factor 3. Factor 3 indicates that participants feel more tense in English class than in other classes (item 26), feel pressure to prepare well (item 22), are often nervous and confused when speaking English in class, are never sure and relaxed on the way to English class (item 28), and will tremble when called upon in class (item 3). Whereas items 3 and 27 are directly linked to oral performance anxiety, the rest are associated with preparation for English class and attitude towards English class. Factor 3 is therefore classified as general classroom performance-related anxiety (Cheng et al, 1999; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004).

Table 5-13: Factor Plot loading data

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1	***.61***	.23	.18
2	.14	***.69***	.05
3	.27	***.50***	***.53***
4	.26	.25	.14
5	.02	.02	.01
6	.43	.03	.05
7	.10	.17	.10
8	.01	.16	.21
9	.38	***.52***	.27
10	.04	.17	.09
11	.35	.28	.43
12	.27	***.53***	.05
13	***.59***	.37	.03
14	***.77***	.16	.02
15	.15	.31	.22
16	.09	***.55***	.18
17	.01	.01	.32
18	***.63***	.18	.17
19	.01	.47	.02
20	.28	***.66***	.28
21	.12	.07	.09
22	.13	.13	***.64***
23	.31	.08	.27
24	.05	.08	.11
25	.09	.01	.38
26	.27	.01	***.66***
27	.32	.31	***.55***
28	***.51***	.17	***.54***
29	.16	.01	.18
30	.24	.19	.05
31	.36	.34	.27
32	***.76***	.11	.18
33	.20	.46	.29

Loadings of .5 and above are italicised and in bold

Table 5-14: Factor Plot summary at .50 loading

Factors		
1	**2**	**3**
Self-confidence	**Communication apprehension**	**General classroom performance anxiety**
Nervous speaking with native speakers (item 14)	Worries about mistakes in class (item 2)	Feels more tense and nervous in L2 class than other classes (item 26)
Uncomfortable around native speakers (item 32)	Heart pounds when about to be called on in class (item 20)	Feels pressure to prepare well for class (item 22)
Not confident speaking in class (item 18)	Anxious even if well prepared (item 16)	Nervous and confused when speaking in class (item 27)
Not sure of self when speaking in class (item 1)	So nervous that (s)he forgets known things (item 12)	Unsure and not relaxed on the way to class (item 28)
Embarrassed to volunteer answers in class (item 13)	Panics when asked to speak impromptu in class (item 9)	Trembles when about to be called upon (item 3)
Unsure and not relaxed on the way to class (item 28)	Trembles when about to be called upon (item 3)	

Table 5-13 shows FLCAS items with loadings of .5 and larger, arranged in decreasing order of loading with respect to the underlying factors that were unidentifiable at the start of the analysis. The 33 FLCAS items are now grouped into three categories and the factors that have emerged from these categories are low self-confidence, communication apprehension and general classroom performance-related anxiety. Cheng et al (1999) and Matsuda and Gobel (2004) identified two speaking-related domains namely: low self-confidence and general classroom performance anxiety but Liu (2009) reports all five domains (three of Horwitz et al, 1986 and two of Cheng et al, 1999). Mak (2011) and Yashima et al (2009) both reported relabelled five-factor solutions.

Table 5-13 contributes significantly to answering RQ1 (by describing the structure of FLA experienced by Japanese students). Emerging from this study are three distinct domains; self-

confidence, communication apprehension and general classroom-related performance anxiety which are quite distinct from the classic FLA domains; fear of negative evaluation (FNE), communication apprehension (CA) and test anxiety (TA) conceptualised by Horwitz et al (1986). Any link to other RQs at this stage is more speculative, but will be discussed further in Chapter 6 together with findings from the qualitative analysis

5.3 Observation of EFL lessons

In total, four lesson observations were carried out in each of the four institutions studied. The researcher sat through ninety minutes of class on each occasion totalling twenty four hours, and took extensive field notes throughout. Descriptive accounts of the observed lessons, based on the researcher's field notes, are provided in following subsections, and will assist in answering RQs 3 and 4. The observations will corroborate questionnaire and interview data to shed light on the pedagogic and classroom social factors that influence FLA.

5.3.1 Pok University

Classroom atmosphere/facilities

There were 56 students attending the observed lessons at Pok; 18 male and 38 female students. The desks were in rows and columns and fixed to the floor. Friends could be seen sitting together and chatting in L1. The teacher, Jun-Pok, shuffled the seating plan on a regular basis. The approach was teacher-fronted and the teacher usually gave a short written quiz lasting three minutes before commencing the day's teaching. The dress code and perceived friendliness of the teacher may influence teacher-learner relationship and their willingness to engage the teacher in L2 because a friendly look can create a relaxed classroom atmosphere and less anxious learners. However, Jun-Pok was dressed in smart skirt suit; very formal and did not smile throughout the lesson on all four occasions.

Pok-obs-1

During the first observation (Pok-obs-1), Jun-Pok issued a handout with vocabulary items in L2 which were translated into L1. The numbering of the items on the worksheet was also

read in L1. The L2 heard so far consisted of the vocabulary items on the worksheet. A form-focused speaking task was introduced where the grammar point was past participle: *have you ever*… students were given a worksheet with 16-grid phrases to practise. The task lasted fifteen minutes during which students moved around the class asking their peers questions read from the worksheet and eliciting responses. The objective was to fill the grid with positive responses. The researcher walked around capturing sample utterances. The students seemed happy each time they elicited a positive response from their mates. This activity was followed by the teacher walking around the classroom asking some students "have you ever been abroad/played the violin/bought a car?" and students offered a yes or no response. These exchanges were the aspect that could be considered a natural conversation but such monosyllabic responses can hardly promote the development of speaking skill among the learners.

The teacher then introduced another topic "at a gas station" from chapter 12 of the textbook. She played a CD to demonstrate how to give directions from the gas station to the post office. During a choral drill, the teacher's voice was the most audible. The teacher walked round asking students questions and getting responses in L1. She also used L1 to check comprehension. Dyads were appointed to practise asking for and giving directions. This was done in L2 but by reading from the textbook. Following this was another activity in which one student read sentences in L2 and the partner translated these into Japanese. Both activities lasted about fifteen minutes. It was noticeable that the students were uncomfortable while translating into L1 because their voices were barely audible. Perhaps they were anxious and the uncertainty of their translation affected their confidence to speak in a loud voice. Overall, around ninety percent of the lesson was conducted in L1 and some students could be seen doing mathematics homework while a few others were chatting away in L1 oblivious of the lesson. The last fifteen minutes were used to administer the research questionnaire.

Pok-obs-2

During the second observation (Pok-obs-2), the focus was again on past participle 'have you ever…' but the dialogue included further questions such a 'how many times…', 'where…' and 'when…' The session lasted fifteen minutes and the researcher captured sample

utterances from the students. Subsequently, a new topic “buying concert tickets” was introduced and the teacher played a CD to illustrate how to order concert tickets. Students listened and double checked with the dialogue in the textbook. This was repeated and students listened and focused on the text. While unfamiliar dyad partners sat quietly and awaited further instructions, the familiar ones resorted to chatting in L1. The atmosphere seemed relaxed. Teacher played the CD again while the students listened and later provided choral responses. The researcher noticed that the students’ response to the second question was not as confident as their response to the first question, and they seemed to be experiencing difficulties with pronouncing 30^{th} and 13^{th}. Teacher stressed the syllables for both 13^{th} and 30^{th} and the subsequent question was answered well by the students. A substitution drill and a listening task followed. The researcher noticed that not all the students took part and two were in fact sleeping during the drill. Another pair continued to chat away and showed little interest in the class activity.

Following this, a new dialogue on how to make a phone call was introduced. After listening to the CD version (in American English), students formed pairs and practised the dialogue. The teacher appointed a pair to role-play to the whole class. Jun-Pok paired up with a student who had no partner and as such could not monitor how the rest of the class was performing. One sentence structure was complex (deposit a quarter to get the operator and that will come back) and students could not answer the related question because they understood this to mean that the call costs a quarter.

Pok-obs-3

During the third observation (Pok-obs-3), the teacher issued a form-focused worksheet and read sentences in L1 and students offered L2 translation. The grammar point was ‘can you’, ‘have you’, ‘were you’, ‘do you’, and ‘when did you’. Jun-Pok used the class register to select respondents starting from the front row to the back. She repeated the translation for reinforcement. A small minority of the responses were audible enough to be heard from all corners of the class (5/25). The teacher asked students to stand up and practise the activity on the worksheet. This speaking task, which lasted fifteen minutes, involved asking other students if they have ever done this or that. The researcher was invited to join in, and he

captured sample utterances with his voice recorder. The researcher asked a student if she had ever been on TV and received this response "when I was high school student, I belong to club… cooking club, club member cooking on TV". The teacher checked with the class to see who was able to ask all 25 questions during the interaction. She handed prizes (colour pens) to the three best performers. Assessment was based on the speed of completing the worksheet but not necessarily eliciting natural conversation. This meant that students had to move to the item as soon as an affirmative response was obtained without the need to prolong the conversation. This procedure lacks any intrinsic reward necessary to develop L2 speaking skill for natural communication (RQ3a).

The teacher then introduced a new topic from the textbook and used L2 for three minutes. This was a reading activity on making a trunk call. A student nominee read in L2 and translated into L1. Jun used L1 to explain the meaning of the passage, and asked students to provide L1 translations of phrases. Students listened to a dialogue on a CD player (American English) on how to send a registered post to a friend. Overall, most of the lesson was conducted in L1 and the only L2 input was in standard American English which raises the barrier between the learners' potential output and the reference L2 (See Section 2.4.2); learners may become anxious if their L2 output is nowhere near the standard version produced by the CD (RQ3a). Next, there was a Q & A session in which students practised in dyads by reading the text in L2 and then dialogue in L1. One pair stood up to read for the whole class to hear. This was followed by a substitution drill and students repeated after the CD (may I, how much, and how long). The class ended with more Q&A from the teacher. Although the lesson had a speaking component, this was mainly reading from the textbook. The initial task which provided the only opportunity for natural communication lasted fifteen minutes.

Pok-obs-4

The last observation (Pok-obs-4) happened to be the last class of the semester and was noisier. Jun-Pok announced the seating plan and the class quietened down slowly as students took their seats. She said something funny in L1 and students laughed. The teacher also wrote six sentences on the board and asked students to speculate on what they would do if the

sentences applied to them. Examples were “if you won a million yen, what would you do? If you were a man/woman, would you be happier? If you could go to the moon, would you like to go? And why?” Students practised all six expressions in pairs and one boy was noticeably speaking in L2 with confidence and at length. The teacher asked nominated students and obtained responses some of which were barely audible. Interestingly, all the audible responses about winning millions indicated that the students would like to go and live in European or American cities thus suggesting an international posture on the part of the students.

The teacher introduced another activity from the textbook and nominated students to read and translate the sentences into L1. One student got the sequence wrong which attracted laughter from those sitting around her. Next, the teacher introduced a substitution drill using a tape recorder and students chorally repeated after the machine. Some students did not take part in this as they were busy doing the previous homework and there were two sleeping in class. During the chorus, the teacher’s voice was the most audible. Subsequently, dyads performed an activity in the textbook and the teacher walked around observing and listening, but only a third of the class was actively taking part in this. Teacher then nominated a pair to do role play facing the class. They did this while reading from their textbook. Subsequently, all students performed the same task in pairs, and reading from the textbook. The dyad in front of the researcher was busy chatting in low tones using L1 and only got involved when asked by the teacher. Teacher read from the textbook and called on individual students by name to complete the dialogue. While dyads who did not know each other sat patiently awaiting teacher instruction, familiar dyads partners resorted to L1. With so much L1 in the lesson, and without seeing the textbook nor hearing what the students were saying, it was difficult to know what the grammar point was or the story line in the dialogue.

The classroom in Pok has desks affixed to the floor which does not permit group formation. At best, the students can only work in dyads whereas, if there were movable desks and chairs, it would be possible to have groups that allow for greater collaboration. This seating facility is one institutional factor affecting the availability of speaking opportunities. The translation approach observed in Pok does not offer many L2 speaking opportunities to the learners because the lessons were designed to teach grammar and vocabulary with little or no natural

L2 communication. The evidence from Pok addresses RQ3 which will be fully answered with data from other sources.

5.3.2 Doh University

Classroom atmosphere/facilities: There were 39 students attending the observed lesson at Doh, comprising 11 males and 28 females. The seats were movable. Nao-Doh dressed casually in jeans, sweat shirt, and trainers. The lesson was teacher-fronted, but occasionally, she moved around to assess group performance. A Hawthorne effect was noticed on all occasions and in every group. This means that whenever the teacher approached a group, their performance increased, but as soon as she moved away, the performance and enthusiasm dropped.

Doh-obs-1

The lesson (Doh-obs-1) began with the teacher asking if the students have seen "The Sound of Music" and half the class indicated affirmatively. She spent ten minutes selecting the scene from a video recording, and the students sat patiently and in silence. From then on, students watched the clip where the actress is teaching "do re mi" to the children. Nao-Doh handed out a worksheet for students to match notes to muted scenes in the movie. The students spent five minutes doing this silently and individually. For the first forty minutes the teacher used L1 only. She used the worksheet to teach ellipsis and assimilation. Drills and choral practice followed. Students repeated after the teacher the lines on the worksheet:

> "The hills are alive with the sound of music. With songs they have sung for a thousand years. The hills fill my heart with the sound of music. My heart wants to sing every song it hears"

Directives were issued in L1 and the number of students responding to the drill gradually decreased because it became monotonous. Teacher used the class register to allocate students to groups of six. The video was used to drill the students on the phrases and sentences on the worksheet. The researcher was asked to join the groups and participate in the pronunciation activity. The researcher went from group to group and assisted students to pronounce certain words. The researcher was able to join three groups in total. This exercise lasted twenty minutes. There was no natural communication in the target language between the students

and the teacher or among the students. Before the lesson commenced, while the students were waiting for the teacher to get the key to the classroom, some students interacted with me, from which Aga-Doh and Nai-Doh were selected for the interview. The last fifteen minutes were used to administer the research questionnaire.

Doh-obs-2

During the second observation (Doh-obs-2), Nao-Doh dressed smart-casually in trousers and a fleece, which were well colour-coordinated. She read out names and put students into groups of six or seven and of mixed gender before distributing the handout. The teacher explained the lesson objective; pronunciation using chant and issued instructions in L1 while the students scanned their song sheets. This was a song by The Carpenters; Last Christmas. The teacher illustrated ellipsis and assimilation in L1 and L2. This was followed by a drill with students highlighting points of interest on the song sheet. One boy in group 6 to my right was chatting loudly. He was an interviewee (Epu) and the only one who used English during the interview. Thus far, the teacher remained in front of the class on the podium. Students continued with the drill but responses were neither clear nor audible enough for the researcher to ascertain if the ellipsis and assimilation were mastered. Perhaps the students were not confident about their utterances. The groups listened to the song on CD and cross-checked the lyrics with what they had on their song sheets. Meanwhile, group 6 was busy chatting away in L1.

The teacher told the students to practise reading the lyrics and she moved from group to group listening to them as they read the sentence out. Group 7 initiated singing. The teacher circulated and made the groups to repeat “few” and “favourite” telling them how to shape their mouths for the f-sound. Each group sang for the teacher and continued singing after the teacher had moved to another group. The atmosphere was good in groups 3, 4, and 6. The atmosphere was formal in group 1, and the atmosphere in groups 2 and 5 could be described as fair. Groups 1, 3 and 6 are mixed gender. The teacher played the keyboard and students sang along. They were then given five minutes to memorise the song. The atmosphere improved in group 2 as they practised and were palming (high five) each other. Group 6 continued to chat away in L1 and were very relaxed. Group 1 remained formal without any

laughter and seemed to be unfamiliar classmates. Group 4 (all girls) was the most relaxed group. The group that sang the best was group 6 that had showed little interest in the class proceedings. This was a confident group and the researcher recorded them at close range. Group 3 stood up to sing for the class, followed by group 6 in which the girls did the singing and the boys muttered along. Conversely, the three boys in Group 2 were very vocal compared to the two girls. Familiarity of group members and mixed gender grouping seem to influence performance in groups 2 and 6. Group 4 subsequently showed the greatest confidence and at this stage was the best. Overall, this lesson provided evidence for ways in which social relations can affect anxiety and performance, and was thus particularly relevant to RQ4.

Doh-obs-3

During the third observation, the teacher dressed semi-formally and smartly. Students went into their known groups of six or seven. The group leaders went to the front to collect song sheets for "Last Christmas". Nao played the song on a CD player and the students listened before reading along from their song sheets. The teacher then read the lines in L2 and a female student translated into L1. The translating student could not translate the phrase "gave it away" and all the students were asked to look up in their electronic dictionaries for the meaning. Nao played the keyboard and students sang along. She then translated the second stanza of the song. Students read and practised singing within groups and three groups noticeably sang loud enough for all to hear. All the groups sang along with the CD player. Three of the groups were very lively, one group gave an average performance but two barely moved their lips. Teacher offered some explanation in L1 which attracted laughter.

Doh-obs-4

During the fourth observation (Doh-obs-4), Nao-Doh dressed in a smart casual fashion; colourful sweater and trousers. She played another track from the Carpenters' CD while students listened and read their song sheets. The groups then sang the song Last Christmas and the researcher went from group to group capturing their singing. It appeared the students were supposed to memorise the songs. The teacher moved from group to group listening to them as they sang. Two groups in front were very silent and may be unfamiliar classmates.

The group dynamics in the three groups were not great except for the girls-only group in front. It was also noticeable that students performed best when the teacher was with the group (Hawthorne effect). As soon as the teacher moved to the next group, they tended to sing with less enthusiasm. She provided feedback to each group before moving to the next one thus suggesting they were performing for grades and the teacher was assessing memory recall. The researcher noticed an improved relationship in one group as a boy was making determined effort to talk to the girls. The group nearest to me had an excellent relationship, and all seemed happy and relaxed with each other. As the lesson progressed, the atmosphere in every group got better and one group moved to the back of the classroom to practise, one stood up to sing and all seemed to be enjoying themselves. The groups in front got better, one stood up and another began to dance as they sang. This was the group that had lacked chemistry at the start of the class. Each group was now trying to outdo the other in terms of entertainment. Great fun all round.

It seems that no syllabus was associated with this course because it was centred on a single song by The Carpenters and the students were expected to memorise the lyrics and reproduce same at the end of the semester. The theme was appropriate as it was near Christmas. However, it was noticeable in the pitch that while the students were comfortable with recalling the chorus, they could not reproduce other stanzas with similar ease. Although the lesson focused on pronunciation, the scope was rather narrow and limited vocabulary was covered over the observation period. Basically, the teaching was examination oriented and the students were only interested in the grades they could expect for successful performance, and not in L2 speaking. Moreover, there was no opportunity for natural communication in L2. The lessons seen had a high entertainment value, but with little or no spontaneous L2 speaking.

5.3.3 Dek University

There were 28 students in the observed class at Dek, comprising 13 males and 15 females. The teacher Dan-Dek dressed in a jacket with shoes in what could be described as smart casual style. Before rearranging the class, it was not unusual to have same gender dyads. There were single tables and chairs that could be moved readily.

Dek-obs-1

On the first observation, the teacher administered a written quiz, provided feedback, and asked more questions and students volunteered answers. Where there were no volunteers, he provided the answer. The classroom atmosphere seemed relaxed with no visible signs of tension. Teacher talk involved the use of advanced level vocabulary such as 'responsive', 'essence', 'exasperating', 'incidental', and 'frustrated'. The students presumably needed to understand the meaning of these words to understand the story but on the basis of their proficiency level, they were rather advanced. The teacher dictated some sentences and students took down notes. Finally, the teacher gave a listening homework to students with some explanation. During this phase, I noticed that the girls who were sitting with boys were interacting cheerfully in L1. Teacher continued reading from the text while students took notes. The teacher then gave the students three minutes to interact with each other to clear up any misunderstanding in the homework. This was mostly in L1 except in the two dyads with Russian and Iranian students. There was no interaction in one particular dyad as both students sat quietly. The general classroom atmosphere was very good. Teacher used L1 to reinforce some points. Dan-Dek regrouped the students by numbering 1-14 twice. Students with identical numbers got together to form a dyad, and sat opposite each other to perform the speaking task. There was meaningful use of L2 here and the interaction was high. It was not clear what the topic was because the teacher was reading from an extract from what appeared to be a novel or biography. It was perhaps a continuation of the previous lesson. The speaking task lasted about ten minutes but the students had the worksheet in front of them and were reading from it before speaking. The lesson was mainly fostering reading skill with limited speaking opportunity. The last fifteen minutes were used to administer the research questionnaire.

Dek-obs-2

During the second observation (Dek-obs-2), the seating plan was circular and the lesson began with students forming dyads and having a "small talk" on how they spent their weekend. It was a lively ten minutes of effective and functional use of L2. The teacher observed this interaction with a smile and a sense of satisfaction. Next, the teacher read the answers to the previous homework and students cross-checked with their partners. There was much L1 in use among students at this stage. The rest of the lesson was devoted to reading

aloud, and the teacher distributed reading opportunities equally between male and female students. The story was about a young boy who wants to drop out of high school but his father was encouraging him to stay on by emphasising the advantages of having a good education. Finally, the teacher used L1 for comprehension checking of the assigned homework. This was another lesson dominated by reading. However, judging by the mood of the class in the first ten minutes, this short speaking session could have been extended to thirty or more minutes, and both the teacher and students would have remained engaged and benefitted.

Dek-obs-3

During the third observation (Dek-obs-3), the seating plan was a square with a row in the middle and Dan-Dek was dressed formally in suit and tie. He explained a dialogue to the students and stressed that it would be the main theme for the semester. He read the first sentence and the students provided choral responses. Both the teacher and students took it in turns to read. Students did a role play following the worksheet and Dan-Dek paired up with a student who had no partner. This lasted fifteen minutes. Teacher issued a fresh worksheet with instructions in L1. This was a writing task which the dyads discussed in L1 before answering the questions that followed. The task was for the students to write "what frustrates them most". Students then sat opposite each other to practise speaking what they had written. This was a speaking and listening task which lasted another fifteen minutes, but the students were reading from their worksheet. They all seemed relaxed about the task and there was no obvious sign of anxiety during the interaction. The teacher gave the students another opportunity to reflect on the task, and to reverse the role play. The students then moved around to locate new partners. This time, many of them walked around without the worksheet and spoke naturally. There were smiles and laughter as students appeared to be enjoying the activity. They all looked comfortable on completing the task and most of them reverted to L1. It was obvious from the expression on their faces that the students derived much satisfaction when given an opportunity to use L2 naturally as with the last activity. Finally, there was a vocabulary task and students used their electronic dictionaries to check the meaning of new words in the worksheet.

Dek-obs-4

During the fourth observation (Dek-obs-4), there was a teacher-fronted seating plan and students sat in a square pattern with two rows within. Dan-Dek issued a hand-out and asked the dyads partners to read aloud to each other as reporters (news reading). Students did this facing each other and reading from the hand-out. The students were very relaxed as they seemed to enjoy the activity. There was much laughter. On completion of the task, most students reverted to L1. This was followed by a reading task and subsequently by an 'empathic listening' task. In pairs, students tried to tell original stories while the partner does empathic listening. The teacher moved around and sat from a convenient distance from each dyad as he listened to how they recounted their stories. The researcher observed some dyads busily chatting naturally in what could be termed empathic listening and recorded some students. The listening task which lasted fifteen minutes provided the students another opportunity to use L2 naturally. However, Dan-Dek was balancing the various L2 skills in the lesson by allocating periods to the four L2 skills. There was no indication of anxiety, at least in the whole class setting because most times, the students were not required to speak to the whole class. Overall, this lesson provided useful evidence relevant for both RQ3 and (partially) RQ4.

5.3.4 Nuk University

There were 31 students in the class observed at Nuk, comprising 21 males and 10 females. The seats were very comfortable and movable. The seating plan was a horse-shoe arrangement and the teacher, Tim-Nuk, dressed differently in different days.

Nuk-obs-1

During the first observation (Nuk-obs-1), Tim-Nuk wore a long-sleeved shirt with tie and sandals. Without any formal greetings, he distributed a feedback worksheet to the students and recapped the previous lesson. This was followed by a Q&A activity, and the students responded to teacher questions positively. The lesson was teacher-fronted for the first five minutes and Tim-Nuk then moved around the class. Students moved into groups of 4 to discuss the task; a Business Negotiation role play involving mergers and acquisitions, and this lasted ten minutes. Some students seemed relaxed and group atmosphere was generally

good. Two groups in particular did not gel as members remained stiff and spoke sparingly. These are students of different nationalities. In one of the quiet groups; when two members went to use the toilet, the remaining two members started talking animatedly, but as soon as their classmates returned from the toilet, they were silent again. In some groups, some members sat on the floor, and others pulled away from the desk to implement the task, indicating a certain level of comfort with the task and group members. Only one third of the class continued to use the desk.

In the second phase of the task (merger and acquisition), the teacher moved from group to group taking sample utterances with the voice recorder. Out of the eight groups, there was little interaction in one group, one including a Polish student member was very efficient, one used Japanese L1, one group looked pensive, the rest were very relaxed with lots of interaction in L2 and laughter. At the end of the task phase, there was a Q&A session and volunteers from six groups responded to teacher questions confidently except the two uncomfortable groups mentioned earlier. Teacher talk continued with less input from the students. Altogether, this session lasted twenty five minutes. Tim-Nuk then continued to move from group to group to monitor group performance. He elicited huge laughter in one of the groups which may be indicative of his sense of humour. Five minutes later, the teacher brought the task to an end. He reviewed the task by asking questions and students volunteered positive responses.

Students were given ten minutes to prepare for the third phase of the task during which two groups were merged into one thus giving a total of four groups. During this period, the atmosphere in four groups was very friendly, formal in two and tense in two without interpersonal communication. The relaxed nature of some groups rubbed off on the tense and formal groups, resulting in improved atmosphere in all four groups. However, the most mature students (one male and one female) remained very quiet. This was the class where the teacher had warned me that this style would be teacher-centred. However, there was sufficient interaction not to tag it teacher-centred. The last fifteen minutes were used to administer the research questionnaire.

Nuk-obs-2

During the second observation (Nuk-obs-2), Tim wore sandals with socks and a sweatshirt. The teacher attempted to show a video clip from You Tube. He ran into technical difficulties but a student connected his laptop to the network and showed a speech from You Tube. Tim-Nuk assigned a topic and students got into groups to discuss it. This particular task required two groups of students representing two companies to engage in a business negotiation. Most of the discussion and classroom language was in L2 but researcher noticed that in two groups, students used L1. In one of these groups, there were three Japanese students using L1 but the foreign students used L2. The researcher also noticed that a group of two Chinese students used L1 during the task. Teacher went round and offered support. In one group where L1 was used for intra-group discussion, one member fed back to the larger group in L2. The task lasted forty five minutes and student utterances were captured with the voice recorder. The teacher screened a different video clip from Google and asked students to write down three key points of negotiation. One volunteer from each group read out the group response, and finally, he wrapped up the lesson by highlighting key points. There was considerable L2 usage and the teacher provided ample opportunity for students to speak in the target language.

Nuk-obs-3

During the third observation (Nuk-obs-3), Tim dressed in a formal suit and a tie, with smart shoes. There was a visiting Professor from Hong Kong in class today. The students sat in rows and columns. Tim took off his outer coat revealing a smart inner second piece. He asked volunteers to read from the handout and gave some mathematical examples to illustrate ‘negotiation’. He issued a new hand-out, one each for a pair of students and offered an explanation of the role play task. In pairs, students began negotiation cheerfully. Researcher could hear L1 in a couple of dyads. The teacher asked each dyad to repeat their negotiation task to the hearing of the whole class. This was capable of causing anxiety, but the volunteers spoke without any hint of anxiety. Thereafter, students swapped partners to begin a fresh wave of negotiation. The class became noisier, more animated and funnier. The teacher asked for more volunteers to tell the class how they brokered the negotiation. This lasted fifteen minutes.

The next task phase lasted thirty five minutes. Students went into their 'known' teams and a representative from each team led the negotiation. With four teams in total; two in front and two at the rear of the classroom, the discussion became loud and noisy. They all exuded confidence, though the Chinese students were more confident than the Japanese students. Impressive utterances could be heard from the group in the rear of the class. There was a lot of humour as students appeared relaxed and laughing. However, the group in the middle of the class was less audible and less humorous. There were three Japanese students in this group and they were less animated compared to the Chinese students. It was also noticeable that when responding to teacher questions, the Chinese students were more vocal and clear in their responses whereas the Japanese students were less audible; an indication of the level of confidence exhibited by participants of both nationalities. There were opportunities for all participants in each group to make contributions. The teacher moved from group to group listening to their negotiation. During the third and final phase, Tim-Nuk issued further guidance on future negotiation tasks. New teams were formed using the attendance register as a guide. The new teams began the negotiation task until the end of the class. Finally, the teacher told them what to expect when they return in the New Year.

Nuk-obs-4

During the fourth observation (Nuk-obs-4), the seating plan was a conference style with a table in the middle for the negotiating teams. It was a buy-out negotiation task between two teams. This lasted one hour and the rest of the class listened. One team had two females while the other had four males and one female.

The negotiating teams left the room for twenty minutes while the teacher sought the opinions of the class on the performance of both teams. The two teams returned to engage each other in the buy-out negotiation. There was good use of L2, the teacher worked on his laptop and the rest of the class listened to the teams. Teacher recapped the negotiation strategies that students will need in their subsequent class tasks. He also pointed out the strengths and weaknesses of the teams that had just finished presenting. Tim asked the two groups to reflect on their performance and email their thoughts to him. Finally, he allocated the task to the two

teams that would perform the following week and sought questions from students on issues that they did not understand.

Overall, the teacher provided opportunities for L2 use and the students utilised them appropriately. It was noticeable that the Japanese students were quieter in group settings except when the group composition was all Japanese. There was also little interaction between the Japanese students and other international students (from Poland, Vietnam, Indonesia and China). There was interaction among the international students. It is difficult to conclude from observation data if the reticence exhibited by the Japanese students is linked to L2 proficiency or self-confidence or some other factors. The differences in approach to speaking and in peer relations between the Japanese and international students are relevant to answering RQ3 and especially RQ4. The interview data will shed further light on this and may provide qualitative evidence in support of RQ1.

5.4 Interviews

5.4.1 Introduction

This section presents data arising from interviews conducted with 28 participants; 24 students and 4 teachers. Interview provides privileged access to participant's life and experiences (Nunan, 1992; Richards, 2003, 2009) and offers access to individual perspective on how anxiety manifests itself in the classroom. For this study therefore, the interview data is highly relevant to all of the research questions. First, this section will explain the interview analysis procedures, it will then present the interview results in accordance with the coding categories that were derived from the research questions, and finally, it will establish patterns that emerge from the analysis.

5.4.2 Interview analysis

The interview were conducted with both student and teacher participants to obtain information that could help explain the nature of anxiety experienced by the participants, and

in particular how institutional, pedagogical and social factors influence foreign language classroom anxiety. The interview data contributes to answering RQ1 by corroborating the dimensions of FLA obtained from the administration of FLCAS. For RQ2, it will provide information on how the overall choice and status of a given university impacts on learners' confidence and consequently foreign language anxiety (FLA). In addition, respondents shed further light on how particular institutional characteristics such as the extent of extracurricular speaking opportunities, technological resources, internationalisation, and the availability of a network of interlocutors contribute to FLA. For RQ3, the interview data and observation notes shed light on how pedagogical approaches influence FLA in the classroom. For RQ4, it offers a deeper interpretation of the interpersonal relationship between the teacher and students, peer-to-peer interaction and the social atmosphere of the classroom, and how these affect FLA.

The total length of the recordings was 19 hours and 13 minutes giving an average interview length of 41 minutes, but individual interviews ranged from 20 to 74 minutes. Responses to the pre-determined questions constituted the core of the data, from which themes emerged. However, the interviewing strategy offered the flexibility for respondents to digress or diverge from the core topic if and when necessary. The student interviews commenced in the first month of fieldwork but the teacher interviews were conducted in the last month after all the students had been interviewed. See Appendices 3 and 5 for sample student and teacher interviews respectively. Appendix 4 is the Japanese version of the student interview guide. The audiorecorded interviews were transcribed and in some cases translated. The transcriptions were transferred to NVivo 9.2 for storage and coding.

Although many trial codes were initially created arising from reading the interview transcripts, these were amended and the responses rearranged to facilitate alignment of the emerging themes with the RQs. The most extensive set of codes is closely connected with RQ3. In addition, there were additional codes to account for learner variables such as perfectionism and international posture which can influence FLA independently or in association with other factors.

5.4.3 Selection and identification of interview candidates

A full description of the selection criteria has been given in Chapter 4 (4.3.6.2). Overall, I had only two rejections, both male students; one in Doh University and one in Pok University thereby giving an acceptance rate of 92.31%. All four teacher participants obliged and the following is the profile of all interview participants.

Pok University Participants

Jun: Teacher, female Japanese with a Master's degree in Applied Linguistics, aged 43 with twenty years university teaching experience who has been teaching in Pok University for six years. She obtained her MA from the United States of America.

Tay: Male, aged 20, wants to be a teacher or Education Officer. He has never travelled overseas.

Kei: Male, aged 19, wants to be a teacher but definitely not an English teacher. He travelled once to Australia on holiday.

Yao: Male, aged 21, is studying to become an elementary school teacher. He visited Australia seven years ago.

Kim: Female, aged 19, spent one month last year in England learning English and wants to be a JHS English teacher.

Uko: Female, aged 20, visited Australia for one month three years ago. She is studying to become an English teacher in a junior high school.

Aka: Female, aged 21, third year student, has previously visited England and the United States for a month each.

Doh University

Nao: Teacher, female Japanese, aged 53 with a Master's degree in Linguistics. She has 25 years university teaching experience.

Epu: Male, 19 and training to become a PE teacher. He has never visited an English-speaking country.

Aga: Male, 19 and training to be a teacher. He has never visited an English-speaking country.

Kas: Male, 22 and training to be a mathematics teacher. He has never visited an English-speaking country.

Nai: Female, 19 and training to be a teacher. She has never been abroad.

Dor: Female, 19 and training to become an elementary school teacher. She has never been abroad.

Kyo: Female, 19, training to become a Japanese language teacher and has never been abroad.

Dek University

Dan: Teacher, American male, 45, holds a Master's degree in Applied Linguistics and has been teaching at university level for 15 years, ten of which are in Dek. Dan has lived in Japan for 20 years.

Rou: Male, 20 and training to become a social studies teacher. He has never been abroad.

Sku: Male, 19, training to become a teacher and has travelled to Australia once.

Yas: Male, 20, training to become an English teacher. He could only recollect childhood visit to Hong Kong.

Rok: Female, 21 training to become a high school English teacher and has never been abroad.

Rya: Female, 24 training to become a JHS teacher and has lived in Canada for one year on a study abroad programme.

Imo: Female, 23, training to become a kindergarten teacher and has lived in the USA for a year on a study abroad programme.

Nuk University

Tim: Male, teacher, 45, American. He holds a Master's degree in Business Education and has been teaching at university level for 6 years. He has lived in Japan for a similar length of time.

Ray: Male, 24, graduate student of Statistics who has recently visited the UK for one month.

Oto: Male, 25, graduate student of Finance/Accounting who has visited Egypt and Turkey.

Chi: Male, 24, graduate student of Finance/Accounting who often travels to South East Asia.

Sho: Male, 33, an MBA student, has travelled to the USA.

Aro: Male, 30, an MBA student, has travelled to the USA.

Miu: Female, 24, an MBA student, has travelled to New Zealand.

All the names assigned above are pseudonyms. Hereafter, participants will be tagged to reflect institutional affiliation.

5.4.4 Interview results

5.4.4.1 Institutional factors

To answer RQ2 which seeks to establish how institutional factors influence foreign language anxiety, we need to examine the responses offered by the participants to questions relating to the institutions of learning. Among the issues raised is how the status and ranking or rating of the university affects learner self-confidence and how the additional pressure (if any) impacts FLA. Next is the presence of a network of interlocutors, and technological facilities at the different institutions.

The public universities are more prestigious than the private ones overall, though they tend to have strengths in humanities which are not often reflected in rankings. There emerges a three-tier categorisation whereby the first-tier institutions are notoriously difficult to enter for all students, regardless of discipline. One of the institutions (Nuk) is a first-tier university and its global ranking is considerably high, whereas two (Dek and Doh) are second-tier, highly ranked regionally and specialised teacher education universities. Finally, the fourth (Pok),

which is a private university, is at the top of the third-tier but recognised for its special curriculum on Japanese traditions and customs.

Status and confidence: My preconceived notion of status and ranking of the institutions taken from public league tables were discountenanced by the participants who, in all cases, perceived their institution as highly rated and showed considerable pleasure and pride to be studying in these universities. The two institutions for teacher education, Dek and Doh universities, were considered the best and most desirable in their respective prefectures by the students. According to Tay-Pok, "I want to be a kind of Education Officer … and Pok University is good for Education Studies".

Out of the twenty four student participants, seventeen admit that their confidence is affected negatively as they feel institutional pressure to live up to expectations. According to Sku-Dek, "I want to be a teacher in future, so I enter this university. I feel some pressure when speaking English in the classroom… I don't have confidence especially speaking with native speaker". Dor-Doh claims that "Yes. I am proud of this university. I don't know so much English. I worry about grammatical errors. This makes me not to speak". Miu-Nuk states that

> "Yes. I don't think much about confidence but I feel pressured because I am a student of this university. … Compared to students who attended this university for four years, I feel anxious because I think this group of students are smarter than me. Sometimes I find it difficult to attend the same English class with them".

Ray-Nuk admits "Nuk University is very famous in Japan… has a good name. English level is a little high to me. It is difficult so my confidence is not high". Five participants claimed that the status or reputation of the university has no impact on their level of confidence. Aro-Nuk claims that "in this university I have no pressure to speak English, but in this world, in this economical situation I have so much pressure. I should get to speak English". Rok-Dek also says that "I don't feel, but I want to feel more pressure because if we are to be teachers, especially English teachers, we are required to speak English in the English class. So I want more pressure so that I can speak more English". However two participants admit that while their confidence is not affected, they feel pressure. Miu-Nuk states that "I don't think about confidence but I feel pressure". Similarly, Oto-Nuk adds that "there are two reasons; first reputation is very high. Second reason is I like em… I like the spirit of this university. Of

course I am under pressure to speak English but not because of the reputation". Chi-Nuk commented that his confidence is low compared to his undergraduate days in the same university. The low confidence exhibited by some participants confirms results (F1) obtained from quantitative analysis. Among the respondents who admitted that the status of the institution affects their confidence and are anxious as a result are five from Dek, four each from Doh and Pok, and two from Nuk. Three Nuk respondents claimed that although their confidence is high, they still feel pressure arising from the reputation of the university.

Extracurricular speaking opportunities: Next, the researcher wanted to find out if the presence of a network of international interlocutors on campus will increase learners' willingness to speak English or positively influence their approach to learning English. Nuk has the largest network of foreigners, followed by Dek with a considerable number. However, both Pok and Doh have few international students and only two and three foreign teachers respectively. The responses obtained from the participants varied. Out of twenty three responses, fourteen participants stated that having such a network of interlocutors positively influences their learning approach with four participants claiming that it makes them study more. Five participants argued there were no such opportunities at their institution, and as such, there was no noticeable impact on their L2 learning approach while three participants believed that having foreigners on campus makes them nervous. Negative self-evaluation and failure to speak with them lowers participants' confidence (See also Nuk-obs-1). One participant reported no influence whatsoever.

The two JTEs reported not using L2 with students outside the class while the two NESTs said they use L2 outside the classroom, at least when students are disposed to communicating in it. Nao-Doh commented that

> "With foreign students I do, but with Japanese students, I don't. Probably, that is because I don't think I am always a teacher of English. I am a teacher of Linguistics and teaching English to students is only a part of my duty, so mmm…. That is why I cannot really say I am a keen teacher of English".

In Nao-Doh's opinion, attempts to use L2 with students outside may be threatening and she expects the students to make the initial move:

> "Well, I think if I want to I can speak English to them but they will just withdraw, go away. … and I want them to relax, try and understand them and if I speak English to them, then they will think I am

> threatening and I am giving them pressure. If they start speaking in English, then I will speak to them in English".

Jun-Pok claimed that "Many of them don't want to study English and just want the credit. So we … you know Rod-Pok (NEST). Students can go visit him. He has office hours, so students can go to him during office hours". She is disclaiming responsibility here and passing it on to another teacher. The teacher type, native speaker versus non-native speaker rather than the institution was more influential here.

Exchange programmes

While considering institutional differences and speaking opportunities that are available to learners, we should take into account the exchange programmes that allow Japanese students to spend periods ranging from three to twelve months in an English speaking country. According to Dan-Dek, "There is a couple of exchange programmes in which we send our students to Canada. There is also British Council and they just.... we just send about two students every year".

Jun-Pok commented that

> "We have two English study programmes. One of these is to go to England, and the other one is to go to Los Angeles for home stay. They are going to be an assistant teacher in the local elementary school. They assist in Arithmetic… I think the reason here is that many Education majors are interested in going abroad and they want to be Elementary school teachers. If they go to Los Angeles, they can visit a lot of Elementary schools, and I think that attracts many students".

In the case of Nao-Doh,

> "I don't think they have a programme mmm….. I don't really know the situation. The point is, here, they focus on Education. They have rich programme for giving students for experiencing teaching or looking after children in educational context. English language is not important in this university. Now that they started to realise they have to do something about it, they might change".

Tim-Nuk added that,

> "They are preparing to do business internship and … have varying ideas on how much English they are going to use. Some of them expect to go Japanese-speaking businesses and never speak a word of English. Some of them expect to be using English".

Explaining his trip to Tokyo with students for a competition, Tim continued

> "Those students were not in a course, and next year that competition will become a course for us.… Then that will be preparing them to go and do that competition. So it will be more extensive speaking than the current negotiation class".

Dek and Pok students have opportunity to go on a study-abroad programme but it is expensive and only a small number of students can afford it. Pok arranges for fifteen to twenty students to visit England during summer to study English, and for students who prefer the US, a one-year programme in the US as a language classroom assistant is also available. In Nuk, Tim-Nuk commented that there is no provision in the curriculum for such.

Technological resources: The assumption here was that well-funded institutions may have superior technological resources to promote language teaching, and those with well-established foreign language programmes may have language laboratories, English conversation lounges, and clubs/circles that provide extra speaking opportunities to learners. The interviews explored how the presence or absence of such technological resources impacted on L2 learning and FLA management.

Out of twenty three relevant responses, however, four participants did not know whether or not there was a language laboratory in their university, fifteen participants claimed there were none and just four (Dek-3, Doh-1) answered in the affirmative. Some comments from the few who were aware ranged from "no effect on anxiety level" (Yas-Dek), to a rise in FLA level because "the computer judges English" (Rok-Dek), to being scared because "she can hear her mistakes" (Rya-Dek). Among the rest, the researcher asked how a language laboratory would hypothetically influence their anxiety level. Four participants felt that it would lower their FLA level, five claimed it would have little or no effect, five were unsure, two believed it will make them learn more, and three participants felt it will raise their motivation.

Among the teachers, Tim-Nuk said his students are not required to do anything outside the classroom although he would like them to. In Dan-Dek's university, there is a small laboratory with password access. Jun-Pok claimed there is a computer room with headphones at Pok, but she is personally against the use of technology to promote language teaching. She claims it renders the teacher redundant and irrelevant; implying that if students can learn the language through machines, they would not need teachers. Nao-Doh complained that there are technological resources at Doh but "somebody keep some documents on how to use the equipment. Without the manual I don't know how to operate them", and as a result, her students have no access either, she added.

Teaching facilities: The presence of movable and comfortable chairs and desks can determine if learners can be readily put into groups for a speaking task. While one may find immovable antiquated benches in some language classrooms, some refurbished classrooms have movable desks that permit dyad and group formation. In this study, the researcher sought to know how the seating plan affects FLA. Two types of arrangement possible in the language classroom are conference style (where chairs/desks are movable) and row/column style (where the seats are sometimes immovable). To the question of how these arrangements affect learners' anxiety, the following responses were obtained. The teachers agreed that seating arrangement affects students' behaviours in the classroom. The desks are fixed to the floor and a row sits six students. Jun-Pok claims that

> "Sometimes I wish I could move the table or chairs…. there are more than sixty students, I think it is OK (referring to current seating arrangement). If they sit around, we need a huge space, and if they sit with groups, they might chat".

According to Dan-Dek, "communicative classes involve a lot of motion. I like it when people don't have desks. Everyone can see each other". Tim-Nuk adds that conference style or sitting in groups "definitely helps them to be more comfortable talking to other students rather than, rather than talking to the teacher". Two teachers, Tim-Nuk and Dan-Dek argued that conference style relaxes the learners. Tim-Nuk mentioned that "Almost every day, I change the layout of the tables…. because that is one thing that I can effect directly to improve speaking". Jun-Pok prefers rows and column for logistical and classroom management reasons. Nao-Doh contended that seating plan has no influence on learner anxiety but added that it affects students' behaviour. Here again, we have differing opinions

from the international and Japanese teachers on how seating plan may affect learner behaviour in the classroom.

Out of 22 responses obtained from student participants, twelve respondents claimed that a conference style arrangement raises their FLA level because whoever speaks will be seen by all present. In contrast, in a teacher-fronted classroom, the speaker is only seen by those sitting behind him. Seven respondents indicated that a rows and columns arrangement raises their FLA level. However, three respondents commented that none has any effect on their FLA.

Overall, the participants perceived the status of their own individual institution highly and commented that it influences their own confidence and consequently their FLA. For example, Imo-Dek claims that “this is the best university for teacher education in the prefecture”, Yas-Dek adds that “this university is a little high level in education, so I when I say I am going to Dek University of Education, everyone says OH!!” Aka-Pok says “Yes, first because I have a college student status. Pok has many good students who came from good schools. This university has a good reputation”. Fourteen participants; five (Dek), four (Pok), three (Doh) and two (Nuk) reported negative effect, resulting from the perceived status of the institution, on their confidence.

The emphasis given to the English language curriculum determines the population of English speaking interlocutors on campus. Similarly, some participants claim the availability of technological resources can promote speaking skill, including those who were unaware of the presence of such facilities. In such cases, their responses are hypothetical and inconclusive. For example, Doh has online access to resources but the teacher does not have the necessary skill to operate the relevant classroom equipment, in Pok, the teacher is averse to its use while usage in Dek is tied to homework only. In this case, the intervening teacher variable mediates the use of technology.

5.4.4.2 Pedagogical factors

RQ3 asks how pedagogic factors influence FLA, and a number of interview questions were relevant to this question. The analysis which follows is organised by the interview question such as the teaching of speaking, the tasks and approaches used by teachers to promote the teaching of speaking skills and how these influence FLA. The teaching of speaking and associated teaching styles were also explored independent of FLA as well as learner perception on how the teaching of speaking influences learner attitude towards L2, learner self-confidence, and L2 self-concept. Responses were also obtained on how lesson structure (sequential or less sequential) influenced FLA and on the suitability and desirability of teacher's approach to speaking.

The researcher also sought to know how FLA is influenced by native English speaking and non-native English speaking teachers. The teachers were asked how much curricular freedom they have and how such freedom affects the design of teaching materials, the choice of textbook and the overall approach to teaching speaking. Student participants were asked to comment on the appropriateness of the textbook for teaching speaking skills in class as well as to reflect on the last lesson observed and evaluate the teaching of speaking skills by their teachers. The participants were at liberty to make comparisons with previous experiences and future expectations. Finally, opinions were sought on the assessment method and its influence on FLA.

Speaking tasks: A majority of the student participants (19) agreed that their teacher's methodology did not always emphasise speaking skills, three others responded in the affirmative and two indicated "sometimes". According to Tay-Pok "In my English class, we learn vocabulary mainly. Not conversation but grammar learning class, same as JHS and SHS". The teachers' responses varied on this issue. Jun-Pok argued that she follows her own pre-planned syllabus for the speaking and listening course termed Practical English. During observation, however, there was little evidence to suggest her lessons focused on practical use of English. Nao-Doh stated that "I used to do a kind of translation type lesson….take materials from the Sunday Times" but had resorted to a "more activated type of class" after receiving negative feedback from the students. She uses songs but "before they start

practising…they have a chance to study English structure; grammar". Observation revealed she focused on pronunciation of a few vocabulary items during the lesson. Tim-Nuk usually began with a short teacher-centred presentation and gives students "highly or less structured questions" to discuss in small groups. Dan-Dek did not see himself as teaching students how to speak because he assesses only vocabulary and comprehension. He stated that:

> "I think in general, there is a lot of learning processes involved. First, gaining knowledge of good meaning and input, speaking is about doing the output. Speaking is a kind of a way to solidify what you have learnt. So, I look at it as em… … final em… cap mm… final cap in the learning process".

Dek-obs-3 confirmed that Dan focused on all four L2 skills in general.

Other strategies students had noticed being used by teachers to promote speaking included: asking questions in L2, pointing to students, giving discussion topics, or insisting on L2 only in class. The students were critical of some teaching strategies used for speaking however. For example, Tay-Pok criticised students getting involved in "reading English sentences from the textbook - teacher should do this" (this is evident in Pok-obs-4); Kim-Pok claimed that using pair work was ineffective because "pairs use Japanese" and teacher "does not see it or check" (Pok-obs-2), and Yas-Dek said of the occasional classroom speaking task, that "it is not an opportunity to test true speaking". Yao-Pok added that "I want the teacher to consider the students more carefully. Teacher should consider questions like teacher questions, not student questions". Perhaps Yao-Pok is expecting the teacher to respond to students utterances with less scrutiny and not to expect error-free student response. Dor-Doh stated that "Teacher should not require perfect English when students respond. When students make mistakes, teacher should welcome and accept this… make this acceptable". On teacher talk, Sku-Dek comments that "Em…if the … I understand the teacher what he said, if I don't understand what he is saying I am anxious". According to Kei-Pok the best approach was, "More English speak more, easy words. Teacher uses easy words and is friendlier. It depends on the teacher's personality. Friendlier make some people feel comfortable, some feel more pressure and panic".

When discussing these speaking situations in the classroom, the student participants mentioned a wide range of FLA predictors, as shown in the following responses. Firstly, they

mentioned sitting with unfamiliar classmates or working with smarter interlocutors (3). This was observed in Nuk-obs-1 and Doh-obs-1. Several students mentioned individual/personality factors, including low self-confidence (3); perfectionism (3); negative self-evaluation (4); self-imposed expectations (1). Others mentioned factors relating to the artificial classroom setting (2), or teachers' unclear instructions (2). Just one student said he was not anxious during classroom speaking tasks.

Teacher's NNES/NES status and chosen methodology: The researcher sought to know whether teacher (non)nativeness affects FLA. Fourteen student respondents indicated that they are more anxious with native English speaker (NES) because of the lack of opportunity to code-switch if they cannot use L2 effectively: "With non-native speaker teacher, I feel less anxious... If I can't speak English I change to Japanese" (Rou-Dek); "I don't feel anxious because when I can't speak English, if I speak Japanese she will understand what I mean" (Sku-Dek); "Japanese teacher is bad English speaking. Pronunciation is near to me so easy to understand so I feel less anxious" (Ray-Nuk); "I feel less anxious if the teacher is Japanese because we understand each other. This is a relief for me" (Dor-Doh); "Japanese teachers can understand how students feel because they too couldn't speak English from the beginning" (Miu-Nuk). Students expect to feel more relaxed with the Japanese teachers because they can code-switch when necessary. Miu-Nuk's comment suggests empathy; meaning that the JTEs, having been through similar L2 learning experiences, may show greater understanding towards the learners' linguistic frailties. However, some responses obtained on teacher error correction suggest otherwise.

Epu-Doh stated of his NNEST that "We feel that the teacher's teaching is high pressured. We feel uncomfortable sometimes". In Doh-obs-2, the students were made to memorise songs and drilled extensively on pronunciation. Besides FLA, Kim-Pok stated that "If I have native speaker, I can ask about the native expression. Japanese teacher always correct our grammar; that is why I don't want to speak English". Kim-Pok's response appears to support this. This indicates that error correction technique impacts on willingness to speak the L2, and consequently, on FLA.

However, five respondents claim NNESTs make them more anxious. Yao-Pok commented that “Less anxious. I feel attached to native speakers, and this motivates me to speak more. It is good for class motivation” and Aka-Pok echoes similar sentiments: “Less anxious. I don’t so much experience having native teachers. It makes me interested in such class with native speakers… so I don’t care about anxiety”. In Imo-Dek’s opinion, “Well… if he is native speaker, even if I speak wrong English, they understand what I’m trying to say. So, it’s much easier to speak wrong English or broken English. Yes, less anxious”.

Epu-Doh showed preference for NESTs by stating that “That is good because we hear native level English for everyday life. I feel nothing (FLA) but I, I, want teacher to speak fluent English”. Sho-Nuk stated that “It is not good because Japanese English teacher just speak English from the book. I want him to speak more communication”. This phenomenon was observed in all classes but Nuk. It is not explicit if these responses referred to the teachers studied or they were generalisations. However, all the participants were, and have been receiving instructions from both NEST and NNEST simultaneously and would be safe to assume they were expressing current opinions. One respondent expressed his opinion on the suitability of NNEST/NEST. Aro-Nuk commented that “It is not correct for Japanese teacher to teach English in the university” and when asked by the researcher if foreigners teach the right way to speak, he responded that

> “Originally, that problem has the lack of Japanese students’ sincerity for learning English. But as I said about teacher’s problem, may be foreign teacher is more effective than Japanese teacher”.

Teaching approaches

Two of the teachers said they use pair work and the other two said they use group work to reduce anxiety. The majority of the participants also reported that the teacher uses group work to promote speaking. This was noticeable in Nuk as described in Nuk-obs-1. During group tasks, fourteen respondents acknowledged that they often get help from their teachers while six respondents answered in the negative. Five of these were Pok students and one from Doh. However, thirteen respondents indicated that teacher acts as supervisor only, while just six commented that the teacher always or sometimes joins in as a group member.

On teacher fronted classrooms, fourteen respondents reported that their anxiety level goes up when the teacher is moving around and five student respondents claimed that their anxiety level goes up when the teacher is standing in front of the class. All four teachers observed move around when students are performing tasks in groups or dyads (Section 5.4). Almost all students felt that general lesson routines affected anxiety levels, though opinions were divided on routines which raised or lowered anxiety. Thus, regarding sequential and non-sequential lesson structure, sixteen student respondents commented that they feel less anxious because they know what to expect in the subsequent step, but seven admitted to being more anxious when the lesson format is rigid and sequential. Kim-Pok claims that "if I can't do one step, I think I cannot go to the next step, so I feel a little anxiety".

Curricular freedom: The teaching style adopted by teachers may be determined in turn by the syllabus design. Consequently, it was important to check how much freedom they have in designing the language curriculum. Dan-Dek was free to design the course content himself. He ranks speaking second or third among L2 skills, perhaps the reason his lessons focused on vocabulary and comprehension. Dan-Dek adds that

> "The thing about speaking is that it is very very hard to assess, very very hard to test people speaking fully, so, running a class like this of about 30 people, I think 30 people is pretty difficult. So, the assessment is about vocabulary, about comprehension, so, so teaching speaking… I don't think speaking is a way to kind of process what you have learnt, so, mmm… em… I don't look at it or think of myself as teaching students how to speak".

Jun-Pok also has the freedom to do whatever she wants in the observed class, called 'Practical English'. Tim-Nuk has complete freedom and designs his syllabus ahead of the semester. According to him, even afterwards, "I can change it as long as I don't … em…dance away from what is on the syllabus. That becomes kind of fixed". Nao-Doh does not like the idea of a syllabus because it is fixed; meaning that she cannot change it because "some students might claim that what you are doing is different from what is written". She would like to "change according to the level of the students and also their interest". She is not obliged to design or use one and there are no checks in place. Curricular freedom should also determine how much emphasis the teachers put on speaking. Out of the four language skills, Tim-Nuk ranked speaking as number one, Dan-Dek ranked it second or third in the learning process, Nao-Doh commented that it is "complete nonsense" to rank the skills and learners

“can choose the skill they wish to develop”, and Jun-Pok offered no opinion but she called her class Listening and Speaking class.

Textbook and materials: Dan-Dek chose not to use any standard textbook but gave students original texts (excerpts) to read and talk about in English. Tim-Nuk made a 40-page hand-out with no specific focus on speaking. Jun-Pok used a sample textbook titled *Practical English* donated by publishers which she always uses though she agreed there are not enough speaking tasks contained therein. Nao-Doh never used a textbook claiming that none interests her. She stated that

> “I don’t think I have ever used a textbook except in the first two years (of my professional life). No English textbook interests me. It is always hand-made, chosen by me or produced by the students themselves”

How useful was the textbook or handout to achieve the goals of teaching speaking? Four student respondents from Pok University claimed the textbook used by Jun-Pok for her Practical English class is rigid (Tay-Pok) and not useful whereas two suggested it is good and easy to follow. Aka-Pok claims that the “textbook is not challenging enough”. Uko-Pok comments that

> “It is not good. The text is not is not fit now. It is old. I think the name of the class is called "Useful English" but it is not useful. I think useful English need more person to person communication, not reading from book”.

Uko-Pok’s comment is borne out by observation notes.

Two of the respondents at Doh commented that the home-produced handout used by Nao-Doh in the observed lesson (a song sheet) was difficult and did not develop their speaking skills. Respondents thought there was no natural communication in the classes observed. For example, Kas-Doh comments that “The textbook cannot change my speaking skills”. None of the comments from the six Dek respondents to the materials provided by Dan-Dek was positive. For example, “we need to read the textbook and present to class” (Imo-Dek), “books are not for speaking” (Yas-Dek), “too difficult” (Sku-Dek), “for grammar learning only. This particular textbook does not help develop speaking skills” (Rou-Dek), and “It is like we are talking with paper, I don’t like it” (Rya-Dek). The ‘small talk’ observed in Dek-

obs-2 indicated that the students would appreciate an opportunity to use L2 spontaneously. Four Nuk University respondents agreed the teacher's handout is good and easy to understand, though one respondent contended that the local American cultural content is difficult to understand. Aro-Nuk states that

> "There is little confused content, and I can't understand the connection of the modules. So, I have little anxious of his book. .. I have New York Times as a discussion material. But Newsweek has the culture of the US. For Japanese, you cannot understand the background of the issue, but Japanese translated into English, we understand the background".

Assessment method: The teachers reported using different assessment methods. Jun does not evaluate speaking but administers a weekly vocabulary quiz accounting for 50% of the total course grade, and an end-of-semester written test. Tim-Nuk uses portfolio management to assess students' weekly verbal activities in the classroom. Three Nuk students selected portfolio management as the most anxiety provoking method. For example, Chi-Nuk comments "that portfolio management is every time so most anxious". Dan-Dek claimed he cannot give a speaking test but tests his students on vocabulary and comprehension which ends up being a written test. Nao-Doh gives a terminal singing or drama or performance test, video-records these and grades student pronunciation afterwards. Where writing is the means of testing the students (Pok and Dek), it is difficult to envisage how speaking can be developed. Similarly, in Doh where pronunciation of words derived from a single song serves as the only criterion, students would aim for perfection and grades at the expense of functional use of L2.

The researcher sought to establish the participants' awareness of the teacher's evaluation technique of speaking skill, because these in turn might influence their learning style. Responses varied from "I don't know" (8) "teacher does not assess our speaking" (4), "pronunciation only" (3 Doh), "active participation in group task" (4), "worksheet" (2), "reading sentence from book" (1).

Of the three speaking assessment options presented; end-of-semester test, monthly test and portfolio management, the most anxiety-provoking were said to be an end-of-semester test

(18), monthly test (2) and portfolio management (3 Nuk). As we have seen, Tim-Nuk uses portfolio management technique to assess his students. In Doh, assessment is terminal and based on a single performance. On the assessment criteria adopted, Nao responded "It is obvious, pronunciation, you can hear" but Aga-Doh claims not to know the teacher's assessment criteria and assumes that voice pitch forms the basis of assessment. In Doh, L2 learning is examination-driven and it is doubtful if the students can be intrinsically motivated to develop speaking skill. In sum, the four teachers use four different approaches to assessing speaking skills. Dan-Dek gives writing test, and does not test speaking, so also Jun-Pok. It also clear that Nuk students, whose speaking skills are assessed on a regular basis, would prefer terminal test to weekly assessment of their utterances in the classroom; thus suggesting that test anxiety may not be an issue here.

Retrospection: When asked their opinions about the last observed lesson, these varied from "I enjoyed the class" (thirteen including all Doh students), "confused" (Sku-Dek/Dek-obs-2) "not satisfied" (Rya-Dek/Dek-obs-3), "really boring" (Kim-Pok/Pok-obs-2), "When the teacher asked me a question I don't understand the meaning, I feel anxious" (Tay-Pok/Pok-obs-3), "during class, I talk to many people, so I am a little bit tired" (Kei-Pok/Pok-obs-1), and "pressured" (Aka-Pok/Pok-obs-3), to comments like "confused and anxious when I don't understand something the teacher says" (Sku-Dek/Dek-obs-2), "it did not inspire me" (Oto-Nuk/Nuk-obs-2), "confused because another friend is very good, he speaks posh English. He is Indonesian and I feel anxious" (Ray-Nuk/Nuk-obs-2), "my group used a lot of Japanese" (Miu-Nuk/Nuk-obs-2), and "it was bad, class is too large for the teacher to control" (Aro-Nuk/Nuk-obs-3). More comments include: "When I don't understand the English, I get confused. It is difficult to understand English. I don't know what to do. I felt anxious and was nervous when the teacher asked me to answer" (Nai-Doh/Doh-obs-2). Similarly, Imo-Dek summed up the form-focused class (Dek-obs-1) like this:

> "Confused about grammar… I was thinking do I really need to study like hard grammar and stuff. I was thinking, maybe I don't need that higher level of … or maybe I need. Here, just studying for entrance exam, it does not really……it does not change your daily life. You are not going to use it in the street or convenient store, why are you teaching me all that stuff".

Sho-Nuk expressed his frustration about the last observed lesson (Nuk-obs-3) thus

> "It was bad because last time I said I want to ask a lot of questions but I can't. I have frustration. Yes, because I can hear may be 50% but I can't understand 50%. Speed and vocabulary, but first is speed".

When asked if they experienced anxious moments in class especially during speaking tasks, three Pok respondents felt no anxiety and contended that the language level was undemanding or that the lesson did not require speaking in front of the class (Kim-Pok/Pok-obs-1 and Yao-Pok/Pok-obs-2). Nineteen others who reported experiencing some levels of anxiety attributed this to inability to express their thoughts, forgetting words at crucial moments, not understanding the teacher, working with a more proficient interlocutor/dyad partner, mental exertion resulting from excessive use of L2 during class task, attempts at speaking 'effective English', speed of teacher talk, difficult vocabulary, and ambiguous lesson objectives.

The teachers responded differently from each other and from the students. Quoting Jun-Pok "Nothing I would like to change about today's class. I have many classes and don't have time to support the students in that way. Moreover, this is not an English school". She was referring to creating speaking opportunities in class to justify the course title "Practical English". Tim-Nuk found his students' ability to pick up the main points of the lesson rewarding though he was frustrated with what he saw as A or B students producing C work. Dan-Dek was pleased because he could feel the energy going round in the classroom and students getting excited about what they are learning. He was frustrated by the fact that he is not a content teacher with greater mastery of the subject matter (perhaps grammar) like History or Psychology professors. Concerning L2 teaching Dan-Dek feels he is not as knowledgeable as the professors in other fields who have taught the same subject over a long period of time. Nao-Doh was pleased because the students seemed to enjoy the singing activity, though she commented that they are at their best when she is observing them. As soon as walks away, performance drops. She is frustrated with this attitude because "most of them are only interested in grades and lacking the motivation to be teachers".

Overall, the responses obtained indicated that despite the freedom teachers have in designing their syllabus, the amount of emphasis given to speaking skill is insufficient. Some student participants claimed to be less anxious in a teacher-fronted classroom and a great majority

was critical of the teaching approaches adopted by their teachers. All four teachers received criticisms from the students on their choice of and use of materials in class. The interview also highlighted various FLA predictors including nativeness of the teachers. Whereas some participants would prefer JTEs because such NNESTs will empathise, others want NESTs in order to advance their L2 proficiency. It also emerged that the teachers were teaching according to their personal agenda. For instance Dek and Pok were meant to offer practical communication classes but the lessons observed had very little speaking component. Of the three assessment options suggested, terminal test was the most anxiety provoking. Some participants expressed dissatisfaction with the small amount of time allotted speaking which also accounted for FLA experienced during the lesson. Finally, from introspection emerged several FLA predictors such as difficult vocabulary, perfect pronunciation, more proficient interlocutor, seating arrangement, teacher talk, and inappropriate lesson materials.

5.4.4.3 Social factors

To answer RQ4 *What social factors influence FLA,* we turn our attention to responses from the participants on social and personal aspects of the classroom: teacher variables, the teacher- learner relationship, peer-to-peer interaction, and individual learner variables all of which are capable of influencing both interactional patterns in the language classroom and FLA levels. First, learner perceptions of the teacher will be presented in order to explore how teachers' personal characteristics and appearance can influence FLA. In addition, the researcher sought to establish the influence of peer support, a dyad partner's personality and gender and competitive or cooperative spirit in the dyad or group on anxiety. Finally, responses were obtained on the general classroom atmosphere, again a function of teacher variables. The participants' responses relevant to the above mentioned themes are presented below.

Teacher characteristics: Students were asked what teacher gender would keep their anxiety low in the classroom. In this respect, eleven students preferred a female teacher, and ten preferred a male teacher, while two claimed that gender has no effect on their FLA level. There were thus no clear trends in terms of same or opposite gender preference. Four male respondents prefer male teachers, four female respondents prefer female teachers, seven male

respondents prefer female teachers and six female respondents prefer male teachers. In Pok where the teacher is female, three female participants preferred a male and two male participants preferred a female. In Doh where the teacher is female, 2 female participants preferred a male and two male and a female participants preferred a female teacher. In Dek where the teacher is a male, all the male participants preferred a male while all the female participants preferred a female teacher.

The participants were also asked what teacher age range will make them feel relaxed and less anxious in class. (Their own age ranged from 19 to 33 years.) While the responses covered a range from 20 – 60 years, there was a clear trend to report that older teachers would increase their anxiety levels. Twenty respondents claimed that language teachers aged over 50 would make them more anxious in the classroom. Out of this number, twelve suggested that teachers over 40 would increase the FLA level. Imo-Dek comments that "Old people, old teacher might not really understand what we think or what we do".

Teacher friendliness, formality and dress code: Seventeen student participants indicated their teacher was "friendly", two indicated "not friendly" (Oto-Nuk and Kim-Pok), two responded with "maybe" (Sho-Nuk and Dor-Doh), two said they did not know: "teacher character unknown/varied personality" (Aka-Pok and Uko-Pok). Overall, those who stated that their teacher mostly or sometimes used a formal tone included Pok (4), Dek (4), Doh (3) and Nuk (3) participants and eight indicated "informal". Dor-Doh sums up her feelings thus

> "She is formal in her speech. She is very strict. Her speech is right and persuasive and I agree with her comments. But she expects perfect English from her students. But I would like her to be friendlier and accept all responses or answers from students as OK. If she does this, the class will be much better and enjoyable"

Kim-Pok expressed her feelings as follows

> "I feel she is a good teacher but I don't like her. I think she is really strict, and her face looks like … serious. I don't like serious people. She is not friendly"

In Japanese educational settings, a formal dress code is interpreted as female teacher wearing skirt suit or male teacher in suit with a tie. The students generally do not expect their teacher to present a professional or formal appearance: nineteen respondents claimed that they are less anxious when the teacher dresses smart-casually or informally on coming to class, while just three respondents reported that teacher dress does not affect their anxiety level. Comments from the majority who feel anxious when the teacher dresses formally include:

> "When we have conversation or discussion class and he wears like formal things, it is kind of…. yeah, I don't really think to ask him something. Yeah, it is easier to ask him something if fashionably dressed" (Imo-Dek).

> May be teachers who wear formal clothes, we feel a little fear…formal clothes are scarier than casual clothes…Maybe a little influence on us because depending on clothes, I feel em…. Mmm…. Depending on clothes, I feel different way to relate to the teacher. If he into casual, then yeah…(Yas-Dek)

> "But for students, casual is good but in business, formal is good. More casual is good. If the teacher puts on casual wear, it is easier to speak informal communication, how are you, how was yesterday. It is very important to learn informal English" (Sho-Nuk).

Fashionably dressed refers to smart-casual or informal appearance. Other comments include "If teacher wear suit or formal dress, I feel nervous. I must, I think I must sit still in class (Uko-Pok); "Yes, more anxiety because when they wear tie, and really formal, you think you will take exam" (Kim-Pok); "I learn from the teacher's dressing as well. When she dresses formally, I feel more anxious" (Kyo-Doh); "When teacher dress casual form, that makes me feel relaxed a little (Epu-Doh), "Suits raise my anxiety. Suit is not good" (Nai-Doh); "Casual, relax" (Rou-Dek); "Casual is friendly" (Ray-Nuk); "Smart casual will make me comfortable" (Sku-Dek); and "Suit makes me anxious…friendly person if dress is casual (Rok-Dek).

Among the teachers, views on dress were nuanced. Jun-Pok stated that "It doesn't matter I think, even though I dress casually it doesn't change anything. We don't have any dress code. I can wear something casual now, but to control my class, I think it is better to dress formally". Nao-Doh was the only teacher to reject the idea that teacher's dress should be at

all formal: “Not that it matters. I would like to wear something that makes me feel relaxed. I don’t, I almost never wear suit”. Dan dressed formally during Dek-obs-3, but he thinks that a necktie makes students nervous and tries not to wear them. However, both male teachers aim for a midpoint in dress. Dan-Dek says “I try to wear a jacket because respect is there. I used to be a bit casual when I was not tenured… I try not to be too casual or formal”. Tim-Nuk believes that the more formally a teacher dresses, the more anxiety is generated. “I don’t wear a suit for the first month or two of classes and I will go for the less, for more casual stuff”. However, he also says: “I try not to wear casual floppy stuff”, and he dressed formally during Nuk-obs-3.

Classroom atmosphere: Seventeen respondents described the classroom atmosphere they were experiencing as “good” in general terms, five respondents described it as “bad” (Oto-Nuk, Aro-Nuk, Uko-Pok and Kim-Pok) with Rya-Dek describing hers as “tense”. The observation data from Nuk corroborates views expressed by Oto-Nuk and Aro-Nuk.

Twenty one respondents agreed that a quiet class would raise their FLA level because in such a quiet class, all the students will focus on the speaker. It is difficult to initiate interaction in a quiet class due to tension arising from such silence. Among these, three added “unfriendly class”, two indicated “too noisy” and two respondents added “classmates with high L2 proficiency”. Three teachers prefer background noise but one would tolerate it on certain conditions. Kyo-Doh adds that “I want to more speaking. Loudly, I can speak, but quiet class I cannot speak”. This means that, unlike a quiet class, she can speak more in a noisy class. During observation, the researcher noted that some students in Doh and Pok who were not interested in the lesson were chatting in the background. However, this was not the case in Dek and Nuk, two classes taught by NESTs.

The participants were asked more specifically to evaluate the general classroom atmosphere in terms of humour and reaction to student error. Fourteen respondents indicated their increased willingness to make mistakes in a humorous class without any effect on their FLA level. Nine others indicated that they would experience less anxiety in such a setting. The researcher observed occasional laughter during Pok-obs-4 and Nuk-obs-1.

When asked if they would laugh at their classmates' errors in class, six responded with an absolute "no", while five agreed they would never laugh at 'serious mistakes' but would join others if there is humour in the mistake. The remaining thirteen respondents said they would laugh when 'everybody' laughs. According to Miu-Nuk "I feel anxious if I make a mistake or use broken English and everyone laughs, then I don't want to attend such class". Jun-Pok and Dan-Dek commented that they would ignore this behaviour, but the two others said that they would go to the student's rescue especially if those laughing are foreign students, but will not intervene if the speaker laughs too.

On how humorous the teacher is in class, thirteen reported that their teacher is funny, one respondent used "maybe" to answer the question and eight said their teacher is not funny (three from Nuk, three from Pok and two from Doh). For example, Epu-Doh suggests that "Teacher has to make class more fun. Teacher make em.., should make the mood so that we feel relaxed". The participants that offered no response were all from Pok University. Imo-Dek said of Dan, "sometimes we don't understand his joke. Cultural difference, sometimes, some jokes are hard to follow". Sho-Nuk also added that "Tim said the joke but I don't understand the joke". When asked if the teacher smiles in class, seventeen indicated in the affirmative, and four in negative. Three negative responses came from Pok and one from Epu-Doh. Kim-Pok stated that "I never see her smile. I only see her *nigawarai* (wry or bitter smile)".

Peer group atmosphere: Sixteen participants classified the atmosphere in small group work as good or very good, three used "fair" or "okay", two participants indicated "depends on the members". Nai-Doh added that "I can speak when I am in a good group, but bad group, I can speak a little". Three respondents claimed the group atmosphere is bad. Here are some quotes from these students. According to Kim-Pok "I don't like it because students don't want to try to study English". Kyo-Doh states that "I want to study English more but group members speak Japanese. Other classes OK, but English class, I want to speak English. It is disgusting". This tendency to use L1 was noticed in all observed classes in all institutions. Both beyond

and within the classroom, international politics may influence learner willingness to interact with international interlocutors as illustrated in the following dialogue.

Okon:	Do you speak with international students?
Kim-Pok:	No I just know a Chinese. No, because I can't use Chinese.
Okon:	What about English?
Kim-Pok:	I think they can't speak English.
Okon:	Did you try?
Kim-Pok:	No, just feeling so. Anyway, I don't want to make friend with Chinese because it is very big problem between Japan and China. Chinese shipmen hit Japan ship.

Aro-Nuk claims that

> "Japanese students cannot speak and Chinese students speak endlessly, and they are not native speakers. I think I cannot get the skill of speaking English. I think the atmosphere is not good. Tim-Nuk ignores Japanese feelings and culture and focus on Chinese students. It is bad atmosphere".

The group structure in each class is decided by the teacher. Tim-Nuk insists on at least two nationalities and both genders in each group and added that he supports the introverts in the groups. This was noticeable during observation. Dan-Dek forms groups randomly but ensures that both genders are represented in each group. Jun-Poh organises the students randomly and believes that diversity is good. Nao-Doh identifies a leading person in each group which may have seven or eight members. She also tries to ensure that the groups are of mixed gender. This was not always the case in practice, because there were all female groups in her class despite some groups having more than one male student.

Overall, this section has identified some FLA predictors such as teacher dress, tone of L2 delivery, friendliness and joviality. A majority of students claimed the classroom atmosphere was generally good but that a quiet class would raise FLA levels. Sitting with unfamiliar dyad partners or those of opposite gender raises FLA.

Learner variables

Some individual traits that are independent of the social context have the potential to influence interpersonal relationships and alter group dynamics in the language classroom. The two that are relevant to this study are perfectionism and international posture, and the following paragraphs present the relevant responses from the participants.

Perfectionism: Twenty one respondents including the teachers agreed in principle that it is acceptable to make mistakes when speaking English. However, four respondents disagreed and cited examples such as business meetings where they believed mistakes can cost organisations financial losses as well as failure of the learner's English to "connect" with the interlocutors. To quote Chi-Nuk

> "Now it is okay but when it comes to job or work I don't want to mistake because I am working in overseas organisation, so when I mistake, I, I my mistake affect the organisation".

Eight respondents claimed they are never under pressure to use perfect English and, consequently, do not suffer any anxiety linked with perfectionism. Reasons given include: "partner can ask for clarification" (Nai-Doh); "it is okay to convey meaning" (Dor-Doh); and "English is communication" (Uko-Pok). Uko-Pok does not see English as an academic language, rather as a medium of communication. However, twelve respondents experience increased anxiety resulting from their personal desire to use perfect English. For example, Sku-Dek states that

> "Em… I, I feel pressure to pass the correct message to another if not what I truly mean … cannot understand. I want to have perfect English expression to say what I want to say".

According to Ray-Nuk "no mistake is very good but difficult… because my English not very good, perfect English is very difficult so I feel pressure". Some participants feel compelled to produce perfect utterances and adopt individual strategies to try to achieve this. Tay-Pok for instance claims that "I feel pressure thinking I have to speak perfect English, I feel anxious. I mimic my JTE and textbooks". Other sources such as from professional expectations account for this pressure. For example, Rok-Dek, who is a trainee teacher, comments that "In a private conversation, it is OK, but in a lecture or as a teacher or student of English it is not

OK". Epu-Doh mirrors Rok-Dek's comment with "One side, I think it is not necessary but another side I think it is important in the classroom". Furthermore, the need to use perfect English with Asians and other non-Japanese and the lack of awareness of how other cultures use English equally contribute to the pressure some participants feel as illustrated in the following dialogue between the researcher and Kim-Pok:

Okon:	Are you under pressure to use perfect English?
Kim-Pok:	Yes, I think I feel it…but since I can't use perfect English all the time I don't care.
Okon:	Why do you feel the pressure then if you don't care?
Kim-Pok:	Eh… why do I feel pressure? Because if they are Japanese I can use Japanese but if they are not Japanese, our common language is English but I should use as much English as possible.
Okon:	What about Italians, Spanish and others?
Kim-Pok:	Yes, I should use perfect English.
Okon:	But many Europeans like the Germans or Italians don't speak perfect English
Kim-Pok:	Really!
Okon:	Yes, if you went to Italy, you will hear English but not perfect one. They don't care but just speak.
Kim-Pok:	I want to be like them.

Some students expressed the desire to use as much English as possible because many students are good at using grammar. There is an element of competition here as some participants may feel left behind if they do not speak like their peers in class. According to Imo-Dek, peer expectation makes her anxious: "everyone knows that I studied in the USA, so I must use perfect English". Kyo-Doh worries about test grades and states that "We have a test… teacher doesn't grade me if I can't answer the question correctly. I have to answer perfectly, I feel pressure". In summary, above account reflects the participants' generally perfectionist L2 self-concept, including qualities such as worrying about being misunderstood by their conversation partner, feeling ashamed as a result of their inability to use perfect English, believing it is acceptable for conversation partner to make mistakes but feeling ashamed to make similar mistakes themselves.

International Posture: The researcher also sought to know how international posture influences FLA. Sixteen of the student participants have travelled abroad, with thirteen of them visiting English-speaking countries for periods ranging from one week to one year. The remaining respondents have never travelled outside Japan (Doh - 6, Pok - 1, and Dek - 1). They were asked if they desire to travel and live or work in an English-speaking country. Thirteen respondents would like to visit and possibly live and work in an English-speaking country, and four others would like to go on holiday for a short period of time. Ten of the respondents stated definitely that they want to remain in Japan and work there. (Eight out of this ten had their interview conducted in Japanese language and six of them have never travelled abroad.)

Eleven respondents claimed that international posture has no effect on their FLA level and two stated that it raises their motivation and confidence. However, eight respondents admitted that it raises their anxiety level. Sku-Dek claimed that living overseas will make him more anxious "because people expect me to speak more English… I have never been able to speak English well". The willingness to live in an English-speaking country may be deterred by poor English ability. For example, Rok-Dek stated that "May be I have to stay here because using English is required in big companies and it makes me more anxious" and Aga-Doh added that "Yes (increased FLA), but if I cannot speak English, I cannot go abroad, communicate with foreigners or live there". According to Kas-Doh "I don't want to go because it is a problem if I can't speak English. ... Because I can't speak English in class, I don't think of abroad so much". Similarly, Yas-Dek commented that "If I cannot speak English, I will be really uncomfortable and I will be sad to go anywhere in that country. I don't want to be such a worker". Uko-Pok comments that

> "But I wanted to (live overseas) but now, I think I…. I want to be an English teacher at junior high school in Japan. Em… mmm…. Yes, a little because if I want to be an English teacher, it is only good English speaker can be good English teacher. I always think my English is poor so I need to try".

On the other hand, although Tay-Pok's 'first' ambition is to live in Japan, he added that "I want to go overseas. We don't need to speak perfect English I understand, and can

communicate with foreigners. If I have opportunity, I'd like to live overseas". Rya-Dek felt less anxious because "When I was in Canada, I found it was fun to speak in English. When I tried to talk to others, everyone listened. I hope to live abroad someday. It makes me less anxious". Among those who want to remain in Japan, reasons given include high English language skill required by multinationals, low self-confidence and negative self-evaluation. From the responses obtained, it seems that participants' self-perception of L2 proficiency plays an important role in determining their international posture and ideal self.

Peer collaboration/competition and other learner traits: Peer collaboration is important in group or pair work. The researcher wanted to know if group members cooperate or compete with each other, and asked them to estimate this in percentage terms. Fourteen respondents claimed that collaboration to competition ratio is 70 to 30 percent, and two respondents commented that they compete and cooperate on 50/50 basis. Further responses obtained were 100 percent cooperation (3) 100 percent competition (2). For the remaining three participants, it was mostly cooperation with competition ranging from 1-10 percent.

Fourteen respondents stated that sitting with unfamiliar partners raises their anxiety level. It was observed in all classes that some group members only interacted during task implementation and were silent otherwise. On gender, twenty of the respondent admitted that their anxiety increases when working with dyad or group partners of opposite gender. Out of a total of fourteen male and ten female respondents three male and one female participants said their FLA was not affected by the gender of their partner(s). The all-female group in Doh was the most relaxed in class (Doh-obs-2).

Commenting on introversion, twenty respondents claimed that they are more anxious when working with introverts. Four stated that working with extroverts will raise their FLA level. According to Chi-Nuk "If I communicate with introvert, at first, I have to speak, so extrovert is good for me because the extrovert will talk more". Kas-Doh echoed Chi-Nuk's comment by stating that "If I sit next to an introvert, I have to speak more and I feel pressure".

In conclusion, interview responses relevant to RQ4 indicate that the teacher age is a strong FLA predictor because over the age of 50, language teachers would make participants more anxious in the classroom. Similarly, dressing formally (suits and tie) also contributes to FLA. A tense and quiet classroom especially one devoid of humour increases learner anxiety and the fear of being laughed at deters participants from taking risks in class. While, group tasks have the propensity to lower FLA, the composition of the group may influence FLA such as having unfamiliar or more proficient members. Many participants in this study aim at perfectionism and consequently, their willingness to speak English is hampered by the assumption that they need to speak perfect English to be understood or to be considered good learners. L2 self-concept impacts on their ideal self as demonstrated in the responses obtained; low L2 proficiency and perhaps some misconceptions account for some participants' reluctance to seek careers beyond the shores of Japan and the 'international posture" portrayed in this study contributes to FLA among some participants. Similarly, gender and introversion were factors influencing FLA while a competitive or collaborative spirit was a motivating factor to speak during group tasks.

5.5 Triangulation between the questionnaire and interview responses and the observation notes.

The data presented from the questionnaire corroborates some of the data from the interview and observation notes. Table 5-13 which summarises the questionnaire data into three domains of anxiety; self-confidence, communication apprehension and general classroom performance anxiety can be linked to responses obtained from the various themes that arose from the interview. The extracts from the observation notes, to some extent, confirm these two data sources.

Evidence of Low Self-confidence noticed in the questionnaire data in which participants were "not sure of self when speaking in class" (item 1) was noticed during the observation as participants' responses to the teachers' questions were barely audible. As noted in the observation notes, when participants were engaged in dyad task, especially in Pok and Doh universities, classes taught by JTEs, the researcher could not hear their utterances from his seat in the rear of the classroom.

Participants were noted in the questionnaire response to be nervous and uncomfortable when speaking with or are around native speakers, likewise the interview in which Sku-Dek claimed that "Em… if I don't understand what he is saying I am anxious". Likewise Aro-Nuk who claimed that

> "Tim's direction like I said before is ambiguous for students, so we don't know what to do in Tim's direction. Confused and anxious because I want to discuss his direction but actually I cannot understand his direction. So it is one of the reasons I cannot speak in class enthusiastically".

This trend in the questionnaire is repeated in the interview with those that the participants perceived to have native-like proficiency. For instance, Ray-Nuk stated that "A little confused because another friend is very good, he speaks posh English. He is Indonesian and I feel anxious".

The summary from the questionnaire which indicates that participants experience Communication Apprehension such as "worrying about mistakes in class" (Item 3), is a trend repeated in interview whereby participants express similar worries. For example, Ray-Nuk stated that "no mistake is very good but difficult… because my English not very good, perfect English is very difficult so I feel pressure", as well as "I want to have perfect English expression to say what I want to say" (Sku-Dek). Item 3 is also exemplified by "In a private conversation, it is OK, but in a lecture or as a teacher or student of English it is not OK" (Rok-Dek) and "teacher doesn't grade me if I can't answer the question correctly. I have to answer perfectly, I feel pressure" (Kyo-Doh); corroborated by Doh-obs-4. Similarly, "Aar… I don't remember English word. I confuse" (Kyo-Doh) thus confirming the questionnaire data "I can get so nervous I forget things I know" (Item 12). Further signs of communication apprehension manifested in the interview especially when, as claimed by Dor, "I felt anxious. I was nervous when the teacher asked me to answer" which corroborates the questionnaire response such as "I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class" (Item 9).

The phenomenon of General Classroom Anxiety e.g. "nervous and confused when speaking in class" (Item 27) reported in the questionnaire data is confirmed by Nai-Doh who stated

that “When I don’t understand the English, I get confused. It is difficult to understand English. I don’t know what to do”. Reluctance to volunteer answers in class may be indicative of risk aversion highlighted in item 31 of FLCAS; “I am afraid others will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language”. 18 interview respondents confirmed they would laugh at other students’ errors in class, which worries Miu-Nuk to the extent of contemplating abstaining from such class; “I feel anxious if I make a mistake or use broken English and everyone laughs, then I don’t want to attend such class”. The added pressure resulting from this classroom behaviour might raise participants’ FLA level or create sufficient uncertainty to warrant the negative response to questionnaire items 28 (When I’m on the way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed) and 22 (I don’t feel pressure to prepare very well for language class).

We now turn to links between the interview and the observational data. One of the classroom predictors of FLA is the gender of the dyad partner. Interview data from 20 respondents suggests that partners of opposite gender increases FLA and the observation notes provide evidence of same gender seating pattern, at least until the teacher rearranges the students. In Pok and Nuk universities, unfamiliar dyad partners sat quietly in between activities whereas familiar dyad partners engaged each other in L1 during task interludes. Some groups in Nuk and Doh universities demonstrated this in both body language and group atmosphere which was described as ‘fair’ or ‘tense’ in some cases. Noticeably, in Doh-obs-2, the mixed gender groups had the majority gender singing loudly while the minority gender remained almost tongue-tied.

On teaching approaches adopted by teachers in the classroom, 19 respondents claimed that the teacher’s method does not emphasise speaking skills and Tay’s comment that “reading English sentences from the textbook - teacher should do this” was an objection to the practice of students having to read aloud, rather than speak. The frequency of this practice was confirmed during observation in three of the universities (Doh, Dek and Pok) studied. Participants read extracts from worksheet or textbook aloud, during activities purportedly designed to promote speaking. The responses from participants in Dek University indicated the textbook used in class was not helpful in developing speaking skills. Rou-Dek commented that “No, this particular textbook does not help develop speaking skills. It is a writing textbook, so speaking, no”. Rok-Dek added that “Grammar learning only”. According

to Rya-Dek, “It does not help with speaking because it is a reading book”. Epu-Doh stated that “Aaarrr … in Japan, I think it is not enough to study English for using native level. Mm… it is so difficult… different. I don’t think so”. The observation data confirmed this because the chosen text aimed at comprehension rather than promoting discussion; a point acknowledged by the teacher Dan-Dek during the interview.

> “… I don’t look at it or think of myself as teaching students how to speak. I think in general, there is a lot of learning processes involved.…For the communicative classes, I don’t use texts because it is far too much to do….Talking about meaning is what I want students to do in my class; reading text and talking about what they read”.

Also, acknowledging the inadequacy of the textbook chosen for students which the student participants claimed was not useful, Jun-Pok commented that “Not enough but I…if there are more speaking tasks, that would be good, but this class is very big. If the class is smaller, I would choose another textbook”. Nao-Doh, who used a song sheet, opined that “I don’t think I have ever used a textbook except in the first two years (of my professional life). No English textbook interests me”.

Regarding teachers’ dress code and self-presentation, the data from the observation may contradict opinions expressed in the interview. For example, while Dan-Dek and Tim-Nuk agreed that dressing formally in suit and tie is capable of raising anxiety, both dressed formally on one or two occasions with jacket and a tie. Nao-Doh, who expressed no opinion on the effect of dress code on FLA, dressed smart-casually throughout the observations and Jun-Pok, who claimed that her dress code was important for class management, dressed formally in skirt suit on all four occasions. It is worth mentioning that on the second occasion that Tim-Nuk dressed formally, he had a visiting professor from Hong Kong in his class which might have informed his decision to appear formally.

The interview data which indicated that a number of respondents had positive international posture was partially supported during observation of Jun-Pok’s class activity “what will you do if you won a million yen” (Pok-obs-4). Many of the responses indicated that they would go and live in America or Europe if they won such an amount of money. However, it was

noticeable that English language ability did not influence their attitude to migration, rather, it was money.

The interview data reflected respondents' claim that the background noise would lower their FLA level was not very obvious during observation in Nuk and Dek universities. It seems background noise is more prevalent in classes taught by JTEs. The students in all four institutions usually remained seated and quiet, especially during teacher talk, and background L1 utterances could usually only be heard when they were engaged in group or pair work. However, in Pok, there was background noise owing to the large class size. Even during teacher talk, which mostly accounted for the largest portion of the lesson, one could hear background noise from those who showed little or no interest in the lesson. It was not clear how background noise influenced FLA in the class as there was no significant increase in the students' WTC. In other institutions, during teacher talk or when teacher attempted to elicit responses from students, they were apparently attentive but very quiet and perhaps anxious.

Lastly, there was some observation of a Hawthorne effect especially in Doh which confirmed Jun-Pok's and Nao-Doh's assertion that the students were more interested in grades than learning English as a functional language. Hawthorne effect occurs when performance is enhanced when someone is being observed; in this case, the teacher observing group performance during singing. The moment the teacher walked away from the group, students' voices would drop and they performed with less enthusiasm.

5.6 Limitations of the questionnaire, interview, and observation data.

Although questionnaires can elicit comparable information from a number of respondents in a short period of time, responses may be incomplete and may not account for learner-internal phenomena such as perceptions and attitudes (Mackey & Gass, 2005). In addition, responses may be hypothetical and not reflect how the respondents would react in a natural setting. Moreover, the closed nature of the questionnaire limits the participants' successfully expressing or articulating their individual thoughts while responding to the items because they were limited to the options provided.

While the FLCAS is a standardized questionnaire capable of answering parts of RQ3 and RQ4, it could not contribute to answering RQ2 which seeks to establish the effect of institutional factors on FLA. It might have been possible to address this deficiency by adapting the FLCAS but the researcher decided against adaptation in order to preserve its robustness and reliability. To attempt a more robust conceptualisation of the research study and to answer the research questions fully, it was necessary to employ additional data sources such as interview and observation.

Whereas use of interview provided perspectives that the questionnaire could not capture, it was not without some limitations. There were separate interviews for teacher participants and student participants, and although some of the topics or questions were synced, there were questions in the teacher interview that student participants were not asked and vice versa. It was therefore impossible to obtain both student and teacher perspectives on some themes. Another limitation was the nature of the interview in which topics were initiated by the researcher rather than the participants. However, there was ample opportunity to allow participants steer the conversation in their direction or include ideas that were not preconceived. For example, Aro-Nuk and Kim-Pok provided personal opinions indicative of deep resentment of the international students from China which the researcher had not envisaged.

While the interview participants offered a range of responses to certain issues or topics, some of which were convergent, sometimes, it was difficult to establish a clear pattern because of the divergent nature of opinions or beliefs held by different individuals. Nonetheless, the data revealed a range of emotions, perceptions and expectations thus giving an indication of the extent to which interview data complement questionnaire data to address the research questions.

As much as the researcher tried to be as unobtrusive as possible, it was not possible to eliminate the ‘observer effect’ (Keith, 2003) completely. As the researcher was taking notes,

the observed teacher would probably wonder if he or she was doing the right thing at the same time as the observer was taking notes. While seated in a classroom, so much goes on during the lesson that the researcher might be easily distracted from the main themes of the study. It was important to remain focused in order to avoid contradictions that emerged which did not address the research questions. For example, it turned out that the four classes observed had different teaching themes that did not focus principally on speaking and the observer had to remain alert while waiting for periods that would address speaking as a lesson objective. Finally, observation "does not allow the researcher access to the participants' motivation for their behaviors and actions" (Mackey & Gass, 2005:176) thus making it imperative to use observation in conjunction with other data collection methods, especially interview.

5.7 Summary and conclusion

This study examined the role of pedagogic, institutional, and social factors on foreign language anxiety (FLA) with specific focus on speaking. It also sought to determine the nature and levels of anxiety experienced by Japanese learners of English. A multidimensional approach involving quantitative, qualitative and observational data sources facilitated triangulation. There were also subquestions to offer a more global approach to answering the RQs. Emerging from this study are three domains of anxiety; Low Self-confidence, Communication Apprehension, and Classroom Performance related Anxiety (See figures 5.2a, 5.2b and 5.2c). Quantitative analysis (See Tables 5-3 and 5-4) revealed variations in FLA levels across institutional boundaries with Dek and Doh; specialised institutions for teacher education, reporting higher FLA levels than Pok and Nuk. There were also differences between the institutions with respect to nine FLCAS items: 5, 10, 13, 18, 19, 22, 25, 26 and 32 (See Table 5-5).

The interview data was used to answer RQ2, RQ3, and RQ4 either wholly or partially. It was evident that the status of the institution affected participants' confidence and consequently the FLA levels. Similarly, the availability of a network of interlocutors, teaching facilities and opportunities to use English beyond the classroom influenced teaching and L2 learning approaches, and by extension, FLA. The interview data also indicated that the teaching

approaches adopted by the teachers were capable of influencing learners' ability to develop speaking skills. Furthermore, being a native or non-native speaker of English played a role in determining the speaking opportunities available to learners in the classroom. Teacher variables such as friendliness, tone of voice, dress code, and age variously affected FLA and learners' ability to speak in class. Not only were teacher variables influential, learner variables such as perfectionism, introversion, international posture and collaboration/competitiveness played their part in affecting learners' anxiety levels in the classroom.

To facilitate triangulation, observation notes were used as additional data source. Observation data corroborated interview data on the participants' perception, teaching approaches, teacher variables, and international posture. Regarding opportunities to help learners develop L2 speaking competence and consequently L2 confidence both of which are capable of lowering FLA, there were contradictions in teacher beliefs and what actually took place during the lesson. Some of the teachers agreed that speaking was essential in L2 learning but the opportunities to develop this skill were limited in the classroom. Whereas, this chapter was presented in accordance with data type, the next chapter will draw on the various datasets to discuss above findings in greater detail.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND PEDAGOGIC IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the research findings of the different methods separately in a descriptive manner, with some concluding triangulation of findings. In this chapter, all the evidence obtained from data of different types will be integrated to address the RQs much more directly. The aim of this research was to shed light on how institutional, pedagogic and classroom factors affect foreign language anxiety in the Japanese EFL context. Consequently, the three data sources will be used in an integrated way to answer the research questions, taking account of the multidimensionality of the study. The research questions will therefore be answered sequentially beginning with a reiteration of RQ1. Following this will be a discussion of the implications of the findings of this research for foreign language teaching and learning. This chapter will establish associations between speaking, FLA, and other factors identified in this study so as to apply the research findings to EFL pedagogy in Japan and other similar contexts. Finally, the limitations of this study will be discussed and recommendations made for future research.

6.2 Nature and level of FLA exhibited by Japanese students learning EFL

6.2.1 Nature of FLA

The outcome of the factor analytic technique assisted in answering RQ1. As described in the previous chapter, factor analysis aided the reduction of the FLCAS variables to three identifiable domains of anxiety namely: low self-confidence (F1), communication apprehension (F2), and general classroom performance-related anxiety (F3). The participants in this study exhibited FLA that is distinct from Horwitz et al's (1986) three classic domains. In this study, Factor 1 representing low self-confidence is characterised by the following FLCAS items in decreasing order of loading.

Item 14 - I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers (score reversed).

Item 32 - I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign Language (score reversed).

Item 18 - I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class (score reversed).

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

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

Item 28 - When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed (score reversed).

Overall, it seemed participants would feel nervous and uncomfortable around native speakers, are unsure and not confident speaking in L2 class. This was also evident during observation as some students spoke in such low tones it was difficult to comprehend their utterances. Tsui (1996) reported similar finding. The onset of uncertainty and nervousness about speaking in class is when learners are on the way to the classroom as indicated by item 28. This is a precursor to the embarrassment of volunteering answers in class.

While the presence of native speakers might be considered a good opportunity for learners to practise and develop L2 skills, the findings of this study suggest a more complex picture. Although fourteen interview participants stated that having a network of interlocutors positively influences their learning approach, some also admit that having foreigners on campus makes them nervous and the inability to speak with them lowers their confidence. Similarly, another fourteen respondents admit that they are more anxious with NESTs compared with NNESTs because the latter can empathise and learners can code-switch when necessary. Oto-Nuk's confusion arising from working with a classmate who speaks 'posh' English is a case in point, and Sku-Dek's comment "I don't have confidence especially speaking with native speaker" indicates the discomfort these learners may experience around

native speakers). Similar findings have been reported in the literature (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Mak, 2011; Miyazato, 2002). Above are indices of low self-confidence which justifiably account for the emergence and prominence of Factor 1 in the analysis. Regarding speaking situations in the classroom, negative self-evaluation by Japanese EFL learners highlighted in the interview data, mirrors self-doubt. Previous studies (Cheng et al, 1999; Clément et al, 1994; Liu & Littlewood, 1997; Matsuda & Gobel, 2001, 2004; Yashima et al, 2009) also found self-confidence to be an important component of anxiety.

The second factor (F2) emerging from the analysis is communication apprehension (CA). The FLCAS variables accounting for this are listed below in order of decreasing loading.

Item 2 - I don't worry about making mistakes in language class (score reversed).

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

Item 16 - Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

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

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

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

Linked to item 2 is perfectionism which the interview data confirm to be a predictor of FLA among the participants. Comments like “the computer judges (Rok-Dek)” and “she can hear her mistakes” (Rya-Dek) are premised on perfectionism. Teachers’ expectations are relevant here. Dor-Doh’s remark about her teacher reinforces a tendency towards perfectionism that is extrinsic; “but she expects perfect English from her students. But I would like her to be friendlier and accept all responses or answers from students as OK. If she does this, the class will be much better and enjoyable”. Kunt and Tüm, (2010) reported that anxious learners tried to avoid mistakes.

Results obtained from this and other studies further affirm a strong association of FLCAS with L2 speaking situations. Importantly, all the items that associate with the F2 of the current research are symptomatic of communication apprehension which has been reported in earlier studies (Horwitz et al, 1986; Liu, 2009; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Toth, 2008; Yashima et al, 2009). Yashima et al's (2009) F2; *Fear of speaking in public* comprises FLCAS items 3, 9, 12, and 31 all of which, apart from item 31, are identified with the F2 in the current study.

That is, apart from perfectionism, the remaining FLCAS items that identify strongly with F2 are situation-specific symptoms that manifest at moments a learner is called upon to speak in class (cf: Liu, 2006, 2009; Kim, 2009). Note also that Factor 2 is characterised by fear of or anxiety about speaking in class even when learners are well prepared for the class. Overall, F2 highlights the difficulties learners face in speaking in L2 when their performance is being monitored, and may explain why people who are otherwise naturally talkative are silent in L2 classrooms (Toth, 2010). Other variables associated with Factor 2 namely trembling, worrying, faster pulse rate and panic attacks affect the learning process because learners with a high CA may withdraw from participating in classroom activities and develop negative attitude towards oral communication and even avoid it (Mejias et al, 1991).

Linked to this is the teacher's appearance especially as revealed in the interviews. When teachers dressed formally, participants reported increased FLA levels. Interview data indicate that formal appearance hinders participants' willingness to engage the teacher in L2, and leads them to relate differently with that teacher. Mejias et al (1991) report that CA increases with increasing formality.

F3 is general classroom performance anxiety and the relevant FLCAS items include:

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

Item 22 - I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class (score reversed).

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

Item 28 - When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed (score reversed).

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

Items 28 and 3 have already been identified with F1 and F2 respectively. To summarise F3, learners tend to be more anxious in L2 class than other classes. The behaviours highlighted by F3 items above are symptomatic of performance anxiety. Observation (Pok-obs-3, Dek-obs-1, Dek-obs-2, Doh-obs-2, and Nuk-obs-3) and retrospection data also confirm that some participants experienced performance anxiety in class. Aka-Pok felt pressure, Tay-Pok was anxious and Nai-Doh was nervous and confused when the teachers called on them, and Sho-Nuk could not ask questions even though he wanted to. These manifestations are linked to speaking situations in different L2 classroom contexts thereby adding to existing evidence that FLCAS measures primarily anxiety related to speaking situations (Cheng et al, 1999).

F3 in particular embraces feelings of tension, nervousness, confusion, pressure and uncertainty of impending L2 classroom experience. The heavy loading of item 26 on F3 supports the view that the type of anxiety experienced by these learners is peculiar to L2 learning (Horwitz et al, 1986). This finding is similar to those of Cheng et al (1999), Liu (2009), and Matsuda and Gobel (2004). However, among the FLCAS variables that load on F3 in this study, only items 22 is associated with Yashima et al's F3 – *Anxiety about not understanding everything taught in class,* and item 26; feeling more tense and nervous in L2 classroom than other classes associates with Yashima et al's F4 – *Helplessness and negative attitude toward the English class.*

The findings reported here do not reflect the three classical domains of FLA construct as enunciated by Horwitz et al (1986). The emergence of low self-confidence as the first dimension compares with studies (Cheng et al, 1999; Liu, 2009; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004) that obtained a two-factor solution; low self-confidence and general classroom-related anxiety. Similar previous studies have reported negative associations between FLA and self-confidence (Clément et al, 1994; Liu & Littlewood, 1997; MacIntyre et al, 1997; Toth, 2007;

Yashima et al, 2009). Toth (2008) used factor analysis to establish the construct validity of an adapted Hungarian FLCAS. In her study, communication apprehension emerged as the first factor, followed by a second factor she termed *fear of inadequate performance*, within which fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety were identified. In a study with Chinese EFL learners, Liu and Jackson (2008) isolated the three dimensions of anxiety conceptualised by Horwitz et al (1986). In a later study, Liu (2009) conducted both a three-component and two-component analyses with loadings of >.1. The factors that emerged from her study gave dimensions of anxiety consistent with three-dimensional (Horwitz et al, 1986) and two-dimensional (Cheng et al, 1999; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004) FLA respectively.

In a study involving Japanese EFL learners, Yashima et al (2009) used factor analysis with Promax rotation and loadings of >.35 which yielded a five-factor solution. In that study, the first factor that emerged was labelled *Lack of confidence in speaking English in class.* Other factors reported were: F2; *fear of speaking in public*, F3; *anxiety about not understanding everything taught in class*, F4; *helplessness and negative attitude toward the English class,* and F5; *comfortableness in speaking with native speakers*. The first two factors identified by Yashima et al (2009) emerged as a single factor (*Speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation)* in Aida (1994). In comparing F1 obtained in the current study with Yashima et al's, only FLCAS items 1 and 18 correlate with F1 in both cases. Furthermore, F5 reported by Yashima et al is subsumed in F1 of the current study which used loadings of >.5. Although the participants in this study presumably possess a higher L2 speaking skill than reported, as repeatedly stressed throughout this research, not only do they underestimate their ability as their international posture suggests, they also expect to perform negatively when presented with speaking opportunity. Exhibiting such negative self-perception of language competence contributes to their anxiety.

From the interview data, a majority of the participants also admit to experiencing general speaking test anxiety, when facing assessment such as that used by Nao-Doh. Tim-Nuk's students are assessed on weekly basis, and half of Nuk participants find this most anxiety provoking. The fact that test anxiety did not emerge in the current study as an important factor contradicts Horwitz et al (1986), but is congruent with some earlier studies (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989; Phillips, 1992). This raises the question of whether test anxiety

should be accorded a separate domain as suggested by Horwitz et al (1986) or subsumed under general classroom anxiety. Whereas, Aida suggests the elimination of items reflective of test anxiety from FLCAS, Toth (2008) argues for their retention. The identification of three dimensions of L2-related anxiety in the present study, less test anxiety, supports its elimination because learners exhibit anxiety towards tests generally, and consequently, test anxiety cannot be restricted to foreign language tests. In general, these learners may not find L2 tests more anxiety-provoking than other classroom tests, which probably explains why Nuk students prefer terminal test to portfolio management.

What is more, unlike Liu (2009), fear of negative evaluation is noticeably absent in this analysis. The derision by peers (item 31) reported as fear of negative evaluation by Yashima et al (2009) is interpreted differently by high school EFL learners in a survey by Kurihara (2006). Kurihara reports that learners were less concerned with teacher evaluation than peer evaluation. They considered a silent reaction to error an embarrassment, discouragement and a threat to their ego. To these learners, laughter was seen as a reflection of compassion and sympathy whereas silence was perceived as an insult and coldness. To quote one example: “I don’t care about being laughed at when I make a mistake, but I dread the silent reaction of the whole class” (Kurihara, 2006: 48). In the present study, with limited speaking opportunities in class, as observed in most of the lessons in this study, learners are less likely to be concerned with being evaluated negatively; a fact echoed by Yao-Pok (Pok-obs-2).

By narrowing our focus to the Japanese EFL context, it is noticeable that participants in Yashima et al’s (2009) study were from a single institution, whereas, the current study was conducted across four institutional boundaries. The findings of this study may reflect a more generalizable representation of FLA exhibited by Japanese EFL learners. Taking account of the cross institutional and instructional settings in which this study was conducted, the emergence of three factors less fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety suggests that FLA is more of a multidimensional construct with different performance anxieties than a unidimensional construct suggested by Toth (2008).

The emergence of low self-confidence as a distinct dimension of the FLA construct in this study requires further attention. Most of the factor analytic anxiety studies conducted within Asia also produced low self-confidence as a FLA domain; Taiwan (Cheng et al, 1999), China (Liu, 2009), Hong Kong (Mak, 2011) and Japan (Matsuda and Gobel, 2004; Yashima et al, 2009). One plausible explanation could be connected with the general culture and more specifically the L2 learning culture of the region which it might shed more light on why, as far as L2 speaking is concerned, Asian EFL learners have low self-confidence. Obviously, these results are also related to earlier discussions in Chapter 2.

Given this, it seems reasonable to call into question the desirability of using FLCAS generically without modification especially if there are doubts about its construct validity and reliability in EFL contexts (Kawashima, 2009; Kondo & Yang, 2003). By adapting the FLCAS to incorporate items reflecting the local learning culture, more could be learned about the cultural underpinnings of low self-confidence in Asian anxiety studies. Additionally, this could further our understanding of how cultural contexts influence L2 learning behaviours and speaking approaches.

6.2.2 Level of FLA

Results obtained from Table 5-2 also reflect the levels of FLA shown by participants in different institutions. FLA scores ranged from 90.9 to 104.7 with Nuk and Dek registering the lowest and highest scores respectively. The combined average score was 98.2. The indication is that Dek and Doh (99.97), both teacher training institutions, scored higher than Pok (97.79) where a majority of the students are also trainee teachers. The following FLA mean scores have been reported in literature: Aida (1994); 96.7, Chen and Cheng (2004); 92.4, Elkhafaifi (2005); 90.1, Goshi (2005); 123.9, Gregersen and Horwitz (2002); 58.3, Kim (2009); 102.6, Liu (2006); 101, Mak (2011); 80.1; Nagahashi (2007); 107.8, Pawlak (2011); 90.5, and Yashima et al (2009); 100.95. In comparison, the combined average score obtained from the current study is consistent with scores from the general FLA literature, but on the whole, the Japanese studies tend to have the highest FLA scores.

Next is the degree of anxiety shown by participants across institutional boundaries and represented in Table 5-3. Individuals who scored between 100 and 132 were considered anxious and those that scored above 132 were considered highly anxious. Other researchers have used scores ranging from 85-155 (Gregersen, 2007; Marcos-Llinas and Garau, 2009; Toth, 2008b) to describe anxious or highly anxious learners. Again, participants from Dek and Doh showed a higher degree of FLA than those from Pok and Nuk. 68% of Dek participants and 48% of Doh participants were anxious or highly anxious respectively. Similarly, 39% of Pok participants and 29% of Nuk participants were anxious or highly anxious respectively. There must be reasons why they are on this gradient. One obvious question to ask is: is it the teacher? This seems unlikely because, in fact, although there are features associated with FLA in the literature in the exam-driven classes taught by NNESTs; both the lowest and highest FLA scores and proportions of anxious students are recorded in classes taught by NESTs.

Most notable is the fact that the two teacher education institutions produced a larger proportion of anxious students. It seems there may be complex interconnections between FLA levels, instructional patterns adopted in these institutions, and institutional type. With two thirds of Dek students and almost half of Doh students presumed anxious, we draw on other data sources to establish a possible link between career goal and FLA. During observations in Doh, the students had to memorise the lyrics of the song in order to give a good performance, and pronunciation was the key assessment criterion. There was no natural communication in the TL throughout the observations, and to pass the course, students only had to sing and pronounce some key words. Epu-Doh's comment "we feel that the teacher's teaching is high pressured. We feel uncomfortable sometimes" is a reaction to this teaching approach. In spite of this, some learners want to speak, and not necessarily using perfect English, but to engage with the language. For instance, Dor-Doh stated that "Teacher should not require perfect English when students respond. When students make mistakes, teacher should welcome and accept this… make this acceptable". Kyo-Doh was worried about test grades and stated that "We have a test… teacher doesn't grade me if I can't answer the question correctly. I have to answer perfectly, I feel pressure". Although test anxiety did not emerge as a factor in the analysis, these participants may feel they must produce perfect utterances to earn a pass grade which in turn raises performance anxiety. Besides, Nao-Doh

had commented that her students study for grades only and lack the right professional attitude to become teachers.

Dan-Dek did not see himself as teaching students how to speak because he assesses vocabulary and comprehension. All participants made negative remarks about the course textbook. Imo-Dek's comment "Confused about grammar… I was thinking do I really need to study like hard grammar and stuff" reflects what the researcher observed in class; that is the use of very advanced vocabulary in comparison with the proficiency level of the students (Dek-obs-1). Alongside the teaching goal which largely determines the lesson content and consequently the difficulties learners may encounter in the L2 classroom, the pressure reported emanates equally from professional expectations. On imperfect English, Rok-Dek, who is a trainee English teacher, commented that "In a private conversation, it is OK, but in a lecture or as a teacher or student of English it is not OK". Epu-Doh mirrors Rok-Dek's comment with "One side, I think it (accuracy) is not necessary but another side I think it is important in the classroom". Likewise Sku-Dek who adds that, "I want to be a teacher in future... I feel some pressure when speaking English in the classroom".

From what the students say and from my observations, the teaching approach and materials may account for much of the FLA experienced in the different classrooms. FLA may arise from lack of speaking opportunities, where learners do not get comfortable as it is not a routine thing to do. On the other hand, they are anxious because the lessons are difficult or fast-paced and FLA spills over. Besides, the learners' views reflect students who see themselves primarily as teachers, and secondarily as language users. Their heightened awareness of professional requirements, especially among those who would be teaching in primary schools where English teaching has become mandatory and the constant reminders from the teacher; Nao for example, may account for much of the anxiety shown by these trainee teachers. Being confronted by the requirements and the challenges in meeting them may explain the high anxiety levels recorded. Pawlak (2011) observed similar outcomes. Moreover, by believing that perfect English should be used in the L2 classroom, they would be apt to teach in congruence with their learning style. The belief that English teachers must speak perfect English may contribute to the overall FLA level shown by Dek and Doh students. These findings are in agreement with previous studies (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002;

Koga, 2010; Kunt & Tüm, 2010). This answers the second part of RQ1 and partly answers RQ2.

6.3 Effect of institutional factors on FLA

The second research question seeks to establish the relationship between FLA and the institutional context.

What institutional factors influence foreign language classroom anxiety?

a) How do these factors influence learners' attitude to learning English?
b) How do institutional factors affect the availability of speaking opportunities?

First, to answer RQ2a, this study sought to establish how the choice and perceived status of the institution affects learners' attitude to English language learning. The four universities were categorised as top-table (Nuk), mid-table (Dek and Doh), and lower mid-table (Pok). The research question was based on the premise that a highly ranked university will impact learner self-confidence by imposing extra demands on the students, and consequently compel them to speak English in a manner reflective of or consistent with the status of the institution. To answer RQ2 and the subquestions fully, both the interview and observation data are central.

6.3.1 Status

The first surprise was how the researcher's preconceived notion of status was dissipated by the respondents in all four institutions. Nuk is recognised globally but Dek, Doh and Pok situated in three different prefectures in Japan were supposedly rated much lower in comparison. A majority of the participants expressed no regret with their choice of institution and actually ranked their respective institutions quite high. For example, Tay-Pok stated that "Pok University is good for Education Studies", and Aka-Pok added that "This university offers a good education system". Ray-Nuk admits "Nuk University is very famous in Japan… has a good name" and Oto-Nuk added that "reputation is very high". Rou-Dek commented that "This university is good for teacher-training", and Rya-Dek added that "This university

is good for practising teaching". Epu-Doh claimed that "I am proud of it" and Aka-Doh added "There is a high chance of becoming a teacher in this university and this university has a good reputation". Yas-Dek commented that "I am a little nervous…this university is a little high level in education, so I when I say I am going to Dek university, everyone says OH!!" With such responses obtained across the institutions, the perceived differences in status disappeared and the concept of differential status was negated and therefore became irrelevant.

However, having ranked each university highly, participants' opinions were sought on how this influenced their confidence and L2 learning approaches. Five Dek participants and four each from Doh and Pok, and two from Nuk admitted to having low self-confidence and being anxious as a result, which corroborates F1 derived from factor analysis. Where perceived status resulted in high self-confidence, as claimed by three Nuk respondents, additionally, they feel pressure to perform (i.e. to speak) in order to live up to expectations. Miu-Nuk who graduated from another university before coming to Nuk to pursue her postgraduate degree stated that

> "Compared to students who attended this university for four years, I feel anxious because I think this group of students are smarter than me. Sometimes I find it difficult to attend the same English class with them".

Thus, the status of the institution is capable of influencing FLA as suggested by the excerpts from Miu-Nuk, Rya-Dek, Sho-Nuk and Kim-Pok. The pressure arising therefrom results in communication apprehension (F2) earlier identified. F2 is thus corroborated by the following interview excerpts: "Yes, sometimes I do (feel pressure) especially when I work in *juku*. Many teachers have this image of me coming from this university" (Rya-Dek), "I feel pressure. I think I have high skill of communication in Japanese, but I can think of communication in my brain but I can't say it" (Sho-Nuk).

Status alone may not fully account for the pressure participants experience, because the very nature of the institution and career goals (discussed in 6.2.2) are intrinsically linked to the pressure exerted on the learners. Take for instance the following comments by Aro-Nuk; "In

this university I have no pressure to speak English, but in this world, in this economical situation I have so much pressure. I should get to speak English", and from Rok-Dek;

> "I want to feel more pressure because if we are to be teachers, especially English teachers, we are required to speak English in the English class. So, I want more pressure so that I can speak more English".

The findings reported here suggest that the pressure to speak English arising from the perceived status of the institution and career objectives can both cause anxiety among language learners.

6.3.2 Network of interlocutors

To answer RQ2b, we shall examine the availability of technological resources as well as other speaking opportunities in the different institutions. The researcher conceived that the emphasis accorded foreign language learning will be reflected in the L2 programmes that the various institutions offer. The supposition was that those universities with international clout will have more foreign students and staff capable of serving as interlocutors for language learners, and thereby increasing speaking opportunities for them. Therefore, utilising these speaking opportunities should increase the participants' confidence. Similarly, collaboration between the institution and overseas universities will afford learners increased opportunities to spend a range of time overseas to learn English. In addition, well-funded institutions may have superior technological resources and conversation lounges or clubs to promote L2 speaking. On account of these, the interview and observation data were used in exploring these assumptions and seeking answers to RQ2b.

Nuk has the largest network of foreign students and staff members. This is followed by Dek with four NESTs and a considerable number of foreign students. However, both Doh and Pok have three and two NESTs respectively and a handful of international students. A majority of the respondents indicated that having a network of interlocutors positively influences their learning approach; by raising their motivation to speak English. Conversely, some participants commented that the presence of foreigners on campus actually increases their anxiety. This opinion is mirrored in the observation data (Nuk-obs-1) in which the Japanese

students noticeably failed to communicate with their Chinese group members in between the task phases.

Further comments include: “I can’t try to speak with foreigners because of pressure. May be pressure to speak nearly perfect English” (Rok-Dek), “I want to speak to them but I have no confidence in my English ability. This is why I can’t try to speak with them” (Dor-Doh), “Yes I have (speaking opportunities) in my business, but in our company about half member of our company they can speak English. It is all Japanese staff so I am very pressured” (Sho-Nuk), “If I have many opportunities for contact with English, the distance between me and English will be reduced and any psychological barrier would vanish” (Uko-Pok). Although these responses suggest the desire to engage with potential English interlocutors, there are barriers because some participants have a different view of the foreign interlocutors. For example, “Japanese students cannot speak and Chinese students speak endlessly, and they are not native speakers. I think I cannot get the skill of speaking” (Aro-Nuk). Clearly, this comment illustrates that rather than viewing the presence of more proficient interlocutors as beneficial; having them may in fact alienate Japanese EFL learners because of anxiety and individual feelings towards a particular nationality. Aro-Nuk adds that

> “At first, we think that the difference in English spoken area we should sit separate. The students came from English-speaking area think separate. .. In the case of Tim’s class Chinese people have much enthusiasm to speak English, and they actually can. (Why is that?) mmm… in general Asian people is too shy to express their emotion and idea, but Chinese people studying in this course have a … practical idea and ambition to study English, so they try to speak English. But Japanese students may be they think we don’t need to speak English because many of the students in this university’s MBA course came straight from undergraduate courses”.

It is indeed strange to suggest that learners should sit in class according to nationality or cultural mindset. The above quote by Aro-Nuk also shows that Nuk graduates who were already used to having numerous foreigners on campus from their undergraduate days may still not consider it necessary to speak English with them. Besides, insinuating that Chinese students, in comparison with Japanese students, “speak endlessly” has an envious undertone and betrays his resentment towards the Chinese course mates. Aro-Nuk’s feelings does not

only stem from having more proficient interlocutors present in class because there were even more proficient students present from Indonesia and Poland (Nuk-obs-1). Again, it may be that his resentment of the Chinese students has cultural and political undertones because international politics have the potential to permeate and influence events in the language classroom. For example, Kim-Pok's reaction to the suggestion of speaking English with her Chinese schoolmate was "Anyway, I don't want to make friend with Chinese because it is very big problem between Japan and China. Chinese shipmen hit Japan ship". Surely, these opinions from Nuk and Pok universities are of significance because while institutions aim to internationalise and have more foreign students and staff, no account is taken of the politico-cultural perceptions of the Japanese learners, the resultant peer relationship, and resulting effects on foreign language learning and anxiety. The ambivalence highlighted above is an aspect that requires further investigation.

6.3.3 Exchange programmes

In addition to having English-speaking foreigners, some universities have programmes that offer learners the chance to visit an English-speaking country for a period ranging from four weeks to one year. The teachers commented as follows: "We have two English study programmes. One of these is to go to England and the other one is to go to Los Angeles for home stay" (Jun-Pok). "I don't think they have a programme mmm….. I don't really know the situation. English language is not important in this university" (Nao-Doh). According to Dan-Dek, "There is a couple of exchange programmes in which we send our students to Canada. There is also British Council and they just.... we just send about two students every year". Tim-Nuk claims that there is no provision in the curriculum for such overseas trips, at least for this set of postgraduate students. These programmes are beneficial because of the obvious difference in speaking ability and depth of interview reached by the participants who had spent time abroad compared to those who have not. The former conducted the interviews in English whereas very few from the latter category used the TL during the interview. (This also was partly due to the researcher's limited L1 speaking skill without which he could not facilitate a more diverged discussion.) The interview data also revealed that those who have stayed abroad had a more positive disposition towards the TL as well as a more favourable international posture. The overseas opportunity compensates for the lack of a sizeable network of interlocutors but is very expensive for the students, so that only twenty from Pok

and two from Dek participate annually. There is no evidence of Doh's and Nuk's participation. This is another example of how the institutions differ in the provision of speaking opportunities for their learners, but it is marginal in terms of mainstream student opportunities as numbers are so small.

6.3.4 Technology

As another institutional factor, the researcher sought opinions on the impact of technological resources on L2 speaking and FLA. The Nuk students who were more proficient were not obliged to seek technological assistance beyond the classroom. Dek has a small laboratory with password access that is open for three hours daily, but Rok-Dek claimed that "I can't enter that room without any homework"; implying that access is tied to homework. Pok has a computer room but Jun-Pok is critical of it; claiming that "I don't want to use it because if I use it, students can study without me". Doh has unutilised resources. Surprisingly, nineteen of the interviewees were either unaware of these resource centres or claimed none existed and only four (Dek-3, Doh-1) answered in the affirmative. Although useful, the facility has the potential to induce communication apprehension in some learners. For instance, Rok-Dek commented that "the computer judges English (Rok-Dek)" and Rya-Dek stated that "she can hear her mistakes". What is unclear is if these resources are linked to what goes on in the classroom or if learners' awareness of them is heightened by the teachers. Whereas in Doh University, Nao-Doh, the teacher, was not sure if there was such facility, Aga-Doh, a student, confirmed that there was a computer room for language studies. It seems that the alignment of L2 teaching with technology varies from institution to institution with the intervening teacher variable mediating this. In Dek, learners can avail themselves of the language laboratory albeit to accomplish a homework, but Doh and Pok learners have no prompt to utilise theirs.

In summary, the status of the institution as perceived by the learners, rather than in national rankings, influences learner confidence and FLA. This arises from the pressure on the learners to perform well in order to meet the expected or self-imposed standards of the institution. The availability of a network of interlocutors, which most of the participants admit is desirable to improve speaking skill, has not yielded the assumed benefits. Rather, it

has revealed a dimension of peer relationships which hitherto has not been explored. While Asians are supposedly reticent as a result of Confucius Heritage (Woodrow, 2006), there appears to be intra-regional variation in their approach to L2 speaking. The Japanese perception of their Chinese counterparts as typified by Aro-Nuk's comment suggests deep resentment towards the Chinese students' more positive L2 speaking attitude. This reaction warrants further investigation especially when the presence of international interlocutors, especially Chinese, seems to be sowing discord and envy. The refusal of Japanese learners to take advantage of such an opportunity is seen as both personal and political. Notwithstanding, where extra-curricular speaking opportunities abound and are utilised, these can boost L2 confidence.

6.4 Effect of pedagogic factors on FLA

To answer RQ3 and the associated subquestions, we will begin by reviewing the teacher variables and then go on to discuss the teaching approaches, teacher beliefs and the medium of instruction.

What pedagogic factors influence foreign language classroom anxiety?

a) How do these factors influence the learning of speaking skills?
b) What relationships exist between speaking opportunities and FLA?
c) How do teacher variables influence speaking skills and consequently FLA?

Four teachers; two American males; Tim-Nuk and Dan-Dek and two Japanese females; Nao-Doh and Jun-Pok were selected for the study. Dan-Dek and Nao-Doh teach in specialised public teacher training universities while Tim-Nuk teaches in a national university. Jun-Pok teaches in a specialised private university.

All four teachers had curricular freedom; meaning they could design and modify the course content if necessary. However, Nao-Doh does not like the idea of a syllabus because it is fixed and unchangeable; hence she has none. On the whole, Tim-Nuk ranked speaking as the number one skill and his lessons were speaking-oriented, while Dan-Dek ranked it as the second or third skill in the L2 learning process and focused on vocabulary and comprehension. Nao-Doh, whose lesson focused on pronunciation, dismissed any ranking as

"complete nonsense" claiming that learners can "choose the skill they wish to develop". Although Jun-Pok tagged her course Practical English class, she offered no opinion on L2 skill ranking and there was hardly any opportunity for natural communication in her lessons.

6.4.1 Nuk University

Tim-Nuk, a NEST, dressed semi-formally on three occasions and very formally on one. Half of the interview respondents stated that he was friendly but used businesslike tones in class. He produced a 40-page handout, which emphasised and offered speaking opportunities to the students. Students were engaged in oral group tasks throughout the lesson. He also used portfolio management to assess weekly verbal activities which half the interview respondents find the most anxiety-provoking. Chi-Nuk comments "that portfolio management is every time so most anxious". Despite the significant portion of class time allotted to speaking, some participants found the lesson uninspiring (Oto-Nuk/Nuk-obs-2) and confusing (Ray-Nuk/Nuk-obs-2). Despite having groups comprising students of mixed nationalities and abilities, Miu-Nuk commented that "my group used a lot of Japanese" (Nuk-obs-2).

Perhaps a class size of twenty eight was too large for effective classroom management; "it was bad, class is too large for the teacher to control" (Aro-Nuk/Nuk-obs-3), and large class size reportedly hinders willingness to communicate (Tani-Fukichi, 2005). What is more, having a NEST and a crop of more proficient international students made the Japanese students more anxious. "I have frustration. Yes, because I can hear may be 50% but I can't understand 50%. Speed and vocabulary, but first is speed" (Sho-Nuk/Nuk-obs-3). Oto-Nuk (Nuk-obs-2) was "confused because another friend is very good, he speaks posh English. He is Indonesian and I feel anxious". Miu-Nuk added that "I feel anxious because I think this group of students are smarter than me. Sometimes I find it difficult to attend the same English class with them". Above comments clearly suggest that anxiety experienced by these advanced L2 speakers stems partly from having a more proficient interlocutor. Kang (2005) similarly identified that learners would be less inclined to communicate if they perceive that other group members are more fluent.

On teaching material used in class, Aro-Nuk comments on the cultural content of the handout; "I have little anxious of his book…has the culture of the US. For Japanese, you cannot understand the background of the issue". Perhaps, the lack of local content that reflects the Japanese culture added to the difficulty of the course material, hence, their anxiety. Apart from this, the lesson was fast-paced for some students, for example Sho-Nuk who felt left behind which compares with Xu and Li (2010) who noted that teacher's verbal behaviour and classroom communication contributed to learner anxiety. In short, these features and the discomfort and nervousness associated with communicating with a NEST and more proficient course mates lower students' confidence to speak in class. This can be connected with the low self-confidence identified as a domain of anxiety in Section 6.2.1. Overall, the anxiety experienced by these advanced L2 learners is comparable with that reported in literature (Cheng, 2002; Ewald, 2007; Kitano, 2001; Pan et al, 2010; Pichette, 2009).

6.4.2 Dek University

Dan-Dek is a NEST in a teacher education university. He dressed smart-casually on three observations and formally on one occasion. He emphasised vocabulary and comprehension throughout his lessons but had moments when students engaged in oral activities which took less than a fifth of the class time. In his opinion, students should "gain knowledge of good meaning and input…I look at it (speaking) as the final cap in the learning process". Dan-Dek's notion of teaching speaking skills is reflected below:

> "The thing about speaking is that it is very very hard to assess… so, running a class like this of about 30 people, I think 30 people is pretty difficult. So, the assessment is about vocabulary, about comprehension … I don't think speaking is a way to kind of process what you have learnt, so, mmm… em… I don't look at it or think of myself as teaching students how to speak".

Although he attempted to focus on all four skills (Dek-obs-3) equitably, speaking received less than a quarter of the class time, and his comment above explains why the class was predominantly reading- and listening-oriented. Noticeably, throughout the observations, the students had two opportunities for natural conversation, and at other opportune moments, they spoke from a worksheet. Going by his comment that he does not teach 'speaking' because it does not assist learners in processing L2 knowledge, evidently, this skill comes

third behind reading and listening. As a matter of fact, Yas-Dek's opinion of the occasional classroom speaking task; "is not an opportunity to test true speaking", and the negative responses from all the Dek participants suggest that the textbook used in class was too difficult and not helpful in developing speaking skills. Similar comments such as "It is a writing textbook, so speaking, no. Grammar learning only" (Rou-Dek), "we need to read the textbook and present to class" (Imo-Dek), and "It is like we are talking with paper, I don't like it" (Rya-Dek), reflect learner perception of the teaching material. In retrospection, the students claimed they were confused about grammar, anxious and not satisfied with the lessons (Dek-obs-1, 2, and 3). Imo-Dek's comments sums up the observations; "Confused about grammar… I was thinking do I really need to study like hard grammar … You are not going to use it in the street or convenient store, why are you teaching me all that stuff".

Although Dan-Dek used Japanese sparingly to create humour and reinforce instructions given in L2, the teaching was conducted primarily in L2. In addition to trying to understand difficult and advanced vocabulary, being a native L2 speaker may also aggravate the students' anxiety because half of the interview participants claimed they feel anxious with native speakers of English. This is borne out by comments such as "…depending on my counterpart, like teacher or higher level student, I am a little nervous" (Yas-Dek) which supports the earlier analysis for RQ1. Furthermore, linking the use of the technology resource centre with homework probably gives the impression that English language learning is purely an academic exercise meant to prepare the students for professional life. Besides the perceived status of the university, from which five Dek participants reported negative effects, their confidence is lowered because of limited speaking opportunities in the classroom. Rok-Dek comments as follows, "if we are to be teachers, especially English teachers, we are required to speak English in the English class… because the opportunity is lacking, very short, my confidence is not so high".

Commenting on the rewarding aspect of his teaching, Dan-Dek expressed his pleasure because he could feel the energy going round in the classroom and students getting excited about what they are learning. The researcher also noticed this when students engaged in 'small talk' (Dek-ob-2) and 'empathic listening' (Dek-obs-4). When presented with natural speaking opportunities, the students were excited and the researcher could sense they wanted

to carry on for much longer than the teacher allowed. In sum, the difficulty of the teaching materials, insufficient speaking opportunities in the classroom, nativeness of the teacher, and perfectionism stemming from career objectives predict FLA in Dek.

6.4.3 Doh University

Nao-Doh is a female NNEST who taught without a course syllabus and has no interest in using any textbook. She dressed smart-casually in all lessons observed. Her opinion on dress code was "Not that it matters. I would like to wear something that makes me feel relaxed. I don't, I almost never wear suit". Half of the interview respondents described her tone in class as businesslike. Dor-Doh sums up thus:

> "She is formal in her speech. She is very strict… But she expects perfect English from her students. But I would like her to be friendlier and accept all responses or answers from students as OK. If she does this, the class will be much better and enjoyable"

Her entire lessons focused on the pronunciation of limited vocabulary from a song. According to her, "before they start practising…they have a chance to study English structure; grammar". The lesson was conducted in L1 and L2 was obvious only when the students were responding to drills. With his limited L1 skill, the researcher could not ascertain how the lesson was unfolding and the context in which the grammatical items were used. On self-perception as a language teacher, Nao-Doh commented that "I am a teacher of Linguistics and teaching English to students is only a part of my duty, so mmm…. That is why I cannot really say I am a keen teacher of English". She added that "The point is, here, they focus on Education, English language is not important in this university". Given this and her earlier comment in which she dismissed L2 skill ranking as "complete nonsense", speaking is thus portrayed as a non-essential skill in the L2 learning process.

The lessons were premised on singing an English song and pronunciation was the only assessment criterion. Learning was primarily assessment driven and students had to give a good performance; this means aiming at perfection to earn the course grades. In reiterating the assessment criterion, Nao-Doh responded "It is obvious, pronunciation, you can hear",

but Aga-Doh is ignorant of this and assumes that voice pitch forms the basis of assessment. Another respondent Dor-Doh stated that "Teacher should not require perfect English when students respond. When students make mistakes, teacher should welcome and accept this… make this acceptable". During the lesson, when students were singled out, the teacher expected perfect pronunciation which made the students anxious. Similarly, Liu (2006, 2009) reported anxiety felt by learners who were singled out to speak in class. Some students, for example, Kas-Doh, claimed that the song sheet was difficult and cannot develop their speaking skill and were anxious as a result. For instance, "When I don't understand the English, I get confused. It is difficult to understand English. I don't know what to do. I felt anxious and was nervous when the teacher asked me to answer" (Nai-Doh/Doh-obs-2).

As student teachers, four interview participants claim the status of the university negatively affects their confidence, and the teacher expectation such as "most of them are only interested in grades and lacking the motivation to be teachers" seems to suggest that L2 learning is all about becoming teachers. Although the students apparently enjoyed the singing, the teacher expressed her frustration with their attitude of putting up a good performance when she is observing, which then drops as soon as she walks away. Obviously, perfect pronunciation of some vocabulary items from a song sheet is insufficient to develop L2 oral proficiency. Without practising natural conversation in the classroom context, learners would have difficulties developing speaking skills. Moreover, the teaching material used did not provide opportunities for natural communication as the lesson was conducted mostly in L1 with L2 manifesting during drills and translation. It was also during translation and singing practice that students experienced most anxiety. The fact that the students were at their best when the teacher was observing the group confirms that their performance was linked to assessment which corroborates the teacher's opinion of students' attitude; that is studying for grades.

6.4.4 Pok University

Jun-Pok is female NNEST who dressed formally to school daily and spoke with a businesslike tone in class. Some students described her as unfriendly, of unknown character or of varied personality. Kim-Pok sums up as follows:

> "I feel she is a good teacher but I don't like her. I think she is really strict, and her face looks like … serious. I don't like serious people. She is not friendly".

Her "Practical English" lessons focused mostly on grammar translation. Speaking tasks used less than one-sixth of the class time and the students spoke mostly from textbooks or worksheet. This was done in dyads to which Kim-Pok commented that "pairs use Japanese and teacher does not see it or check" (see Pok-obs-2). Jun-Pok's teaching approach was corroborated with interview data such as "In my English class, we learn vocabulary mainly. Not conversation but grammar learning class, same as JHS and SHS. Reading English sentences from the textbook - teacher should do this" (Tay-Pok, see also Pok-obs-4). The teacher admitted that the textbook did not contain enough speaking tasks which corroborated students' opinions. For instance, Tay-Pok claimed the text is rigid and Uko-Pok added that

> "It is not good… It is old. I think the name of the class is called "Useful English" but it is not useful. I think useful English need more person to person communication, not reading from book".

The basis for Uko-Pok's comment was obvious in all four observations. The textbook dialogue was in American English and students had difficulties understanding some of the American expressions used in the CD (Pok-obs-3). This brings to fore arguments against the Anglocentric view of English (Effiong, 2009b; Fukuda, 2010; Honna, 2008; Honna & Takeshita, 1998; Kawai, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 1998; Matsuda, 2009; Miyagi et al, 2009; Sugimoto, 2008) made clear in Section 2.4., and the use of teaching materials capable of stunting learners' attempts at natural communication.

Other interview participants described the observed lesson as boring (Kim-Pok), tiring (Kei-Pok), and feeling pressured (Aka-Pok). The teacher's retrospection on observed lessons was "Nothing I would like to change about today's class. I have many classes and don't have time to support the students in that way. Moreover, this is not an English school". When asked to comment on the students' attitude to L2 learning, her perception of the students was that "many of them don't want to study English and just want the credit". Similar opinions were expressed by Nao-Doh, another NNEST. Her comment "He (Rod-Pok) has office hours, so students can go to him during office hours" exonerates her from teaching speaking skills in class thus shifting the responsibility to a NEST. Claiming that the students study for credits seems to justify her perception of her learners as well as her lack of commitment to helping them develop speaking skill.

The teacher dressed formally on all occasions and some Pok respondents commented that "If teacher wear suit or formal dress, I feel nervous. I must, I think I must sit still in class (Uko-Pok) and "Yes, more anxiety because when they wear tie, and really formal, you think you will take exam" (Kim-Pok). However, Jun-Pok defends her dress code by stating that "It doesn't matter I think, even though I dress casually it doesn't change anything... but to control my class, I think it is better to dress formally". In brief, without offering opportunities for functional use of English in class, learner confidence and L2 self-concept remain low. The teacher personality and appearance raise the anxiety levels of the learners because when learners perceive the teacher as being unfriendly and strict, they become uncomfortable in class. Therefore, the dearth of speaking opportunities, inappropriate teaching materials and teacher variables mostly predict FLA in Pok University.

In conclusion, given the freedom to design the course syllabus, the NNESTs in this study did not emphasise speaking to any great extent, and this is consistent with Matsuura et al's (2004) findings. Although the students in their study preferred the teacher-centred traditional approach, they also acknowledged that speaking was more important than grammar. The students in Pok, Doh and Dek were critical of their teachers' approaches and would prefer to learn more communication skills. The translation style in Pok and Doh discourage learners from processing texts directly in English, and consequently, they cannot express their ideas in English spontaneously. Taguchi and Naganuma (2006) reported similar findings. Other studies (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Madsen, Brown & Jones, 1991; Young, 1991c) have shown that FLA levels rise during translation tasks. Furthermore, as trainee teachers, these learners may tend to emulate the teacher and aim at accurate or perfect L2 performance. Pan et al (2010) report that the more emulative the participants tended to be, the higher their FLA levels. Likewise, Gürses et al (2010) report that anxiety is caused by the fear of being unsuccessful and the thought of failure affects learners' L2 values.

These participants do not have the pleasure of learning L2 for natural communication; rather, they study for extrinsic rewards only (Hashimoto & Fukuda, 2011) without cultivating L2 speaking habits. The insistence on perfect pronunciation and producing accurate utterances

equally limit their freedom to speak in class. In the same vein, Dan-Dek, a NEST, who conducted his lessons in L2, adopted a similar approach that is rooted in grammar teaching that the students have learnt over six years of compulsory English language education. The exasperation is obvious in comments offered by all participants. If the teachers can provide more speaking opportunities, the learners' confidence, rather than anxiety, will grow and future L2 classroom speaking experiences will be less daunting.

6.5 Effect of classroom social factors on FLA

To answer RQ4 fully, the results of the interviews and observations are of essence. Where possible, some of the analysis offered for RQs 2 and 3 would be referenced to fully support RQ4. In general, the language classroom is a social context with all the features of the outside world and interaction takes place within this. The social goals can be learner-oriented and meaningfully contextualised by the teacher to encourage L2 learning. However, the classroom environment as mediated by the teacher imposes limits to learner production. We will begin with teacher characteristics and learner perceptions of the teacher and their effect on FLA. Following this will be a discussion on learner characteristics, peer relationships, and the general classroom atmosphere.

6.5.1 The teacher

The classroom atmosphere has a direct impact on communication confidence because a pleasant learning environment is capable of raising learner confidence and consequently lessening anxiety. Therefore, the participants' preferences and perceptions were sought to establish the type of classroom environment that can reduce anxiety. Overall, the responses on gender preference cancelled out because roughly equal numbers of participants preferred either male or female teacher. Besides Dek where all participants prefer a same sex teacher, other respondents prefer teachers of opposite gender. This is particularly significant in Pok and Doh where 68% and 72% respectively of the students are female and the teachers are female. This means that this significant proportion of students would prefer male teachers with whom they can potentially build a better interpersonal relationship.

The preferred teacher age ranges from twenty to sixty years of age. However, with 84% claiming that teachers aged fifty and above will significantly increase their FLA level, the trend suggests that the older the language teachers, the higher the learners' anxiety level in class. The participants' age ranges from nineteen to thirty three, and given that half of the respondents actually indicate that teachers aged over forty will raise their FLA level; the learners will feel more comfortable with young teachers who will "understand what they think or do" (Imo-Dek). Therefore the apparent gulf between the older teachers and the learners will impact on the degree of cohesiveness that the learners can feel in the language classroom and consequently limit interactional opportunities with the teacher.

On teacher's friendliness, formality and dress code, a majority of the participants claim the teachers are friendly but the three female participants from Pok, who would prefer a male teacher, rated their teacher as unfriendly. Kim-Pok admits that Jun-Pok maybe a good teacher but "her face looks like serious" which presents an unfriendly appearance. Similarly, to make the classroom atmosphere better and enjoyable, Dor-Doh would like Nao-Doh to be friendlier and less formal in her speech. Again, it may be that a friendly teacher appearance and not using businesslike tone can help learners to relax, feel more comfortable and less anxious in L2 classrooms.

Humour is equally important in the language classroom and learners are inclined to speak more in a humorous class than in one devoid of humour. Most of the participants admit their willingness to make mistakes in a humorous class without any effect on their FLA level. Besides Pok where no student considered the teacher funny; "I never see her smile. I only see her *nigawarai*" (wry humour) (Kim-Pok), half of the participants from each institution indicate that the teacher is funny. While teacher humour may help learners feel less anxious, cultural differences can hamper the effectiveness of teacher jokes. Some of the students taught by NESTs claim they do not understand or follow their jokes.

Notably, nineteen participants claimed that they are more anxious when the teacher dresses formally on coming to class. In this case, dressing formally to class means wearing skirt suits, jackets and ties which combine to predict FLA. The students do not expect their teacher to

present a professional appearance in the language classroom because when dressed smart-casually, learners become less anxious. Formal appearance makes the learners nervous and fearful, hence, they relate to the teacher differently. Participants find it more difficult to initiate informal communication and some believe they must sit still in class and as if waiting to write an exam. For this reason, the teacher who dresses formally seems scary, unapproachable and less friendly. The two male American teachers largely agree with the students and aim for a midpoint in dress whereas the two female Japanese teachers do not think dress code influences learner anxiety. Jun-Pok claims that by dressing formally, she is able to control the class better. This corroborates the students' perception of her as unfriendly, strict and having a varied or unknown personality which invariably creates a less relaxed classroom atmosphere.

6.5.2 The classroom environment

The interview data also reveals that a quiet classroom raises learners' FLA level because the rest of the class focuses on the speaker and the tension arising from such silence causes the nominated student to speak with hesitation. With some background noise, students would attempt to speak English with a raised voice, whereas a silent class will make them speak with less confidence and a diminishing voice (cf: Tsui, 1996). The observation data shows that some students chatted noisily with great disinterest in the lessons taught by NNESTs. Such a negative attitude towards L2 class has been reported to contribute to overall FLA levels experienced by learners (Goshi, 2005; Mak, 2011).

Generally, it is not unusual for students to laugh at other students' mistakes in class. More than half of the respondents said they would laugh at errors and a further third would only laugh if the mistakes are not "serious". Although laughter is capable of lightening the mood in class, it also has the propensity to stifle the development of speaking skills because some learners would rather remain tongue-tied than risk appearing foolish before their classmates. FLA is therefore raised because speakers aim at perfect utterances to avoid being laughed at by peers. For example, if Miu-Nuk makes mistakes and everyone laughs, she comments that "I don't want to attend such class". Similarly, Kim-Pok added that "I really think if I make mistake and someone laugh, laugh me, I don't want to use English in front of much people".

Such responses from Miu-Nuk and Kim-Pok suggest that mockery may, in addition, lead to absenteeism. However, within the same Japanese cultural learning context, albeit involving high school learners, Kurihara (2006) reports that a silent reaction to student error is perceived as a threat to the speaker's ego and considered disrespectful. On the other hand, laughter reflects compassion and sympathy while silence denotes coldness; a reaction caused by disappointment or boredom. The majority of the participants in my study did not seem to mind being laughed at. Some claim that laughter lightens the classroom atmosphere and the fact that others will laugh at their erroneous utterances is sufficient for them to join the laughter whenever the opportunity arises. However, further probing would have revealed more about this aspect of the particular L2 classroom culture which was studied.

6.5.2.1 Peer collaboration

A great majority of the participants state that they collaborate rather than compete with their peers and two thirds gave a good or fair rating to group atmosphere. Regarding familiarity, learners are more willing to communicate with friends than with unfamiliar classmates. Most of them claim that unfamiliar mates raise their FLA level. Groups that comprised familiar members were observed (Doh-obs-2, Nuk-obs-1) to be less anxious and more productive; similar to findings by Kurihara (2008). Besides, the nationality of the group members can influence how others react to the task situation. As discussed earlier in relation to RQ2, the Japanese students in Nuk are influenced by their more willing and proficient Chinese counterparts (Nuk-obs-3). One participant, Aro-Nuk, blames the bad atmosphere on the Chinese students "speaking endlessly". Whereas, one would have expected this to motivate and encourage the Japanese students to emulate their foreign counterparts and become more proficient, in this case, low L2 concept in comparison with peers contributes to FLA. Yan and Horwitz (2008) report that peer comparison is an immediate source of anxiety, and Strauss et al (2011) claim that international students resort to working in homogeneous groups after being continually rebuffed by domestic students.

Similarly, eighty percent of the participants claim that working with the opposite gender during group or dyad tasks raises their FLA levels. The dichotomous seating preference of the students is a carryover from the lower tiers where learners prefer to sit with students of

similar gender. Often, attempts by teachers to create groups of mixed gender results in low productivity as evident in the observation data (Doh-obs-2). Same gender seating arrangement tends to help students feel comfortable and perform better in groups or dyads, hence the anxiety experienced in some mixed gender groups.

Beyond gender, eighty percent of the participants claim that they feel pressure working with introverts in groups or dyads and their FLA level is raised because introverts will speak less thus making the extroverted partner speak more. This compares with MacIntyre (2007) who claims that in a moderately unfamiliar situation extroverts show higher WTC than introverts. With such an overwhelming majority preferring to work with extroverts, it is difficult to determine who the introverts are in class. The teacher needs to identify these traits and form groups to ensure optimum participation by all group members.

6.5.3 Learner variables

6.5.3.1 Perfectionism

Whereas almost all the participants agree on the one hand that it is acceptable to make mistakes when speaking English, the interview data shows that some would aim at perfect English to meet professional expectations. That is, perfection is not required in normal conversation, but as trainee English teachers, mistakes are not acceptable. It was Uko-Pok's opinion that "only good English speaker can be good English teacher". Another reason proffered by half of the respondents is the desire to use perfect English in order to convey the right message to the listening partner. Indeed, additional pressure comes from low L2 self-concept and the guilt associated with errors even when the speaker thinks it is acceptable for the interlocutor to make mistakes when speaking the L2. These learners feel ashamed because of low self-confidence, and unwarranted expectations of themselves as English users such as the belief that they are expected to speak perfect English especially with non-Japanese. This erroneous impression stems from the lack of awareness of how English is used in other cultural contexts. For example, Kim-Pok was surprised to learn that most Italians or Germans do not necessarily speak perfect English when communicating with other English speakers. She stated that she "wants to be like them"; meaning her preference for the attitude shown by non-English Europeans.

By insisting on perfect utterances, as is common in classes taught by JTEs, learners then believe that inaccurate utterances, even when the meaning is conveyed, are not acceptable in L2 communication. As a result, students expect to be corrected every time a mistake is made. This is further illustrated in Kyo-Doh's statement that "teacher doesn't grade me… I have to answer perfectly, I feel pressure". It follows that adopting a critical attitude towards the learners' L2 use or unjustified error correction, and learners' preoccupation with course grades as shown here predict FLA. Similar findings have been reported in the literature (Koga, 2009; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Kikuchi, 2005; Liu, 2006; Luele, 2010; Piniel, 2006; Toth, 2007). It thus becomes a vicious cycle as these trainee teachers take this perfectionist attribute into their professional life and become intolerant of learner mistakes. Classroom speaking opportunities are stifled because teachers would speak L2 only if their utterances are perfect and expect same from their learners. As discussed in Section 2.5, JTEs often feel their authority in class would be eroded if they made mistakes while speaking English (Honna, 2008; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Miyazato, 2009; Warren-Price, 2007).

The argument by some participants that communication errors might lead to financial loss to their organisations may seem plausible, but in natural communication, there is provision for confirmation checks and meaning negotiation. Teaching approaches that incorporate these communication strategies can allay such fears and reduce anxiety. For the most part, such tendency towards perfectionism contributes to the communication apprehension reported in this study. A similar link between perfectionism and anxiety has been shown in the literature (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Koga, 2010; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Liu & Littlewood, 1997; Miyazato, 2002).

6.5.3.2 International Posture

The participants' self-perception of L2 proficiency plays an important role in determining their ideal self. Although two thirds of the participants have travelled abroad and more than half visited English-speaking countries, some claim that their low level L2 speaking skill is not sufficient to live abroad. Another obstacle is the perceived level of English proficiency required by multinational companies if they were to seek employment overseas. Some admit

that their inability to speak English in class discourages them from having a positive international posture. They will also feel sad to move around in a foreign country if they cannot speak English. Negative self-evaluation, low self-confidence and high L2 goals account for the negative international posture reported. This negativity is even more noticeable among participants who have never travelled abroad. They insist on living and working in Japan because "if I cannot speak English, I cannot go abroad, communicate with foreigners or live there". These learners perceive English as a language to be used abroad and not within Japan with other English speakers (cf: Honna, 2008; Kikuchi. 2005). Yashima (2002) reports similar findings in which international posture influences learners' willingness to communicate in English. By raising their motivational propensity and confidence, these learners could develop a more positive international posture.

6.6 Implications for ELT

The results obtained from this study have a number of significant implications for English language teaching and learning in Japan and beyond. Some specific suggestions will be made as to how pedagogic practice especially in the Japanese EFL context can be reviewed to take into accounts the major findings of this study. The perspectives developed here on FLA have wide ranging implications for promoting L2 oral skills.

6.6.1 Low self-confidence

Beginning with the nature of anxiety experienced by the participants, the emergence of low self-confidence as the strongest factor suggests that, the Japanese learning culture, influenced by the general Asian culture, permeates the classroom and influences L2 oral performance. In other words, the cultural dimension to ELT cannot be ignored. By examining the communication conventions of the Japanese culture, however, L2 classroom communicative strategies can be shaped to incorporate elements of the host culture. As pointed out in Chapter 2, in contrast with Western individualism, Asians tend to be group-oriented, and individuals would rather avoid uncertainty and fit in by regulating self for the sake of the group rather than stick out (Claro, 2008; Graham-Marr, 2008; Wakui, 2006). Consequently, having oral presentations or answering teacher questions while the whole class listens does not conform to cultural norms in which modesty is a virtue. The fact that learners do not want to be seen

as showing off contributes to low participation in oral activities in class. Therefore, by de-emphasising this teaching approach and providing opportunity for frequent group tasks; that is having learners in comfort zones representing a microcosm of the larger cultural context, they will be more inclined to risk speaking the L2. Importantly, group tasks also discourage a teacher-centred instructional style by negating the “input only” approach that undervalues output.

As a rule, practice makes perfect. The dearth of speaking opportunities partly accounts for the low self-confidence reported in this study. When learners are provided with regular speaking opportunities, this promotes greater learner autonomy, build confidence, enhance positive self-perception of language competence, and boost learner enthusiasm to speak English.

6.6.2 Teaching Approaches

There is a direct association between the learning outcome, the teaching method and the materials used in class. Course materials, whether designed or adapted by the teacher or unmodified off-the shelf commercial materials, should reflect the proficiency level of the learners. The teaching of grammar that relies solely on written language norms is confounding, inappropriate to communicative needs of the learners and limits the development of oracy. Classroom oral tasks should comprise intrinsic features which mirror natural conversations, not textbook extracts that merely highlight usage of grammatical items. Instead of feeding learners with abstractions and unnatural forms found in recommended texts, personalising lesson materials within the social context of learners could create a sense of belonging and community feeling among them.

In addition, the use of appropriate error correction techniques by the JTEs will assure learners that making mistakes is part of discourse in any language and thereby discountenance perfectionism. To be more precise, language teachers need to promote risk-taking in class while at the same time showing sensitivity to individual differences by adopting a non-punitive approach to error correction. The JTE’s class should serve as a venue where these learners begin to develop certain competences and by the time they go the NEST’s class, a

certain level of confidence has been attained, whereby they do not perceive native Standard English as the only valid form of spoken English. Expecting these leaners to speak pure American/British English, a virtual impossibility, merely raises their performance anxiety because when learners compare their actual and potential abilities with expected native level ability, they simply give up trying, and as a result, no English is spoken. Importantly, by drawing on their experiences as language learners, the JTEs can empathise and support the learners to overcome communication apprehension and develop the L2 self-concept that will make them effective users of English. In essence, without an active involvement and reorientation of the JTEs, the quest to develop L2 communicative abilities among Japanese learners will remain a vicious cycle. The learning goals are largely influenced by the teaching goals. When these goals do not relate to everyday communication, learners then come to believe that meeting graduation requirements, the success of which is determined by examination, is the main purpose of learning a foreign language.

6.6.3 NEST/NNEST

The current practice in tertiary institutions is to employ native or near-native speakers of English to teach communication while the JTEs can teach grammar in separate classes. A more integrated approach to language teaching in which the JTEs teach all language skills is desirable. Without doubt, JTEs in the tertiary institutions have attained the level of L2 proficiency that enables them to communicate in English as an international language. By teaching oral communication, the grammar learnt in their L2 classrooms can be readily put into practical use rather than expecting learners to apply the knowledge of grammar in communication classes taught by NESTs.

Participants in this study have indicated that they are less anxious in classes taught by JTEs in comparison to NESTs, because JTEs can empathise and “their English” is “near to learners’ English”. Engaging in oral tasks in classes taught by JTEs will not only address the disparity between so called Standard English and Japanese English, but will also allow the learners to view the JTE as a role model thus increasing their motivation to speak the L2. Although some interview participants indicate their preference for NESTs, and arguably, what seems important is pedagogy and teaching style in improving learners’ level of and enthusiasm for

spoken English, however, verbal interaction between the teacher and learners in L2 is key. In communicating with native speakers, the discomfort arises from the knowledge that the learners' spoken English competence is infinitesimal compared with native speaker standards. Whereas, emulating JTEs in class and speaking freely without the demands of native level English will encourage the learners to build their L2 self-concept, be confident and more productive in class. Data obtained from this study confirms that Japanese learners do not speak English with their JTEs. However, L2 communication between JTEs and learners in and outside of the classroom will strengthen the development of the Japanese variety of English which equally reflects the cultural context in which they study. Moreover, this will raise learners' consciousness of the plurality of varieties of English (Fukuda, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 1998; Honna & Takeshita, 1998; Seargeant, 2005), especially the Asian varieties that sound close to the local Japanese variety, and consequently enable them to feel more comfortable speaking "their" English.

6.6.4 Peer relations

Another important issue is the Japanese students' perception of their foreign counterparts, especially the Chinese. This particular perspective on peer relationship uncovered in this research has important implications for ELT in Japan. It highlights the need to understand how cultural contexts influence interpersonal relations and learning behaviours. The data obtained from Nuk illuminates the disparity in L2 speaking approaches between the Japanese and Chinese learners. Obviously, the Chinese students adopt a different approach to L2 speaking as acknowledged by a Nuk respondent. Perhaps the Japanese culture of not wanting to stick out portrays the Chinese as exact opposite. The undercurrent of resentment towards the Chinese students noted in this study may be better understood by appraising the learners' attitude to L2 speaking in both countries, and raising learners' consciousness of any conflicting political issues by using cross-cultural lesson materials.

Furthermore, in designing lesson materials and forming groups, teachers should be cognizant of the Japanese culture without ignoring the background cultures of the international students, and strive for a harmonious classroom atmosphere. While the cultural content of lesson materials should be rich and reflective of the local culture, whenever reference is made to

exotic culture, this should be in comparison with local alternatives to promote understanding. In pursuance of the above, an L2 syllabus seeking to promote intercultural communication should encompass intercultural awareness of Asian regional cultures. Lessons materials based on international relations especially between Japan and its neighbours will provide a balanced view of the political and diplomatic issues between these neighbours. The rationale behind this is that Japanese learners will make informed decision which should shape interpersonal relations in the language classroom. Such understanding can improve harmony in the L2 classroom and perhaps change their perception of the Chinese students.

6.6.5 The teacher

Unlike sportspersons, teachers cannot afford to retire at an early age of forty or fifty. As reported in this study, whilst older teachers contribute more to L2 anxiety, a combination of teacher attributes can negate this factor. Language teachers should strive for a dress code that seems friendly, and approachable, portrays a likeable personality, and is capable of making the students feel comfortable in class. Formal appearance creates an artificial barrier to interpersonal relations; a key ingredient to developing L2 speaking skill. The language classroom should be perceived by learners as a social venue and not purely an academic environment.

For learners to develop rapport and build confidence, language teachers should encourage mixed gender grouping from the commencement of the programme because anxiety resulting from sitting with the opposite gender can be reduced if familiarity is bred early in the programme. Learners can be tuned to feel comfortable with each other using intragroup icebreakers and establishing group norms that cater to the diverse interests and personality traits of members. In doing this, paying close attention to cultural and social variables is essential because the larger social circumstances can limit the extent of intragroup interaction. However, an engaging classroom environment in which learners look beyond gender and introversion should lower inhibition and increase willingness to communicate in group settings.

It may well be possible to implement these recommendations within a single classroom if the teacher is committed to it. However, what is required is a university wide policy that ensures that all language teachers are in agreement and teaching goals and learning outcomes are synchronised. Recommendations on how to reduce communication apprehension through pedagogy are best effected through curricular changes. In doing so, culture-specific needs of the Japanese learners as suggested by Tani-Fukichi (2005) should be addressed within the framework of the curriculum. Lesson materials enriched with local cultural content, role plays acted by Japanese or Asian characters perhaps in tandem with native English speakers, promoting L2 use within and outside the classroom to debunk the myth of English as a language to be used outside of Japan, and ensuring that learners feel comfortable with the variety of English they speak should help build confidence and raise L2 communicative competence. Importantly, the JTEs and students should be weaned off the belief that it is unnatural for two Japanese to speak English.

6.7 Limitations of the research

This study shares a number of limitations with most FLA studies. The limitations of the research instruments employed in this study have been extensively discussed in Chapter 4. Prior to this, more of the limitations of FLCAS in particular were highlighted in Chapter 3. However, reflecting on the whole research, it is pertinent to point out other limitations of the study. First is the nature of the classroom and participants and the fact that it was not possible to observe four lessons taught by four different teachers but with a common teaching goal. The research focus was on speaking and the researcher's intention was to observe CLT-based lessons in different universities. The fact that Japanese school year begins in April while data collection commenced in October was a major hindrance to the research because, as the researcher was informed, most of the CLT courses are taught in the first semester. On the other hand, this apparent setback offers a different perspective to the research by bringing to the forefront the differences such as the nativeness of the teachers and teaching goals.

Second is the fact that the researcher could only study one class/one teacher per institution. Given the freedom teachers have, it is doubtful how the selected teachers were representative of their particular institutions. By studying four teachers and their diverse classroom practices,

the institution and the teacher got conflated. This limits to some extent how far the institutional RQ can be answered.

Another limitation to the study is the non-uniformity in the proficiency of the participants. None of the participating universities except Doh could offer classes comprising students of uniform L2 proficiency. Notwithstanding, all the participants manifested varying degrees of anxiety including participants from Nuk who were comparatively more advanced.

The number of participants is the most obvious limitation because a population of 300 or more is considered good for factor analytical studies. In this study, the number of participants was sufficient for fair statistical analysis, as the overall sample size was sufficient to identify the nature of anxiety experienced by these learners and support its generalisability. Nevertheless, a larger sample size per institution would have allowed the researcher to explore differences among the institutions more fully. That is, a sample size of one hundred and fifty per institution might have produced statistical variations among the institutions and thus buttress data triangulation and generalisability of the findings.

Lastly, the researcher's L1 proficiency was equally a limitation. Where the interview was conducted in L1, the researcher was limited to asking the planned questions and could not extend the discussion to uncover others emerging from the interview themes. Greater knowledge of the participants' L1 would have enabled him to probe further and provided a richer interview outcome. Conversely, some participants who would have contributed more in L1 viewed the interview as a precious opportunity, that is lacking in the classrooms, to practise the L2, and consequently were limited in the L2 responses offered.

6.8 Evaluation of the study and suggestions for future research

To test the validity and reliability of the findings put forth in this study, more research is needed in the Japanese and general Asian contexts. This is particularly relevant to confirming the distinctive nature of FLA suffered by Asian EFL learners, and to support or debunk

assumptions made here on learner self-confidence. Secondly, and equally importantly from the perspective of this study, there should be more longitudinal large scale studies in Japanese universities and across several institutional types to make the findings more generalizable. Obviously, such a bigger study should involve more teachers per institution, larger student samples per institution and an English test administered to provide an objective measure of L2 proficiency.

The Japanese students' perception of their Chinese counterpart surfaced late during data collection and the researcher could not obtain further data on this issue from other participants. An exploration of the sentiment shown, as well as of conversation conventions of the Japanese and their link to L2 learning may explain why other Asian EFL learners, such as the Chinese mentioned in this study, adopt a different attitude to L2 speaking as well as the resentment shown by the local students.

Particular attention needs to be paid to anxiety experienced by trainee teachers by testing their beliefs and L2 expectations. Results obtained here suggest that this particular category of learners suffer higher levels of FLA than other majors sampled. Further research on FLA among trainee teachers would most appropriately address how learner expectations can be managed and the nature of intervention programmes that can be tailor-made for trainee teachers.

Additionally, it is also suggested that certain FLA predictors such as teacher age, teacher dress code, and interlocutor gender be investigated further to explain more fully some of the findings reported in this study.

The issue of NEST/NNEST as it relates to classroom practices and learner perceptions and their associations with FLA should be investigated. The development of this line of inquiry will clarify what classroom environment, and by whom, offers optimum L2 opportunities to learners who are less anxious and more willing to communicate in English.

Finally, future L2 anxiety studies conducted in Japan should adapt FLCAS to include items reflecting the local learning context which may unveil more evidence concerning the cultural dimension of FLA.

6.9 Summary and Conclusion

This chapter has fully described the outcome of the current research. It has identified three distinct dimensions of L2 anxiety suffered by the participants. It has explained further the importance of low self-confidence among Japanese learners in particular and Asians in general. Not only did low self-confidence surface in quantitative results, but it was intrinsically linked to the interview data and to other variables such as perfectionism and international posture. An exploration of the relationships between the natures of the institutions, nativeness of the teacher, and FLA has also been offered. However, while there was a flattening effect reported for status of the institutions, there were sufficient variations across institutional boundaries to suggest that the student discipline may play additional role in influencing FLA. What is more, the outcome of this study adds to the debate of the desirability and usefulness of FLCAS in the Japanese context that is culturally different from the ESL context the tool was originally designed for.

In this chapter, the teacher and learner variables and consequent effects on FLA were also discussed. Notable is the prediction of anxiety by older teachers, the teachers' dress code and the interlocutor's gender. The pedagogic implications of the study were also discussed, followed by an assessment of the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research. In conclusion, notwithstanding the limitations highlighted, it is hoped that the findings from this study will broaden our understanding of the FLA construct and lead to the development of teaching practices that reflect the cultural context in which the L2 is learned.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will present a summary of the thesis. It will begin with a recap of the rationale for the study and reference will made to the literature reviewed which ultimately cumulated in the formulation of the research questions. Following this will be the summary of the major findings and the limitations of the research. Finally, it will consider the contributions and implications of the research study.

7.2 Research rationale

This research stemmed from my curiosity to explore why Japanese learners have difficulties speaking English despite the expressed willingness to do so. My attempt to uncover the underlying reasons for communication apprehension shown by these learners led to a series of preliminary questions. The failure of these learners to match their linguistic knowledge with corresponding oracy increased my desire to explore the role of the institution, teacher, teaching approaches, learning culture and learner variables in the development of L2 oral skills. Chiefly, cultural ethos (Wakui, 2006) as it relates to L2 learning was of significance in the build-up to the study, hence the need to have an understanding of the development of ELT in Japan before exploring the effects of anxiety on L2 speaking.

I have also appraised the evolution of English language education in Japan, and pointed out inconsistencies in policy formulation and implementation. In spite of the seeming effort by the government, ELT in Japan lacks the appropriate foundation to ensure that learners are equipped with the oral skills they would need to communicate at national, regional, and

international levels with other users of English. Furthermore, I have reviewed the role of culture in language learning especially within the Asian context in which learners are supposedly more anxious than learners in other contexts (Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003; Woodrow, 2006), especially the Japanese (Claro, 2008; Valentine, 1997; Penner, 2011). We noted impediments of cultural dimensions impacting on both the implementation of English language education policies at the national level, and the development of oral skills at the personal level. Broader cultural and linguistic attitudes interrelate to influence what goes on in the classroom, and in turn this affects individual learners' attitudes toward L2 and their willingness to speak English.

There is need to reappraise the goals of ELT in Japan through which L2 classroom instruction can evolve to emphasise more oral activities and to offer learners greater speaking opportunities necessary to overcome reticence and build fluency. According to Law (1995), communicative approaches require an ideological underpinning that is internationalist and consciously constructed. Against a backdrop of over a hundred years of grammar translation method, and as the findings of this study suggest, by orientating English language learning towards examinations, English is learned as an academic subject instead of a language with social functions. Assessment-driven L2 study does not foster learner autonomy and neither can it promote L2 oral skill along the lines of the egalitarian ideals suggested in MEXT guidelines. As Japan continues to push for communicative competence in English, perceptions of English need to be changed to reflect its international nature, thereby making way to promote varieties of English that the Japanese learners are comfortable with. Importantly, without reorienting language teachers through in-service training, and providing stronger common curriculum guidelines, the form-focused teaching ideology prevalent in most classrooms will remain an impediment to communicative use of English.

For this particular study, the research hypotheses giving rise to the research questions have been discussed and the choice of a mixed methodology involving quantitative and qualitative data has been justified. The research instruments have been discussed at depth and their limitations pointed out. By attempting to explore anxiety systematically in English lessons in different classroom contexts and in terms of triangulated methodology, our awareness of the underlying factors causing anxiety within and across institutional settings has been raised.

The aim of this study was to view the anxiety construct not from a generic perspective, but through a culture-specific lens capable of providing new challenges in anxiety research. Consequently, the research questions partly drew on the findings in Asian anxiety literature and our understanding of Japan as enunciated in Chapter 2 to show associations of local pedagogy and culture with L2 anxiety. By examining the anxiety construct through this cultural lens, this study has shed more light on how the learning culture, an adjunct of the local culture, influences learners' L2 learning approaches and consequently, anxiety. Beyond using FLCAS, I explored institutional factors, enquired into the teaching of both native speaker/non-native speaker teachers, power relations in the classroom, peer relationships, and other dimensions.

7.3 Research questions, research methodology and findings.

The research aims were addressed with the following four research questions:

1) *What is the nature and level of FLA obtaining among Japanese students learning English as a foreign language?*
2) *What institutional factors influence foreign language classroom anxiety?*
   a) How do these factors influence learners' attitude to learning English?
   b) How do institutional factors affect the availability of speaking opportunities?
3) *What pedagogic factors influence foreign language classroom anxiety?*
   a) How do these factors influence the learning of speaking skills?
   b) What relationships exist between speaking opportunities and FLA?
   c) How do teacher variables influence speaking skills and consequently FLA?
4) *What social factors within the classroom influence foreign language anxiety?*
   a) How does classroom atmosphere impact on FLA?
   b) What learner variables influence FLA?
   c) How do interactional features affect speaking skills and FLA?

I identified three distinct dimensions of L2 anxiety suffered by the participants which do not reflect the three classical domains conceptualised by Horwitz et al (1986) as constituting the FLA construct. These are: self-confidence, communication apprehension, and classroom

performance related anxiety. The loading of .5 loading used in the quantitative analysis precisely delineate the FLCAS variables that associate with the identified factors. This, and FLA scores obtained across the institutions, fully answered the first research question. The emergence of low self-confidence as the strongest dimension is significant because it compares with similar Asian anxiety studies (Cheng et al, 1999; Liu, 2009; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). Furthermore, the identification of three dimensions of L2-related anxiety, excluding test anxiety, supports its elimination as a distinct domain of L2 anxiety because learners exhibit anxiety towards tests generally, and for this reason, test anxiety cannot therefore be restricted to foreign languages.

Self-confidence is conceptually related to FLA (Cheng et al, 1999; Clément et al, 1994; Gardner et al, 1997; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Tsui, 1996). The study lends support to the association of low self-confidence with Japanese learners in particular and Asians in general. A notable finding from the literature is that in comparison with others, Japanese EFL learners tend to have the highest FLA scores, even within Asia. In describing Asian L2 learners therefore, we need to make a distinction between Japan and the rest of the region.

Linked to self-confidence is the learners' self-concept of competence (Léger & Storch, 2009; Liu, 2009; Takada, 2003; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Of note in this study and others conducted in the Asian EFL context where culture combines with learner factors to influence FLA is the learners' self-comparison and negative perception of scholastic competence. Low self-confidence manifesting as discomfort and nervousness associated with communicating with native speakers or with more proficient course mates in turn lowers their ability to speak in class. This explains the anxiety experienced by Nuk students, for example, who are comparatively advanced in L2 use. In addition, without offering opportunities for functional use of English in class, learner confidence and L2 self-concept remain low.

To answer RQ2, this study however focused on the status of the institutions, and how learners' perception of their institution influences L2 anxiety. It was evident that the perceived status of the institution generally affected the participants' confidence and consequently FLA levels. Chief is the fact that the two teacher education institutions produced a larger proportion of

anxious students which suggests a more specific connection between FLA and institutional type. The study also explored how (non)availability of institutional support, network of interlocutors, technological and other teaching facilities and opportunities to use English beyond the classroom influenced teaching and learning approaches, and by extension, FLA. The effect of resources turned out to be a myth because although available, they were largely unutilised. Similarly, there was a flattening effect on comparative status of the institutions because all participants ranked their respective institution high, and this determined the motivational intensity of the learners, and consequently, their FLA level. Status alone does not fully account for the pressure reported, because the very nature of the institution and career goals were intrinsically linked to FLA. Indeed, these views reflect students who see themselves primarily as teachers, and secondarily as language users. Their heightened awareness of professional requirements, especially those who would be teaching in primary schools where English teaching has become mandatory and constant reminders from the teacher, aggravated their anxiety.

On the whole, FLA scores indicate that anxiety is not stable across instructional contexts (i.e. across different classrooms, as each institution in this study was represented by a single teacher and their class). This inconsistency suggests strongly that anxiety is associated with specific instructional techniques, learners at same or different proficiency levels, learning goals, learner and teacher personality both of which are independent variables, and level of support offered learners. This in effect validated my third hypothesis; learner anxiety level will depend on the pedagogic experiences that learners have in the L2 classroom. Moreover, the nativeness of the teacher played a role in determining the speaking opportunities available and in creating or ameliorating FLA in the classroom. In answering RQ3, findings from this study confirm that distinct instructional patterns as determined by the teacher; NEST and NNEST, bring about different degrees of anxiety in learners. It brings to light relevant data on how teaching approaches and the choice of materials affect learners' ability to develop speaking skills with direct consequence on FLA.

Other teacher factors influencing learner anxiety included teacher age, the teachers' dress code, tone of voice, and the gender of the interlocutor. Apart from this, the teacher

personality also raises the anxiety level of the learners because when learners perceive the teacher as being unfriendly and strict, they become uncomfortable in class.

Overall, the creation of a relaxed classroom atmosphere necessary for L2 learning largely depends on teacher variables and the interpersonal relationship existing between the teacher and the learners. In addition, the intergroup and intragroup relations, personality traits, as well as other learner variables play a vital role in how learners manage their anxiety. In answering RQ4, we noticed that perfectionism and introversion; both personality variables interacted with other social variables such as collaboration/competitiveness, and international posture to have direct influence on anxiety. Analysis of the interview data indicated that the classroom interactional patterns among learners influence FLA. From the interview data, within group or dyad settings, peer gender, introversion, as mentioned in this study, and familiarity contributed to FLA. In addition, the presence of international interlocutors was noted to impact on the Japanese learners' FLA. Whereas, one would have expected the presence of more proficient international students to motivate and encourage the Japanese students, this study has shown that jealousy, poor L2 attitude and low L2 concept in comparison with foreign students contribute to reticence and FLA. With such an array of issues combining to influence FLA in the classroom, all these predictors make FLA multidimensional, interacting with other elements such as situation-specific and context-dependent features of L2 instruction. This provides the answer to the fourth research question.

7.4 Summary and conclusion

In Chapter 2, we discussed ELT in Japan and various issues that impact on effective English learning. The learning culture, an offshoot of the general culture and pedagogic approaches are among the factors that hinder the development of speaking skills among the EFL learners in Japan. These have remained largely unaddressed in the anxiety studies conducted in Japan in particular. This limitation stems from the view of anxiety as universal without taking account of the culturally specific context of Japan. However, this study has uncovered an aspect that needs further investigation; that is variation in how Japanese learners, in comparison with their Chinese counterparts, approach L2 oracy.

The manifestations of anxiety in this study are linked to speaking situations in different L2 classrooms thereby adding to existing evidence that FLCAS measures primarily anxiety related to speaking situations. Notwithstanding, the outcome of this study lends credence to the debate on the usefulness of FLCAS in the Japanese context that is culturally different from the ESL context the tool was originally designed for. Doubts have been expressed on its construct validity and reliability in EFL contexts (Kawashima, 2009; Kondo & Yang, 2003) which then calls into question the desirability of using FLCAS generically without modification especially if the items contained therein are reflective of the three classic performance-related anxieties. By adapting the FLCAS to incorporate items reflecting the local cultural context, perhaps, a better understanding could be developed of the cultural underpinnings of low self-confidence in Asian anxiety studies.

This study has shown the value of a mixed method approach for studying FLA in depth. For the most part, observation data corroborated interview data on the participants' perceptions of teaching approaches, and teacher personality. There were also contradictions between teacher beliefs and what actually took place during the lesson. This study has highlighted how classroom facilities, teaching materials, teacher characteristics, and peer comparison impact anxiety, and the effect of native speaker interlocutor on FLA. Anxiety literature reports moderately negative correlation between learner anxiety scores and various measures of L2 proficiency. One limitation of this study was the absence of any formal measure of participants' actual L2 proficiency, so that these relationships could not be explored statistically here. However, the study amply demonstrates the influence of perceived L2 proficiency and of students' negative self-evaluations in particular on FLA.

Above all, it is hoped that the findings from this study will broaden our understanding of the FLA construct and lead to the development of teaching practices that promote L2 speaking. Without ample opportunities for practising natural conversation in the classroom context, with an appropriate language target, learners will have continuing difficulties developing speaking skills.

APPENDICES/DATA ANALYSIS SAMPLE

Appendix 1: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al, 1986).

SA = Strongly agree

A = Agree

N = Neither agree nor disagree

D = Disagree

SD = Strongly disagree

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

   SA A N D SD

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

   SA A N D SD

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

   SA A N D SD

4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.

   SA A N D SD

5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.

   SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

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

SA A N D SD

Appendix 2: FLCAS (Japanese Version)

Source: Yashima et al, (2009)

外国語教室不安尺度（FLCAS）（本研究において* は逆転項目として扱った。）

A) とてもそう思う (totemo sou omou)

B) そう思う (sou omou)

C) どちらでもない (dochira demo nai)

D) そう思わない (sou omowa nai)

E) 全くそう思わない (mattaku sou omowanai)

1）外国語の授業で話すとき自信がもてない。

A　B　C　D　E

2）外国語の授業で間違うことは気にならない。*

A　B　C　D　E

3）外国語の授業で当てられると思うと体が震える。

A　B　C　D　E

4）外国語の授業で先生の言っていることが理解できないととても不安だ。

A　B　C　D　E

5）もっと外国語の授業があってもよいと思っている。*

A　B　C　D　E

6）外国語の時間授業と関係ないことを考えていることがよくある。

A　B　C　D　E

7）他の生徒の方が自分よりよくできると思っている。

A　B　C　D　E

8）外国語の授業中のテストではだいたい落ち着いている。*

A　B　C　D　E

9）外国語の授業で準備なしに話さないといけない時、パニックになる。

A　B　C　D　E

10）外国語の単位を落としたときの影響が心配だ。

A　B　C　D　E

11）外国語の授業で動揺する人の気持ちがわからない。*

A　B　C　D　E

12）外国語の授業では、緊張のあまり、知ってたことも忘れてしまうときがある。

A　B　C　D　E

13）外国語の授業で自分からすすんで答えるのは恥ずかしい。

A　B　C　D　E

14）外国語をネーティブスピーカーと話すとき緊張しない。*

A　B　C　D　E

15）先生が何を訂正しているのか理解できないとき動揺する。

A　B　C　D　E

16）外国語の授業の予習を十分にしていても心配になる。

A　B　C　D　E

17）よく外国語の授業を休みたくなる。

A　B　C　D　E

18）外国語の授業で話すのに自信がある。*

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

19）先生が自分の間違いをいちいち直しそうなので心配だ。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

20）外国語のクラスで当たりそうになると胸がどきどきする。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

21）外国語のテスト勉強をすればするほど、混乱する。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

22）外国語の授業の予習をよくしないといけないというプレッシャーは感じない。*

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

23）常に他の学生の方が外国語で話すのが上手だと感じている。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

24）他の学生の前で外国語を話すとき自意識がとても高くなる。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

25）外国語のクラスは進むのが速いのでついていけるかどうか心配である。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

26）他の科目よりも外国語のクラスの方が緊張する。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

27）外国語のクラスで話すとき緊張したり混乱したりする。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

28）外国語のクラスに向かうとき自信をもてるしリラックスしている。*

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

29）先生の言うことがすべて理解できないと不安になる。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

30） 外国語を話すためにあまりに多くの文法規則を勉強しないといけないので圧倒される。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

31）私が外国語を話すと他の学生が笑うのではないかと思う。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

32）ネーティブスピーカーに会うときおそらくリラックスしていられると思う。*

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

33）先生が、前もって準備していなかった質問をすると緊張する。

A　　B　　C　　D　　E

Appendix 3: Student Participant Interview

Institutional factors

Status of the institution

1. **Why did you choose this university?**
2. **Was this your first/second/third choice university?**
3. **What were your other choices?**
4. Are you under pressure to speak English in class because you are a student of this university?
5. Does studying in this university affect your level of confidence?

Access to the target language

6. **Do you have English speaking foreign students/staff or international visitors on campus?**
7. How do you feel when you have English-speaking foreigners on campus?
8. Does it influence your approach to studying English?
9. Do you have other opportunities to use English outside the class?
10. Do you think university students need to study English in school?

11. Do you have language laboratories or centres to practice speaking?

12. Does it help you to manage your anxiety in class? How?

13. Is the classroom location good enough to minimise distractions?

International posture or ideal self

14. Have you ever visited an English-speaking country?

15 Does it influence your anxiety level? How?

16. Will you live or work an English speaking country?

17. Does this plan affect your level of anxiety?

18. Do you plan to work for a multinational after graduation?

19. Does it affect your anxiety level in the classroom?

Standard or functional English

20. Is it important to speak perfect English?

21. Is it okay to make mistakes as long as your partner understands you?

22. Do you feel pressured to use perfect English all the time, and why?

23. Does it affect the way you manage anxiety in the foreign language class?

24. Is it really important to manage anxiety in class?

Pedagogic factors

25. Tell me about your last English class?

26. When did you feel anxious or confused? Why?

27. Is the teacher's style always the right way to learn speaking skills?

28. Are there opportunities to speak English in class?

29. Do these make you anxious/confident?

30. How anxious do you feel when you have to speak English? Why?

31. What can the teacher do to make you speak more in class?

32. What can the teacher do to reduce your anxiety?

33. Does teacher expectation make you feel more anxious in class?

34. Does teacher-fronted classroom increase/decrease your anxiety?

35. Do you feel more/less anxious when the teacher is moving around?

36. Do you feel more/less anxious when the teacher joins your group activity?

The teacher

37. How do you feel when you have a native speaker teacher?

38. How do you feel when you have a non-native speaker teacher?

39. Do you use English with your teacher outside the classroom?

40. Tell me about your teacher?

41. Is your teacher friendly?

42. Does your teacher speak in a formal/informal tone in class?

43. Does the teacher join in the group oral task as a member or as a supervisor?

44. Does a teacher's dress sense affect your anxiety level?

45. Do you feel more/less anxious when the teacher dresses formally/fashionably/shows no dress sense?

46 How do you want your teacher to dress to class?

47. How will this reduce your anxiety?

48. Is your teacher funny in class?

49. Does your teacher smile in class?

50. Do you feel anxious speaking in a humorous class?

51. Would making a mistake in a humorous class make you more/less anxious?

52. Do you prefer a male/female teacher?

53. What is your desired teacher's age?

54. How old are you?

Teaching strategy

55. Do you feel anxious when the lesson is structured?

56. What activities does your teacher use to promote speaking in class?

57. **Which of the following would help increase/decrease your anxiety level in class?**

Group work, pair work, speaking tasks, presentation, drama, workbook, role play or individual task.

58. Do you often get help from your teacher?

59. What do you think of the recommended textbook?

60. Does the book make you speak more in class?

61. What other resources does your teacher use?

62. How does your teacher evaluate your speaking?

63. Does test make you anxious?

64. Which method would make you most anxious?

(Portfolio management/regular speaking tests/end-of-semester oral examination)

Social factors

65. Who do you want to sit and speak with in the class?

66. Do you feel more anxious if you sat with a male/female?

67. Do you feel anxious if you sat with an extrovert/introvert?

68. Do you support your peers?

69. Do you compete or cooperate with your group members?

70. Do you laugh at your mate's mistakes?

71. What arrangement makes you more anxious - structured plan (rows and column) or conference style seating.

72. How is the classroom atmosphere?

73. How is the group atmosphere?

74. Do you feel more anxious when you sit with your friend?

75. Do you feel anxious sitting with an unfamiliar classmate?

76. What type of classroom atmosphere makes you more anxious?

Appendix 4: Student Participant Interview (Japanese version)

Status of the institution

1. Anata wa naze kono daigaku wo erabi mashita?
2. 2. Kono daigaku wa daichi shibo/daini shibo/daisan shibo no dore desuka?
3. Hokano shibo kowa doko desuka?
4. Kono daigaku no gakse de arutame ni eigo no jugyo de eigo hanasu kinjyo suru no desuka?
5. Kono daigaku no gakse de arukoto wa anata no jishin ni eikio wo ataete imasuka?

Access to target language

6. Kono daigaku ni wa eigo wo hanasu gaikokujin no seito, sensei, shokuyin wa imasuka?
7. Kono daigaku ni eigo wo hanasu gaigokujin ga iru koto wo do kanji masuka?
8. Sono kimuchi wa eigo no benkyo ni eikyo wo ataete imasuka?
9. Eigo no jugyo igaide eigo wo hanasu kikai wa arimasuka?
10. Anata wa gakse ga gakko de eigo manabu hitsuyo ga aruto omoimasuka?
11. Kono daigaku ni wa eikaiwa wo renshu suru gogaku no setsubi ga arimasuka? Sore wa naze desuka?
12. Sore wa eigo hanasu fuan ni eikyo wo ataete imasuka?
13. Kyoshitsu no kankyo wa shuuchu suru no ni teki shitte imasuka?

International posture or ideal self

14. Anata wa eigo wo hanasu kuni eh itta kotoga arimasuka? Itte mitai desuka?

15. Sono koto wa jugyo de eigo wo hanasu toki no fuan eikyo wo ataete imasuka? Dono yoni?
16. Anata wa eigo wo hanasu kuni de kurastai aruiwa hatara kitai desuka?
17. Sono koto wa jugyo de eigo wo hanasu toki no fuan eikyo wo ataete imasuka?
18. Anata wa sotsugyou go takoku seki kigyo de hatarakitai desuka?
19. Sono koto wa jugyo de eigo wo hanasu toki no fuan eikyo wo ataete imasuka? Dono yoni?

Standard or functional English

20. Eigo wo kampegi ni hanasu koto ga daiji dato omoimasuka?
21. Aite ga anata no yukoto wo rikasureba machiga temo iito omoimasuka?
22. Itsu mo kampegi na eigo wo hanasu nake reba to pressure wo kanji masuka?
23. Sono koto wa jugyo de eigo wo hanasu toki no fuan eikyo wo ataete imasuka?
24. Eigo no jugyo de fuan wo control suru toko wa daiji dato omoimasuka?

Pedagogic factors

25. Saigo ni uketa eigo no jugyo wa dodeshita ka?
26. Donna toki ni anata wa fuan ni natari konlan shimasuka? Sore wa naze desuka?
27. Eigo no sensei no oshe kata wa eikawa wo manabu noni itsumo tadashi hoho de aruto omoimasuka?
28. Jugyo de eigo hanasu kikai wa arimasuka?
29. Sono koto wa anata no fuan ya jishin ni eikyo ataete imasuka?
30. Anata ga eigo wo hanasa naki reba ikenai toki do re gurai fuan ni omoimasuka. Sore wa naze desuka?
31. Anata ga motto eigo wo hanastameni sensei wa dosureba ii desuka?
32. Anata no fuan wa herastamen sensei wa do sureba ii desuka?
33. Sensei ga anata ni kitai suru to anata wa jugyo de fuan ni narimasuka?

34. Sensei ga kyoshitsu no mae ni tatte ru koto wa anata no fuan wo fuyashimasuka aruiwa herashimasuka?
35. Sensei ga kyoshitsu wo arukima waru koto wa fuan wo fuyashimasuka aruiwa herashimasuka?
36. Sensei ga group katsudo ni hairu koto wa anata no fuan wo fuyashimasuka sore tomo herashimasuka?

The teacher

37. Sensei ga native speaker de aruto dono yoni kanji masuka?
38. Anato no sensei ga native speaker de nakedeba anata wa do kanji masuka?
39. Anata wa sensei to kyoshitsu no soto de eigo wo hanashimasuka?
40. Anata no eigo no sensei ni suite oshete kudasai. Nan demo oshete kudasai.
41. Anata no sensei wa shitashimi yasui?
42. Anata no sensei wa kyoshitsu de katakurushi hanashikata shimasuka.
43. Sensei wa group work de member toshite samka shimasuka? Sore tomo supervisor toshite samka shimasuka?
44. Sensei no minari wa anata no fuan ni eikyo wo ataete imasuka?
45. Sensei no minari ga katakurishi aruiwa fashionable aruiwa sensu ga nai kotow a fuan ni eikyo wo ataete imasuka?
46. Anata no sensei ni dono yonna gakko de jugyo wo ste hoshi desuka?
47. Sono koto wa anata no fuan ni dono yoni eikyo wo ataete imasuka?
48. Anata no sensei wa kyoshitse de tanoshi desuka?
49. Anata no sensei ga kyoshitsu de wara imasuka?
50. Yumua no aru class de eigo hanasu koto wa fuan desuka?
51. Yumua no aru class de machiga eru to fuan ni narimasuka?
52. Danse ka jose ka dochiro no sensei ga ii desuka?

53. Sensei no nende wa dono gurai ga ii desuka?

54. Anata wa naisai desuka?

55. Jugyo no kumitate ga kichin toste eruto fuan wo kanji masuka?

56. Seito ga eigo wo hanasu yoni sensei wa dono yona koto wo shimasuka?

57. Sugi no koto wa anata no fuan ni dono yona eikyo wo ataete imasuka?

(group katsudo, futari gumi no katsudo, presentation, drama, hitori no sagyo)

58. Anata wa sensei kara yoku taskete moraimasuka?

59. Kyokasho ni suite do omoimasuka?

60. Kyokasho ni yote, anata wa yori eigo ga hanashimasuka?

61. Sensei wa hoka no kyozai wo sukaimasuka?

62. Sensei wa anata no eikawa wo donna yoni hyoka shimasuka?

63. Anata wa test wo fuan ni omoimasuka?

64. Anata ga ichi ban fuan ni naru no wa dono hoho desuka?

(Jugyo odeno hyoka, jugyo odeno test, kimatsu test)

Social factors

65. Anata wa jugyo de, dare to suari hanastai desuka?

66. Anata wa danse aru iba jose to suaru koto de fuan ni narimasuka?

67. Anata wa shako teki na hito aruiwa hikomi jian na hito dochira to suaru no ga fuan ni nari masuka?

68. Anata wa classmate wo support shimasuka?

69. Anata wa group no member to kyoso shimasuka aruiwa kyoryoku shimasuka?

70. Anata wa classmate no shipayo wara imasuka?

71. Anata wa dochira no zaseki ga fuan desuka/tate yoko ni naranda seki aruiwa hokano style?

72. Jugyo no hum iki wa do desuka?

73. Group no hum iki wa do desuka?

74. Anata wa tomodachi to suaru to fuan ni narimasuka?

75. Yoku shiranai classmato to suaru to fuan narimasuka?

76. Dono yonna class no hum iki ga anata wo fuan ni shimasuka?

Appendix 5: **Teacher Participant Interview**

Support

1. How long have you been teaching at this level of instruction and how many years have taught in this university?
2. How much freedom do you have to adapt your curriculum/syllabus to suit your students?
3. What support do you get from the administration to promote English teaching?
4. Do you feel you could have more or less support in a different university?
5. What institution-funded technology (for example, equipment or language centre) do you have at your disposal to promote speaking skills?
6. Is there sufficient funding or support to obtain the resources that can help make the learning experience more pleasurable?
7. Do you think these facilities promote classroom instruction in any way?
8. Do you have any input on how resources are sourced?
9. What resources in your opinion would help you to create a better classroom atmosphere for anxious learners?
10. Are there special programmes that students can utilise to gain greater exposure to speaking the target language nationally or internationally?

Students

11. How would you describe your students with respect to English language learning in terms of motivation, attitude, and anxiety?
12. Are they really keen on learning English or is it just for the grades?
13. Apart from teacher-student exchange during the lesson, do the students speak English with you in or outside the class?
14. Is it important to control anxiety in the classroom? In what ways can you achieve this?
15. What form of interaction decreases anxiety in your class - group/dyad/solo activity?
16. How do you decide the group structure for oral tasks in the classroom?
17. Do you have any strategies to help learners relax in the class, and which one works best for you?
18. How do you identify anxious learners without an evaluative (speaking) task?
19. Do you have any specific approach to encourage shy or quiet students to speak in class?
20. What amount of exposure to English is possible outside the classroom?

Lesson

21. How do you decide on approaches to teaching speaking?
22. Out of the four language skills, what importance do you attach to speaking on a scale of 1-4, with one being the highest?
23. Looking back on the last lesson, which aspects of your teaching did you find most and least rewarding?
24. What frustrates you most in a typical lesson?
25. Is there anything you could have done differently in the last class?
26. Are there other ways of prompting unwilling students to speak more in class?
27. How does classroom ergonomic affect students' behaviours?
28. Do you think that the seating plan influences student anxiety? Why?
29. If you could change the classroom setting, what would you consider that might help the students feel less anxious?
30. How do you evaluate students' oral performance?
31. In what ways do you vary students' oral performance assessment method?
32. How do you manage test or performance anxiety among the students?
33. Is it important for students to use perfect English in or outside the classroom at all times?

Textbook

34. Do you have any input in textbook selection?
35. What factors do you take into consideration when choosing a textbook?
36. What focus does it give to speaking/what speaking tasks are there?
37. Is the textbook appropriate to your goals of teaching speaking?
38. In addition to textbooks, what other materials do use to promote speaking in the classroom?

Others

39. What are your opinions on the teacher's dress code and its effect on student anxiety?
40. Do you consider the extroverts and introverts when putting students into dyads for classroom task?
41. What do you do when students laugh at other students' mistakes in class?
42. Would you rather have your students remain very quiet or be a bit noisy in class, and why?
43. How often do you travel to English-speaking countries and where?
44. How old are you?

Appendix 6: Participant Information Sheet

Study Title: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Researcher: Okon Effiong

Ethics number: 7591

Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this research. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.

What is the research about?

I am a research student from University of Southampton, England. I am investigating foreign language classroom anxiety in Japan as part of the requirements for a doctorate degree. I am asking you to kindly respond to the questionnaire as your answers will help me to find new ways of managing anxiety in the language classroom. I will also have an interview with some selected members of the class where I will ask questions (in Japanese) not addressed in the questionnaire.

Why have I been chosen?

I am choosing you because your class is most suitable for my study and your university fits my criteria.

What will happen to me if I take part?

I will visit your class four times this semester to observe the teaching. There will be one questionnaire for students to fill and a few students and the teachers would be interviewed individually after the lesson. The questionnaire will take not more than 20 minutes to fill whereas the interview may last between 30 and 50 minutes.

Are there any benefits in my taking part?

Your participation will help to promote our understanding of how anxiety operates in the language classroom. Your responses will inform the recommendations that would arise from the study.

Are there any risks involved?

The risk of breaching confidentiality and anonymity will be minimised by ensuring that I, the researcher, will be the only person that has access to your data, and the data would only be used for the purpose of this study, and will in no way affect what you do in class now or after the data collection period.

Will my participation be confidential?

I have complied with the Data Protection Act and ethical guidelines set by the University of Southampton, England. To ensure anonymity, all data will be coded and stored on a password-protected computer for the duration of the study.

What happens if I change my mind?

You are free to withdraw from the study at any time without fear of recrimination. Taking part in or withdrawing from the study would not affect your grades or relationship with your teacher.

What happens if something goes wrong?

If you have any issues that may affect you as a result of this study, please contact: The Chairperson, Ethics Committee, School of Humanities, Southampton University, England.

Where can I get more information?

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me on moe2g09@soton.ac.uk or 090-1715-6144, 075-4689902.

Version 1 29/09/2010

Appendix 7: Consent Form

Study title: **Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety**

Researcher name: **Okon Effiong**

Study reference:

Ethics reference: 7591

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet dated 29/09/10 and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study. ☐

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study. ☐

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without consequence. ☐

Name of participant (print name)……

Signature of participant……..

Name of Researcher **Okon Effiong**

Signature of Researcher……..

Date: 25/10/10

Appendix 8: FLCAS Scores and ratio of response per item: Combined N=142

SA	A	N	D	SD
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.				
(33/1.2)	(60/2.2)	(25/.9)	(20/.7)	(4/.1)
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.				
(5/.2)	(42/1.6)	(28/.9)	(54/1.9)	(13/.4)
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.				
(4/.1)	(25/.9)	(31/1.1)	(56/2.0)	(25/.9)
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.				
(18/.6)	(48/1.7)	(29/1.0)	(35/1.3)	(12/.5)
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.				
(48/1.7)	(55/1.9)	(28/1.0)	(9/.3)	(2/.1)
6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.				
(4/.1)	(32/1.1)	(42/1.5)	(52/1.8)	(12/.4)
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.				
(26/.9)	(54/1.9)	(37/1.3)	(16/.6)	(9/.3)
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.				
(24/.8)	(52/1.8)	(36/1.3)	(24/.8)	(6/.2)
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.				
(25/.9)	(47/1.6)	(31/1.1)	(29/1.0)	(10/.4)
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.				
(26/.9)	(36/1.3)	(30/1.0)	(31/1.1)	(19/.7)
11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.				
(0/0)	(5/.2)	(36/1.3)	(65/2.2)	(36/1.3)
12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.				
(18/.6)	(59/2.0)	(29/1.0)	(23/.8)	(13/.5)
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.				
(24/.8)	(50/1.7)	(36/1.3)	(28/1.0)	(4/.2)
14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.				
(8/.3)	(24/.8)	(26/.9)	(58/2.0)	(26/.9)

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

(10/.3) (62/2.2) (30/1.0) (29/1.0) (11/.4)

16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

(9/.3) (26/.9) (24/.8) (64/2.2) (29/1.0)

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

(6/.2) (7/.2) (26/.9) (48/1.7) (55/1.9)

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

(6/.2) (15/.5) (33/1.2) (47/1.7) (41/1.4)

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

(4/.1) (19/.7) (25/.9) (58/2.0) (36/1.3)

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

(19/.7) (44/1.5) (29/1.0) (37/1.3) (12/.4)

21. The more I study for a language test, the more con- fused I get.

(1/0) (13/.5) (18/.6) (61/2.2) (48/1.7)

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

(17/.6) (36/1.3) (39/1.4) (38/1.3) (12/.4)

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

(23/.8) (53/1.9) (37/1.3) (21/.7) (5/.2)

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

(5/.2) (26/.9) (47/1.7) (48/1.7) (14/.5)

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

(9/.3) (20/.7) (32/1.1) (49/1.7) (30/1.1)

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

(13/.5) (31/1.1) (31/1.1) (40/1.4) (25/.9)

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

(13/.5) (41/1.4) (27/1.0) (43/1.5) (13/.5)

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

(4/.1) (24/.8) (48/1.7) (48/1.7) (16/.6)

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

(13/.5) (35/1.2) (31/1.1) (48/1.7) (13/.5)

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

(7/.3) (29/1.0) (31/1.1) (51/1.8) (21/.8)

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

(8/.3) (14/.5) (31/1.1) (59/2.1) (28/1.0)

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

(6/.2) (33/1.2) (34/1.2) (54/1.9) (14/.5)

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

(17/.6) (52/1.8) (29/1.0) (34/1.2) (9/.3)

SA = Strongly agree A = Agree N = Neither agree nor disagree D = Disagree SD = Strongly disagree

Appendix 9:

Table of Means showing group means for FLCAS variables (Table 5-4, N=142)

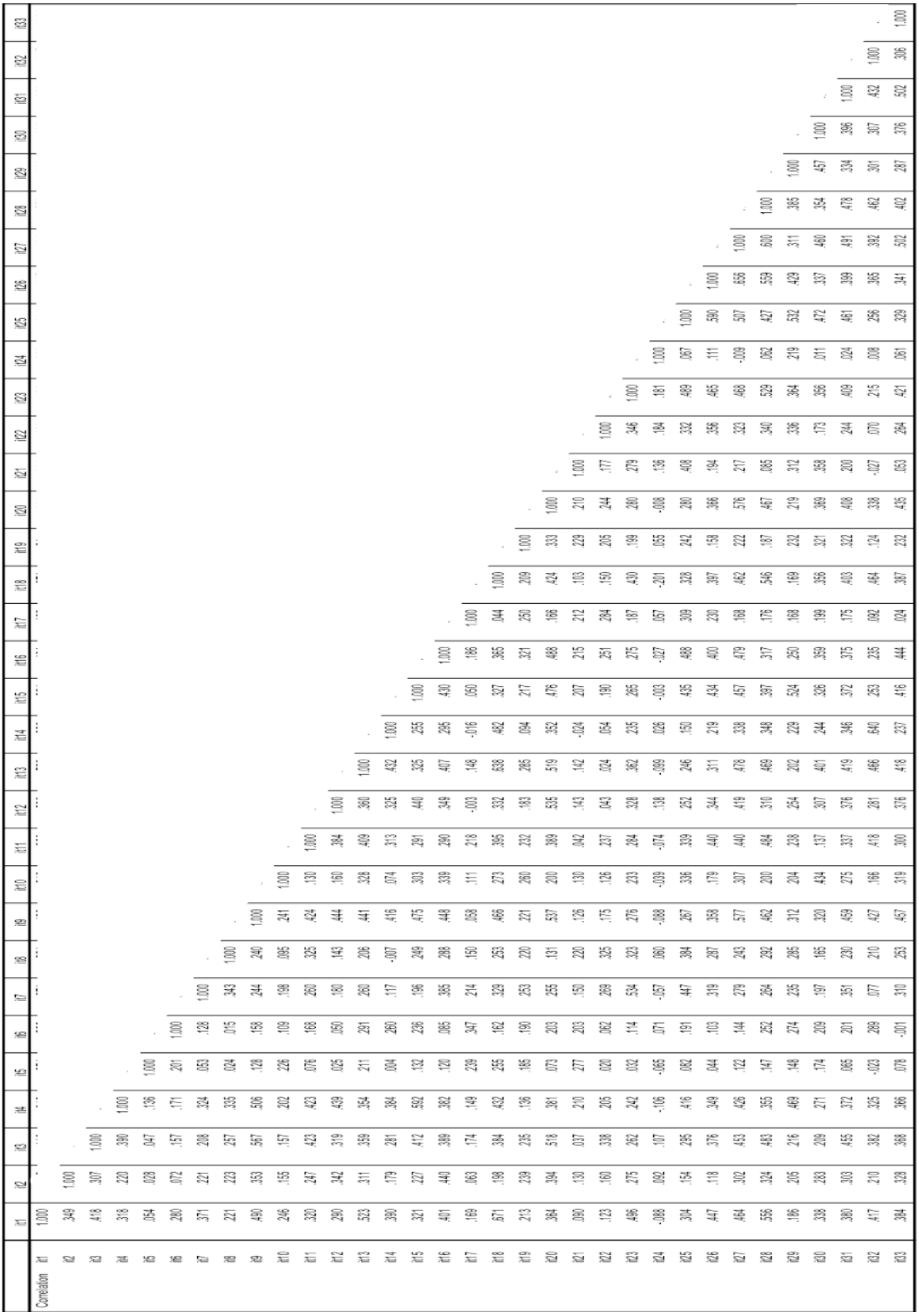
	Kop		**Doh**		**Dek**		**Nuk**		**Combined**	
N	**56**		**33**		**25**		**28**		**142**	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
it1	3.77	.972	3.75	.950	3.92	1.02	3.29	1.27	3.69	1.05
it2	3.21	1.04	3.06	1.11	3.08	1.14	3.04	1.14	3.12	1.08
it3	2.43	1.14	2.41	.911	2.79	1.14	2.25	1.01	2.45	1.07
it4	3.25	1.21	2.91	1.06	3.63	.970	2.89	1.34	3.16	1.19
it5	2.02	.904	2.44	1.01	1.79	.884	1.68	.772	2.01	.932
it6	2.93	.970	2.63	1.13	2.83	1.05	2.57	.879	2.77	1.01
it7	3.45	1.11	3.41	1.01	3.88	1.04	3.46	1.17	3.51	1.09
it8	2.46	1.21	2.31	.896	3.00	.978	2.57	1.10	2.54	1.10
it9	3.45	1.11	3.47	1.19	3.46	1.14	2.93	1.33	3.35	1.19
it10	3.14	1.26	3.50	1.30	3.71	1.23	2.18	1.09	3.13	1.32
it11	3.84	.804	4.03	.647	4.13	.797	3.75	1.01	3.91	.818
it12	3.48	1.19	3.59	1.07	3.29	1.08	2.82	1.09	3.34	1.15
it13	3.71	.948	3.72	.888	3.54	1.10	2.46	.999	3.44	1.08
it14	3.68	1.08	3.31	1.06	3.38	1.25	3.21	1.34	3.45	1.17
it15	3.23	1.13	2.94	1.11	3.63	1.01	3.07	1.05	3.20	1.10
it16	2.34	1.21	2.50	1.05	2.88	1.26	2.50	1.20	2.50	1.18
it17	1.8	1.1	2.1	1.2	2.1	.91	2.3	1.0	2.0	1.09

	8	0	9	0	7	7	6	6	9	
it18	3.82	1.10	3.84	1.05	3.92	.830	2.71	1.38	3.62	1.19
it19	2.07	.951	2.94	1.13	1.96	.908	2.14	1.08	2.26	1.07
it20	3.20	1.21	3.38	1.04	3.21	1.29	2.54	1.40	3.11	1.25
it21	1.96	.972	2.00	.880	2.04	.999	1.86	.970	1.96	.948
it22	2.68	1.27	2.72	1.02	3.42	1.06	3.18	1.16	2.91	1.18
it23	3.50	1.11	3.41	.911	3.71	.955	3.32	1.19	3.45	1.09
it24	2.63	1.00	2.66	1.10	2.67	.917	3.04	.999	2.69	1.03
it25	2.11	1.07	2.31	.896	3.29	1.20	2.71	1.24	2.45	1.18
it26	2.54	1.26	2.63	.942	3.33	1.24	2.86	1.46	2.73	1.27
it27	2.84	1.17	2.97	1.03	3.29	1.46	2.71	1.44	2.89	1.27
it28	3.20	1.09	3.47	.879	3.71	.806	3.25	1.04	3.33	1.04
it29	2.93	1.23	2.44	1.01	3.13	.992	3.21	1.29	2.88	1.20
it30	2.73	1.24	2.81	1.15	2.38	.875	2.43	1.17	2.60	1.17
it31	2.43	1.09	2.34	1.04	2.75	1.07	2.11	1.29	2.37	1.13
it32	3.52	1.06	3.09	1.03	3.13	.992	2.96	1.04	3.21	1.09
it33	3.38	1.09	3.25	1.08	3.38	1.25	2.86	1.15	3.21	1.16

Appendix 10: One-way ANOVA Table showing Between Group effects and effect sizes (Table 5-5).

Item No	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	Eta Squared
1	6.860	3	2.287	2.122	.100	.044
2	.885	3	.295	.248	.863	.005
3	5.194	3	1.731	1.513	.214	.032
4	10.278	3	3.426	2.546	.059	.052
5	9.462	3	3.154	3.869	.011	.078
6	2.946	3	.982	.966	.411	.021
7	2.472	3	.824	.665	.575	.014
8	7.036	3	2.345	2.021	.114	.042
9	6.095	3	2.032	1.460	.228	.031
10	37.811	3	12.604	8.417	.000	.155
11	2.822	3	.941	1.409	.243	.030
12	10.064	3	3.355	2.635	.052	.054
13	33.407	3	11.136	11.865	.000	.205
14	5.257	3	1.752	1.315	.272	.028
15	7.093	3	2.364	2.007	.116	.042
16	5.857	3	1.952	1.406	.244	.030
17	4.987	3	1.662	1.426	.238	.030
18	30.279	3	10.093	8.174	.000	.151
19	18.529	3	6.176	6.052	.001	.116
20	11.719	3	3.906	2.595	.055	.053
21	.507	3	.169	.188	.905	.004
22	13.535	3	4.512	3.394	.020	.069
23	4.596	3	1.532	1.283	.283	.027
24	1.603	3	.534	.494	.687	.011
25	26.622	3	8.874	7.263	.000	.136
26	12.549	3	4.183	2.681	.049	.055
27	7.790	3	2.597	1.626	.186	.034
28	6.480	3	2.160	2.061	.108	.043
29	8.572	3	2.857	2.049	.110	.043
30	6.338	3	2.113	1.585	.196	.033
31	8.646	3	2.882	2.332	.077	.048
32	10.264	3	3.421	2.989	.033	.061
33	9.718	3	3.239	2.449	.066	.051

Appendix 11: Correlation Matrix of the combined sample population (Table 5-6).



Appendix 12: Communalities showing the proportion of each item's variance that has been reproduced by the factors extracted (Table 5-7).

Item No.	Initial	Combined Extraction
1	1.00	.672
2	1.00	.609
3	1.00	.684
4	1.00	.760
5	1.00	.520
6	1.00	.673
7	1.00	.670
8	1.00	.565
9	1.00	.640
10	1.00	.543
11	1.00	.573
12	1.00	.566
13	1.00	.671
14	1.00	.678
15	1.00	.688
16	1.00	.565
17	1.00	.645
18	1.00	.738
19	1.00	.499
20	1.00	.666
21	1.00	.535
22	1.00	.596

23	1.00	.734
24	1.00	.707
25	1.00	.722
26	1.00	.711
27	1.00	.715
28	1.00	.677
29	1.00	.717
30	1.00	.652
31	1.00	.482
32	1.00	.674
33	1.00	.571

Appendix 13a: Total and cumulative variance shown by the extracted factors and % attributable to each factor along with eigenvalues (Table 5-8a).

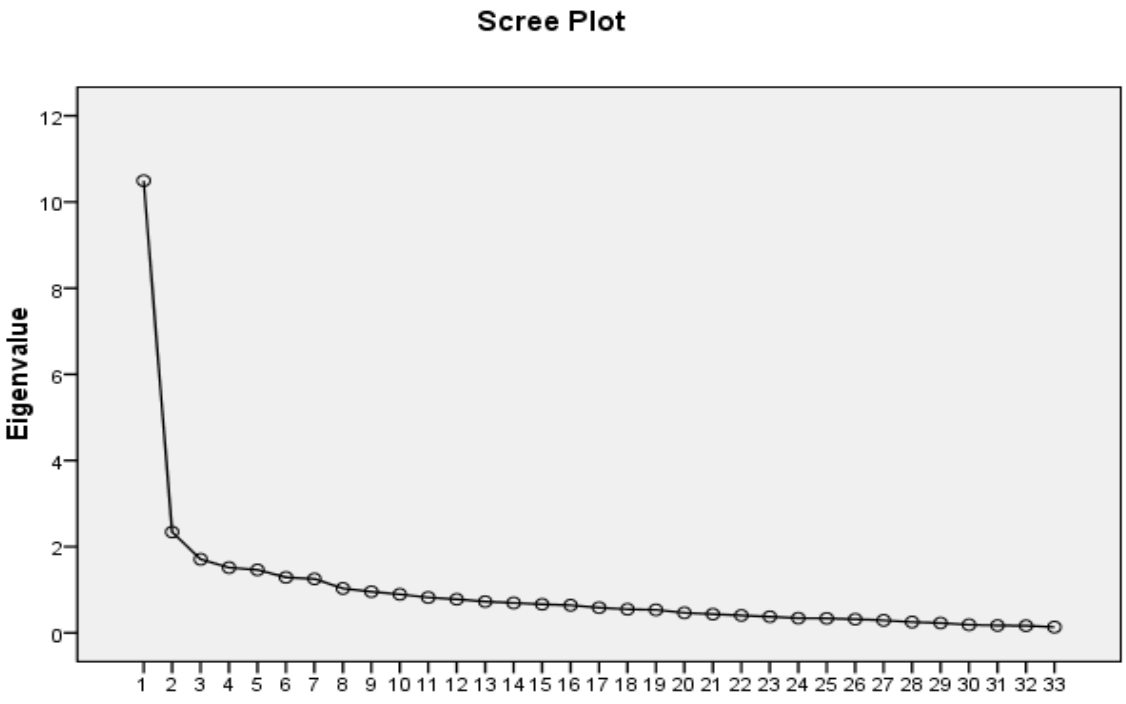
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.495	31.803	31.803	10.495	31.803	31.803
2	2.339	7.089	38.892	2.339	7.089	38.892
3	1.707	5.174	44.066	1.707	5.174	44.066
4	1.513	4.584	48.650	1.513	4.584	48.650
5	1.461	4.427	53.077	1.461	4.427	53.077
6	1.286	3.897	56.974	1.286	3.897	56.974
7	1.253	3.797	60.771	1.253	3.797	60.771
8	1.029	3.119	63.891	1.029	3.119	63.891
9	.954	2.892	66.783			
10	.893	2.706	69.489			
11	.820	2.484	71.973			
12	.778	2.356	74.330			
13	.724	2.193	76.523			
14	.693	2.099	78.622			
15	.663	2.009	80.630			
16	.639	1.936	82.567			
17	.585	1.773	84.339			
18	.546	1.656	85.995			
19	.533	1.616	87.611			
20	.465	1.408	89.019			
21	.433	1.314	90.333			
22	.403	1.223	91.555			
23	.375	1.138	92.693			
24	.340	1.031	93.724			
25	.335	1.016	94.740			
26	.316	.958	95.697			
27	.289	.874	96.572			
28	.249	.756	97.328			
29	.229	.694	98.021			
30	.187	.567	98.588			
31	.170	.514	99.102			
32	.164	.496	99.597			
33	.133	.403	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 13b: Percentage of cumulative variance of unrotated and rotated extracted factors (Table 5-8b).

Factor	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.495	31.803	31.803	4.015	12.167	12.167
2	2.339	7.089	38.892	3.419	10.362	22.529
3	1.707	5.174	44.066	2.909	8.814	31.343
4	1.513	4.584	48.650	2.576	7.805	39.149
5	1.461	4.427	53.077	2.414	7.315	46.464
6	1.286	3.897	56.974	2.368	7.177	53.640
7	1.253	3.797	60.771	1.871	5.671	59.311
8	1.029	3.119	63.891	1.511	4.580	63.891

Appendix 14: Scree Plot; a graphical representation of Table 8a (Figure 5-1)



Appendix 15: Unrotated factor matrix showing item loading within each extracted factor. Items with loadings less than .50 absolute values are suppressed (Table 5- 9).

Factor Matrix

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
it1	.666							
it2								
it3	.626							
it4	.637							
it5			.610					
it6								
it7								
it8								
it9	.697							
it10								
it11	.591							
it12	.565							
it13	.666							
it14	.502							
it15	.638							
it16	.646							
it17								
it18	.679							
it19								
it20	.682							
it21		.530						

it22								
it23	.617							
it24								
it25	.651							
it26	.666							
it27	.767							
it28	.727							
it29	.548							
it30	.587							
it31	.680							
it32	.570							
it33	.631							

Extraction Method: Principal Factor Analysis.

8 factors extracted.

Appendix 16: Rotated Factor Matrix at .50 loading for the eight extracted factors (Table 5-10).

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
it1	.618							
it2		.699						
it3		.507	.532					
it4				.708				
it5							.537	
it6							.657	
it7					.766			
it8					.622			
it9		.521						
it10						.682		
it11								
it12		.535						
it13	.597							
it14	.774							
it15				.679				
it16		.556						
it17							.714	
it18	.633							
it19								
it20		.661						
it21								
it22			.643					
it23					.612			
it24								.825

it25								
it26			.661					
it27			.557					
it28	.518		.545					
it29				.663				
it30						.662		
it31								
it32	.768							
it33								

Extraction Method: Principal Factor Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 11 iterations.

Appendix 17: Factor Transformation Matrix (Table 5-12).

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	.498	.467	.417	.362	.322	.322	.147	-.016
2	-.605	-.216	.172	.190	.400	.244	.410	.365
3	.166	-.085	-.450	-.050	-.228	.416	.663	-.309
4	.494	-.575	.290	-.072	.022	-.398	.357	.224
5	.009	.118	-.131	.594	-.600	-.077	.042	.498
6	-.021	.560	.008	-.591	-.072	-.186	.331	.432
7	-.299	.240	.231	.253	-.092	-.568	.364	-.522
8	.154	.112	-.663	.242	.557	-.376	.027	.118

Extraction Method: Principal Factor Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

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