A Situated Approach to the Understanding of Elusive Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Erdi Şimşek [*]

* Asst. Prof. Dr., Bartın University, https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1465-565X esimsek@bartin.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

Although foreign language anxiety, considered as one of the most important negative factors affecting students' foreign language performance, has been receiving interest from researchers for decades, the literature suggests only limited number of studies which are grounded on dynamic approaches to explore the elusive nature of anxiety. Mainly focusing on the effects of error correction, native/non-native teacher instruction and presence of a video camera on students' language anxiety in four different lessons, this mixed-method study aims to investigate the elusive foreign language classroom anxiety in as many different ways as possible in order to inspire a follow-up study. During these four lessons, On-line Anxiety and Liking Meter was used so as to observe participants' levels of anxiety and liking in every 10 minutes, and Overall Anxiety and Liking Questionnaire was administered after each session. Additionally, retrospective interviews were conducted with the participants after each lesson. As it was difficult to have a fully coherent view due to the scope of the study and limited number of participants, several different situations resulting in certain insights were presented. The results suggested that error correction, speaking activities, video recording, low self-esteem and some exogenous factors caused anxiety arousal while task-based activities, ice-breakers and familiarity with teacher helped to reduce the anxiety. The findings revealed a significantly negative correlation between the anxiety and liking, and there was no difference between native and non-native teachers in terms of their effects on anxiety.

Keywords: anxiety, dynamic approaches, error correction, communicative approach, foreign language education

Anlaşılması Zor Yabancı Dil Sınıfı Kaygısını Anlamak İçin Durumlu Bir Yaklaşım

Öz

Öğrencilerin yabancı dil performansını etkileyen en önemli olumsuz faktörlerden biri olarak kabul edilen yabancı dil kaygısı, onlarca yıldır araştırmacıların ilgisini çekse de, kaygının anlaşılması zor doğasını keşfetmeye yönelik dinamik yaklaşımları benimseyen çalışmalar sınırlı sayıdadır. Temelde dört farklı derste hata düzeltme, ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan bir öğretmen tarafından yapılan öğretim ve video kamera varlığının öğrencilerin dil kaygısı üzerindeki etkilerine odaklanan bu karma yöntemli çalışma, bir devam çalışmasına ilham vermek için, anlaşılması zor yabancı dil sınıfı kaygısını mümkün olduğunca çok farklı yönden araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu dört ders boyunca her 10 dakikada bir öğrencilerin kaygı ve beğeni düzeylerindeki değişimi gözlemlemek için Bağlantılı Kaygı ve Beğeni Ölçer; her oturumdan sonra ise Genel Kaygı ve Beğeni Anketi uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca katılımcılarla her dersten sonra geriye dönük nitel görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Çalışmanın kapsamı ve katılımcı sayısının sınırlı olması nedeniyle tam tutarlı bir görüşe sahip olmak zor olduğundan, belirli iç görülere yol açan birkaç farklı durum sunulmuştur. Sonuçlar, hata düzeltme, konuşma etkinlikleri, video kaydı, düşük benlik saygısı ve bazı dış faktörlerin kaygıya yol açabildiğini gösterirken; görev temelli etkinliklerin, buz kırıcıların ve öğretmene aşina olma durumunun kaygıyı azaltmaya yardımcı olabileceğini göstermiştir Bulgular, kaygı ve hoşlanma arasında anlamlı derecede negatif bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymuş ve anadili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenler arasında, öğrencilerin kaygı seviyelerine etkileri açısından temel bir fark gözlemlenmemiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: kaygı, dinamik yaklaşımlar, hata düzeltimi, iletişimsel yaklaşım, yabancı dil eğitimi

1 | INTRODUCTION

Second language scholars have long been aware of the fact that many students are facing with a kind of anxiety which is only specific for foreign language classrooms: foreign language anxiety (e.g. Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Foreign language anxiety differs from other types of anxiety as learners are introduced a culture-imposing and constant-communication-requiring environment through the language, which learners might perceive as a threat. As a result, many language learners, even if they are successful in other areas, experience anxiety specifically in a language classroom. Both teachers and students should identify foreign language anxiety and optimise the learning conditions accordingly. However, how do the activities and variations in English classes affect the level of anxiety? To be able to gain various insights into situated classroom anxiety by investigating the effects of error correction, native/non-native teacher instruction and video recordings, this research aims to explore the relationship between foreign language anxiety and some activities and variations in English classes.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

'I think my English level is not good, so I am shy to talk English'.

(Tsui, 1996, p.145)

'I am bothered a little about my errors because I get nervous, and I think that the other person thinks that I don't know how to speak'.

(Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002, p.567)

Foreign language anxiety, one of the major reasons for such expressions from the students, is described by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994a) as 'the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning' (p. 284). On the other hand, according to Horwitz et al. (1986) foreign language anxiety is 'a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process' (p. 128). Foreign language anxiety has many physiological, emotional, cognitive, academic and social effects. Anxious students can be 'complaining about a headache, experiencing tight muscles, feeling unexplained pain or tension in any part of the body' (Oxford, 1999, p. 66). Blushing, trembling, squirming, fidgeting, sweating, stuttering, stammering, or heart palpitations are some of the well-known physiological symptoms of anxiety (Blackmore et al., 2009; Oxford, 1999). Fear of not understanding the teacher, insecurity about speaking, worrying about feeling left behind, confusion or embarrassment in volunteering responses and procrastination are some of the emotional effects (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). Investigating students' oral exam performances with accuracy and comprehensibility, Phillips (1992) finds that anxious students receive lower grades compared to the other students. Anxious students also use shorter sentences and consider the oral examination as an unpleasant activity. Furthermore, these students are not as willing to communicate as their classmates and some of them may experience traumatic reactions (MacIntyre, 1999).

For many years, the relationship between anxiety and language learning has not provided consistent results. Such an inconsistency could be arising from misleading perceptions towards anxiety and from the fact that anxiety could be conceptualised at various levels of abstraction (e.g. Şimşek & Dörnyei, 2017). MacIntyre (2017) classifies foreign anxiety research trends in three broad phases: cofounded phase, the specialised phase and the dynamic phase. Coming into prominence with Scovel's (1978) novel review of language anxiety literature, the main issue of the cofounded phase was to try to measure and define anxiety as well as to include some elements of language acquisition. The problem then was that not every type of anxiety could be directly associated with a foreign language. Two other focal points that dominated the cofounded phase were the arguments on state - trait anxiety (Kleinmann, 1977; Spielberger, 1966) and facilitating - debilitating anxiety (Alpert & Haber, 1960; Chastain, 1975) discriminations (for a detailed review, see Gkonou, Daubney and Dewaele, 2017).

The specialised phase was pioneered by the study of Horwitz et al. (1986). They developed their concept of foreign language anxiety grounded in anxiety experiences of learners seeking assistance from teachers. Horwitz et al. (1986) developed the most famous language anxiety scale, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) which has been used by many researchers ever since. This 33-item, five-point Likert-scale type instrument, focus on communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation aspects. However,

Horwitz (2017) states that anxiety is not just a combination of these elements, that it is a unified structure. Consistently high reliability of the FLCAS as well as labelling foreign language anxiety as a situation-specific construct was a turning point in the literature (Dewaele, 2002). Researchers started to develop more situation-specific scales to examine the corelation between different anxiety measures (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Researchers also began to explore language anxiety in as many aspects as possible. For example, some research studies focused on performance (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a; Onwuegbuzie et al.,1999), some on personality factors (Dewaele, 2002; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Thompson & Khawaja, 2015), and finally some others on different language skills (Cheng et al., 1999; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Jee, 2015; Mak, 2011; Saito et al., 1999).

The third phase in MacIntyre's (2017) classification, the dynamic phase refers to the recent tradition which situates the anxiety among multiple continuously-interacting factors (such as other learner characteristics, situational factors, interpersonal relationships, topics or linguistic abilities). Anxiety emerges as a constantly fluctuating phenomenon that needs to be measured in minutes or even seconds; therefore, the dynamic and situated approaches and innovative measures in analysing student, learning and environment dynamics are of great importance nowadays (e.g. Gregersen et al., 2014; MacIntyre, 2012; MacIntyre & Serroul, 2015).

COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING AND ANXIETY

No doubt, the grammar translation method dominated the language teaching until the first half of the 19th century. Even later, it was difficult to change some of the habits caused by this method such as rule explanations, vocabulary lists or translations. In addition to these, another result of the grammar translation method was that students had difficulty in speaking in the target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2018). As one of the primary goals of second language learning is to discover how to interact with people effectively in the target language, researchers tried to find new ways of transferring the skills which students learned in the classroom to real life situations since 1970's. Today, it is believed that there is no single method which meets all the demands but communicative language teaching approach is considered as one of the most popular methods. The main principle of the communicative language teaching is to put the language in action; in other words, to enhance the communicative competence. Furthermore, Hedge (2000) identifies linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and fluency as the components of communicative language ability.

The communicative approach highlights the importance of student-centred instruction. The role of the students is defined as 'communicators' trying to understand the others and to be understood by them. When it comes to teachers' role, communicative approach suggests that they should act as 'advisers' and 'facilitators' who answer students' questions as well as engage in the activities with them (Larsen-Freeman, 2018). Several studies reveal that many of the students remain reticent during some classroom activities (Tsui, 1996; White & Lightbown, 1984; Yashima et al., 2004), but it is evident that students tend to experience less anxiety in non-threatening contexts (Tercan & Dikilitaş, 2015). Wu (2010) claims that students encounter with anxiety in communicative classes although they like communicative activities in general. This might also revive the communication apprehension because one may easily argue that communication apprehension is likely to occur in communicative classes as students are always asked to speak. Indeed, it seems fairly relevant. Especially 'people who typically have trouble speaking in groups are likely to experience even greater difficulty speaking in a foreign language class where they have little control of the communicative situation and their performance is constantly monitored' (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). On the other hand, Johnson et al. (1998) suggest that cooperative learning, one of the approaches that communicative framework presents, can improve students' cooperation in the class, can help to create an ideal atmosphere as students are independent, supportive and goal-oriented and facilitate their contribution to each other's learning. Student-centred, communicative classes help students use the language effectively in real life. However, the research suggests that students can still suffer from foreign language anxiety in such classes, which makes it necessary to put more focus on foreign language anxiety in communicative classrooms.

ERROR CORRECTION IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

In Linguistics, error is defined as 'production of a linguistic form which deviates from the correct form', in other words the native speaker form (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 84). Indicating students' developmental stages in the foreign language, the errors can occur due to inaccuracy in phonology, lexis, morphosyntax and semantics

(Mackey et al., 2000). On the other hand, Tsui (1995) argues that sometimes, even when students use the correct form, something rejected by the teacher is also treated as an error in the classroom.

So, how should teachers correct students' errors? By applying the behaviourist view making students write the correct form at least three times until error-free forms are obtained? Of course, that would not be an acceptable technique since the errors can cause a sense of failure among students and inhibit their participation easily. Carrying out a study examining corrective feedback and learner uptake by analysing the transcripts of about 18 hours of classroom interaction, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identify 6 different types of feedback: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition. However, the most effective way of correcting the errors remains questionable. Ancker's (2000) study indicate the differences between students' and teachers' preferences for error correction. In his study, Ancker asks teachers and students from 15 different countries if the teachers should correct every error students make while using English. Only 25% of the teachers state that they would prefer this kind of an error correction. However, interestingly, the students show a great support by 76% reporting that teachers should correct every error. Students also report that the reason why they prefer error correction is that it helps them speak English correctly. On the other hand, the other students who disagree with the question regarding error correction report that error correction is negatively affecting their self-confidence and motivation. Tsui (1995) suggests that the necessity of error correction depends on students' language competence and their characters. If the learners have low language proficiency then obviously they are likely to produce erroneous expressions and if the learners are very shy, establishing a relaxing atmosphere is more essential than correcting the errors because correcting the errors in a harsh manner, is one of the factors which could provoke anxiety. Sato (2003), aiming to reduce anxiety levels in the classroom by ensuring meaningful interaction, suggests selective error correction as this type of error correction does not affect the fluency and the flow of communication. It is also recommended that group work help students to participate in classroom communication more (ibid.) As the literature suggests, it is crucial for teachers to reconsider their interactions with the students. Teachers should inform the learners about the developmental stages in language learning so that the learners could set realistic and achievable goals and be aware of their own process.

NATIVE VS. NON-NATIVE TEACHERS

One of the typical questions a learner, who has just decided to learn a foreign language- let's assume English-, has in their minds is whether native teachers of English are superior to the non-native teachers of English. This question becomes more gripping at present times due to easier access to online language instructors.

Medgyes (1994) says that, by their nature, non-natives are norm-dependent because their use of English consists of imitations of the original. As a result, he claims that it is very difficult to say that non-natives can be as creative and original as the native ones. However, he also defines advantages of being a non-native teacher. According to Medgyes, non-native teachers can be a good model, teach language strategies, provide more information, understand the needs of students, understand the difficulties in learning the target language and sometimes make use of the native language. One may assume that non-natives are not likely to produce language forms in rich linguistic contexts and that they cannot be ideal language teachers since their knowledge of English is limited but the research suggests opposite results. Modiano (1999) argues that non-native teachers of English can communicate more effectively in international contexts. Canagarajah (1999) agrees with Modiano stating that non-natives will perform better in ESL contexts as a result of their multicultural knowledge. In addition, a very positive side of being a non-native teacher comes from Cook (2005) as she points out that 'non-native speaker teachers provide models of proficient L2 users in action in the classroom' and 'non-native speaker teachers present examples of people who have become successful L2 users' (p. 57). Investigating US school host teachers' opinions about non-native student teachers assigned to teaching practice, Nemtchinova (2005) finds out that non-native trainees are well-prepared, that they use correct and fluent expressions in English and that they communicate well with their students. They also seem to be knowledgeable about the target culture. All in all, Medgyes (1992) suggests that effectiveness of language teachers does not rely on whether they are natives or non-natives. According to him, 'the ideal native speaking EFL teacher is the one who has achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learners' mother tongue' while 'the ideal non-native speaking EFL teacher is the one who has achieved near-native proficiency in English' (pp. 348-349).

SITUATED APPROACH

'Language learning is a dynamic process in which affective variable influences language achievement and achievement and experiences in language learning can influence some affective variables' (Gardner et al., 2004, p. 1). In this regard, Crombach et al. (2003) put emphasis on two situation-specific judgements during learning: appraisals and attributions. Since this kind of a dynamic and complex process is of a great importance, there have been a number of attempts in order to deal with it in more effective ways. For example, Boekaerts (1986) formed the On-line Motivation Questionnaire, one of the most inspirational questionnaires in the field. The questionnaire consisted of several five-point-scale items questioning the participants' eagerness, anxiety, enthusiasm, assessment of their own competence and other judgements on the difficulty of the task and its relevance to real life. What makes this questionnaire different from the traditional ones was that the questionnaire was designed to measure the above-mentioned items at the on-set and off-set of a task during the usual planned time in the classroom. The rationale behind the On-line Motivation Questionnaire is that students can forget their specific ideas about a certain situation as the time elapses. So, eliciting the responses in a fraction of a second can lead to a better interpretation of that certain situation. Julkunen (1989) used a similar on-line motivation questionnaire based on Boekearts'. He included 12 pre-task and 10 post-task statements using a five-point-scale. The pre-task items intended to measure the state motivation. Different from that, the post-task items were prepared to indicate the persistence with the task, concentration, satisfaction and interest. In addition to pre-task and post-task statements, there were some other items to indicate students' emotional states in both such as anxiety, stress, sadness and anger. Gardner et al. (2004) wanted to emphasize five variables in one study: motivation, language anxiety, integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation and instrumental orientation. In their study, Gardner and his friends used two innovative measurements. The first one was a measure called anxometer, by which the participants were introduced a thermometer shape that was labelled 'high' at the top and 'low' at the bottom. Participants were asked to consider various feelings such as apprehension, nervousness and worry they had in class that day and to mark their level of anxiety by drawing a horizontal line on the anxometer. The second measure was named as motometer which was used to investigate the motivational changes in a one-year intermediate French course. This measure was the same as the anxometer. Yet, the only difference was the way it was instructed as the participants were asked to take several motivational factors into consideration. Later on, the motometer was used in another study by Waninge (2010). She asked her students to fill out this thermometer shaped motometer in every five minutes during the class. To make it easier, Waninge used a kind of an automated sound to remind the students of determining their level of motivation.

There might be two main criticisms about this approach due to lack of reliability and validity. Because of its nature, it is almost impossible to calculate the internal consistency. Yet, some meaningful relations can be found between appraisals and consequent variables. In that way, it does not mean that the results are totally unreliable. Second, appraisals are not easy to be validated because they can change depending on one particular situation to another (Crombach et al., 2003).

Nowadays, psycho-educational research becomes more and more important as 'it explores the mechanisms linking the pupils actual learning resources and various actual learning conditions to the pupil's perception and appraisal of these conditions and resources as well as to his intended and perceived reactions' (Boekaerts, 1987, p. 208). Therefore, it is necessary to place greater importance on situated approach and the new measures it provides even though they might be criticised for a few aspects.

2 | METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

This study was carried out with the voluntary participation of eight Turkish individuals (six males and two females) enrolling in a private language school. They ranged from 18 to 28 (mean age 23.25). The participants were selected in accordance with convenience sampling method; however, to be able to minimize language-proficiency-related adaptations of foreign language anxiety, the only criterion was that the participants were all intermediate-level English language learners. It should also be o noted here that five of the participants were the teachers' previous students.

MATERIALS

ON-LINE ANXIETY AND LIKING METER

An innovative on-line instrument, which was inspired by Boekaerts' (1986) On-line Motivation Questionnaire and adapted from Gardner et al.'s (2004) anxometer, was used for measuring situation-specific anxiety (Figure 1).
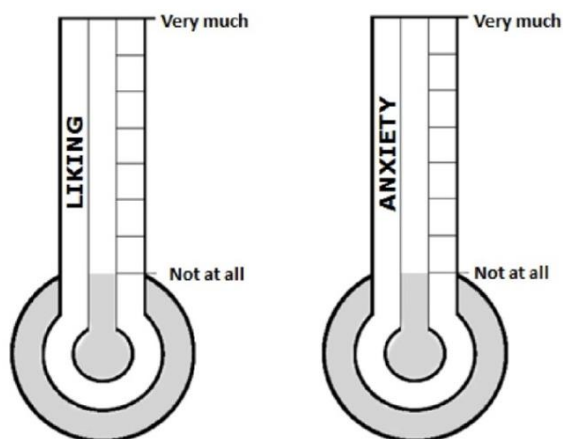
Figure 1. *On-line anxiety and liking meter*

This is a two thermometer-shaped seven-point semantic differential scale items by which participants indicate their levels of anxiety and liking separately by crossing a box between the two extremes. In this case the extremes are 'not at all' at the bottom and 'very much' at the top.

Participants were asked to consider their levels of anxiety and liking at a specific moment triggered by a 'beep' sound played by the teacher at certain times and to cross the relevant boxes in the thermometers immediately.

It is necessary to mention that, if an on-line instrument is involved in a research design, researchers usually give up one of the main criteria of reliable questionnaire theory: the multiple measurements. In this study, only two items were used so as not to disrupt the natural flow of the class to fill in a proper questionnaire. This is also the reason why it is mainly single item measures. This situation can be considered a weakness which, more or less, researchers employing this measurement has to take on board. Once taking this root, the options are fairly limited. Although theoretically it is questionable to some extent, it is very interesting that some really valued scholars decided that the trade-off was worth it. R.C. Gardner, Professor of Psychometrics, and M. Boekaerts, one of the greatest educational psychologists both decided to try on-line measures since these measures let the researcher gain more than he/she loses.

OVERALL ANXIETY AND LIKING QUESTIONNAIRE

The second instrument in this study was designed to measure students' post-session anxiety and liking states. The overall anxiety and liking questionnaire consists of six 7-point semantic differential scale items. On a white A4 paper, the participations were introduced six adjectives which were meant to measure the two intended variables (nervous, confident, enthusiastic, stressed, happy, and comfortable). 'Nervous',' confident' and 'stressed' were given in order to measure the level of anxiety evaluating the preceding session. It should be note that 'confident' is a negatively worded item. The adjectives given to inquire the liking were 'enthusiastic', 'happy' and 'comfortable'. In this traditionally designed semantic differential scale items students, as usual, were asked to cross a box between the two extremes: 'not at all' on one side and 'very much' on the other side.

PROCEDURES

For this study, four different lessons were scheduled. Each lesson aimed to change one variable in the classroom. First lesson was a neutral, student-centred class where communicative language teaching took place. In the second class, immediate correction was made when students made errors during the tasks. The third one was taught by a native teacher (A United States-born male with more than 10 years of English language teaching

experience in different higher education institutions in Turkey). The final one was a task-based class at the last part of which students were recorded with a video camera and watched these recordings in the classroom.

Each lesson consisted of two 40-minute long sessions with a 10-minute break between them. In addition, preceding those sessions, an informative session was organised to inform the students about the research project and the ethical procedures as well as to hold a 40-minutes long demo session to break the ice.

Participants were asked to fill in one anxiety meter and one liking meter at a time in every 10 minutes in each session following a beep sound. To make it easier, three separate tables were placed on a white A4 paper. Each of the tables contained one anxiety meter and one liking meter. Next to these tables, time indicators (as 10', 20' and 30') were written. Students were similarly asked to fill in Overall Anxiety and Liking Questionnaire after each session (that is, at the break and at the end). In addition, at the end of each lesson, both of the measurements which all the students filled in were examined and according to their responses a few students were asked to participate in short retrospective interviews.

The lessons were taught in a big classroom equipped with a computer, a projector, a sound system as well as a white board. Semi-circular seating structure was preferred for all the lessons so that the students would have visual contact with each other and with the teacher as well. Besides, due to mobile specifications of the chairs and the desks used students could be divided into small groups easily. Also, all the lessons were recorded as a .wav file in order to track the possible specific situations and the automated beep sound was tested before each lesson.

During the planning phase of the lessons, communicative language teaching was preferred since all the lessons had to be as similar as possible and different grammatical themes might be contributing to foreign language anxiety.

ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study was to use an innovative methodology to test the terrain in various ways to raise as many possible issues as possible for a follow up-study. Instead of inferential statistics, descriptive statistics and their qualitative analyses supported with the interview data will take place in this study due to the low number of the possible cases and small size of the sample. Inferential statistics was only used to conduct correlation analysis between overall anxiety and liking. In this sense, this is a mixed method study where the quantitative data is turned into qualitative profiles. Actually even the descriptive statistics in this study might be questionable in terms of whether group based or individual based measures are more relevant. Therefore, it has limitations. This study introduces visual displays of the quantitative data and then qualitative data to explicate some of the anxiety-related concerns.

After collecting the data, each student was given an anonymous code ranging from S1 to S8. Each questionnaire was also labelled and coded in IBM SPSS Statistics. The negatively worded item, 'confident' was transcoded. Frequency analysis was carried out in order to spot any possible spelling mistakes, missing data or miscoded items. New variables indicating mean scores of each of the two sub-scales, overall liking and overall anxiety, were computed for both individual based and group based analysis. Having done that, correlation analysis was carried out for overall anxiety and overall liking scores in order to examine the relationship between the two.

The next step was to paste the data in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. Several individual and group-based line and bar charts were prepared to give meaning to the scores. In addition, a well-being index was generated. This index shows the how the discrepancy between anxiety and liking varies between the activities as anxiety and liking are always parallel but not going hand in hand. Simply put, the bigger the index means the higher the liking and the lower the anxiety. Finally, nine retrospective interviews, which had been recorded in Turkish, were translated into English. Since the purpose of this study was to inspire a follow-up study, the qualitative interview data were collected to elicit students' general views on why they felt well or unwell at certain moments in language classes. For this reason, specific coding procedures (e.g Creswell & Creswell, 2018) were not followed.

RESEARCH ETHICS

The participants were informed about the study and they were given informed consent forms prior to the data collection phase. The participants were also given an opportunity to ask questions regarding the study and they were made aware that they could freely withdraw from the project at any time without risk or prejudice. The data

collected were treated in the strictest confidence and were only reported in anonymised form. This paper does not require an ethics approval document as the data were collected before 2020.

3 | RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As mentioned previously, this is an innovative study which can also be perceived as a pilot study. Therefore the aims are slightly different from a more traditional research project. Neither the scope of the study nor the number of participants was really enough to have a fully coherent view. What this research study went for was a diversity presenting a lot of different situations rather than having one research question or hypothesis. As a result, certain insights came out and some of seem to be particularly salient.

NEGATIVE CORRELATION BETWEEN ANXIETY AND LIKING

A significant negative correlation was found between the levels of liking and the levels of anxiety in general ($r = -.77$, p <.01). Anxiety in the classroom, if experienced, has a down-spiralling effect (Arnold & Brown, 1999). That is, the anxious students feel so nervous and insecure that they show poor performance. Inevitably, these poor performances can lead to more anxiety and to even poorer performances. Naturally, these kinds of feelings that anxiety causes in the classroom directly influence students' attitudes towards language instruction. With this regard, students' feeling uncomfortable in the class can lead students to consider the language learning as an unpleasant activity. One might also claim that such a down-spiralling effect could even result in drop-outs. Therefore, teachers should be aware of the downsides of language anxiety in order to take the necessary measures.

SPEAKING ACTIVITIES INCREASE ANXIETY

While preparing the activities for each lesson, presenting similar tasks in similar minutes was paid importance. Once the figures were created, one of the most prominent patterns was observed after 60th minutes. It showed that ,apart from the 3rd lesson, the anxiety decreased dramatically 20 minutes before the end; in other words, during speaking tasks (see Figure 2). In language classrooms anxiety is often associated with oral tasks. There could be several reasons causing this, such as inadequate vocabulary knowledge, low English proficiency or lack of communication strategies. Yet, no matter what reasons are given for the anxiety during speaking tasks, there is clearly one thing this study suggests: the students do not feel comfortable during speaking activities (see Figure 3).
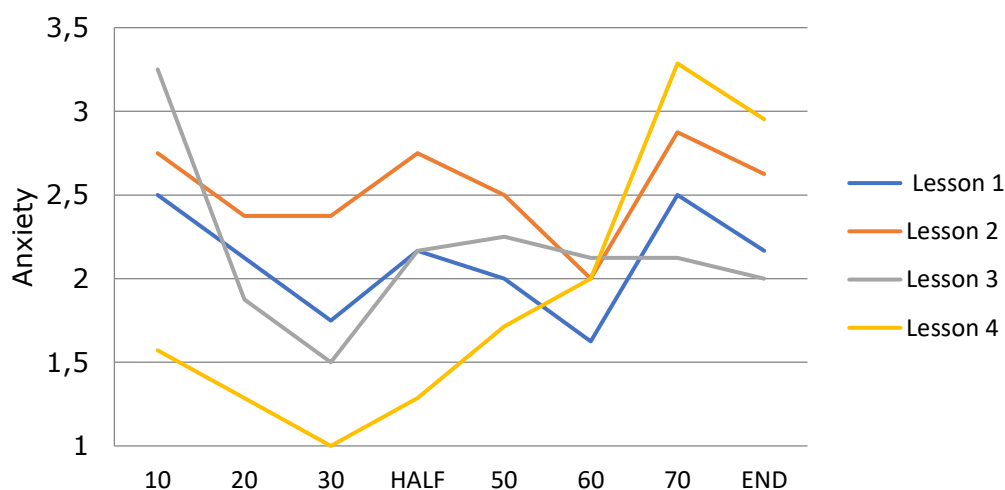
Figure 2. *On-line anxiety scores for each lesson*
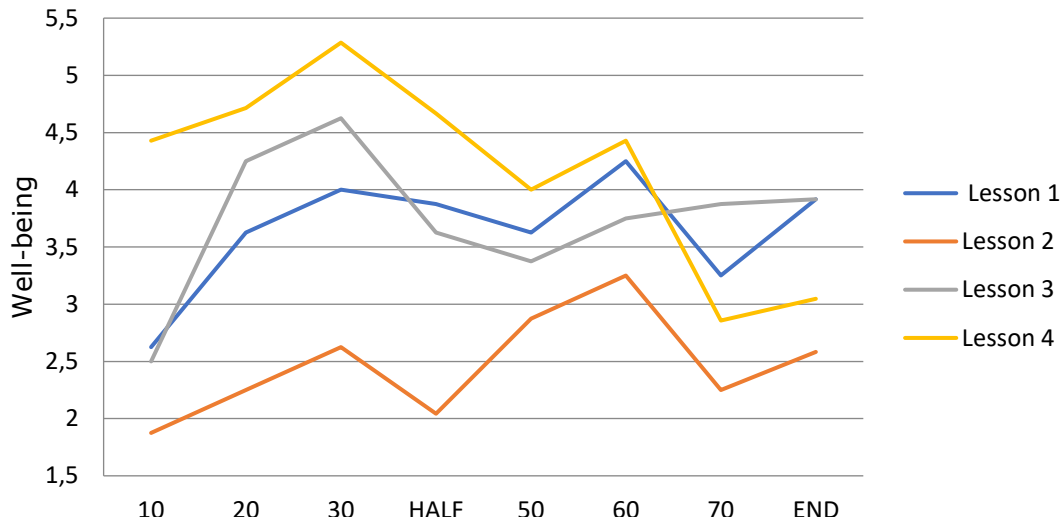
**Figure 3.** *On-line well-being index for each lesson*

Indeed, the findings reveal that oral production is one of the top factors causing foreign language anxiety. S7 expressed that she had difficulty in speaking in English:

> *It was nice, activities were fun. There was no problem for me. The only problem and the reason why my anxiety raised was because I wasn't able to speak English, towards the end I had problems… I understand you and the person speaking but I have difficulty in responding… …Because I am afraid I won't be able to give the correct answer… I couldn't translate what I thought. (S7)*

The interview data showed that S7 had negative thoughts about producing the language. She was afraid of making mistakes and, apparently, she had the idea that speaking a foreign language only consisted of translations.

'Learned helplessness' in the classroom

S7 was the most anxious student by far both in the speaking task and in the whole lesson in general. However, surprisingly, her anxiety had a dramatic decrease in the next lessons (see Figure 4).
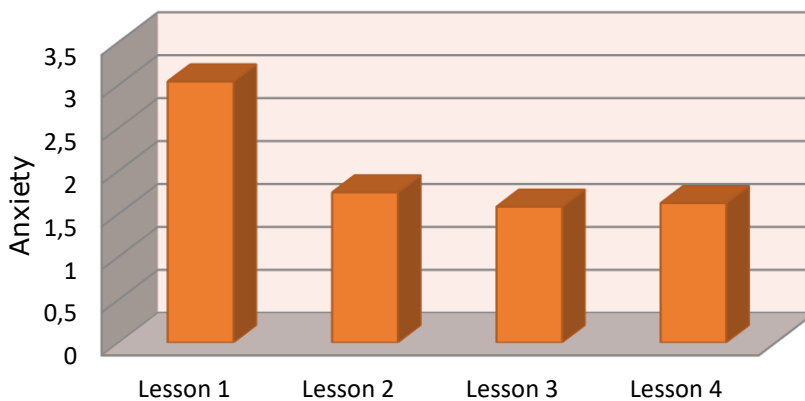
Figure 4. *Mean anxiety scores of Student 7*

When asked about the reasons for such a dramatic change in the interview after the second lesson, she said that she would never be successful in English no matter how hard she tried, so she gave up trying.

> *Today I was more relaxed because I thought I couldn't learn at all. So why would I worry? I didn't really care. Yesterday I felt very nervous because I couldn't speak. However, today I thought there was no need to worry. I planned to be relaxed and so I was relaxed. (S7)*

When students are anxious in any circumstance, they start developing negative self-cognition. This cognition can be in three forms (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b): failure (e.g. I can never finish this task), avoidance (e.g. I

wish the teacher did not arrive) and self-depreciation (e.g. I am not good at languages). These 3 forms can inhibit the cognitive processing and lead to failure which can also create further negative cognitions. This could also be linked to one of the reaction styles Şimşek and Dörnyei (2017) suggested in their conceptualisation of anxiety as the anxious self: quitters.

### PRIMARY ANXIETY DECREASES AFTER ICE-BREAKER ACTIVITIES.

Modern approaches in language teaching emphasize the importance of first impression and the initial steps which the teachers should be following. It has been agreed that teacher should start the lesson in a way that students will engage with it easier. Keeping that in mind, another pattern to come across easily while examining the figures takes place at the beginning of each lesson. The pattern shows that the initial anxiety in the classroom decreases after introducing the ice-breaker activities (see Figure 2). So, it can be claimed that ice-breakers could make students feel confident and comfortable before the introduction of upcoming tasks (see Figure 3).

Dörnyei and Malderez (1999) highlight the importance of ice breakers and warmers at the beginning of a new lesson. Ice breaker activities enhance students' learning about each other and lead to a more comfortable atmosphere. Warmers, on the other hand, can be a good tool to establish good relationships in the group, to recall the goals and to make students start articulating the target language.

NATIVE TEACHER OF ENGLISH CREATES A CONFIDENTIAL ENVIRONMENT.

It was interesting to notice that the speaking activity in the 3rd lesson, unlike the other lessons, did not seem to be contributing to anxiety (see Figure 2) and students' level of well-being was at its highest during the speaking activity in the 3rd lesson compared to the others (see Figure 3). The findings reveal that the answer lies behind the native teacher as the third lesson was taught by him.

To begin with, in the previous finding it was clear that students' initial thoughts about the lesson could trigger the anxiety at the beginning because students were newly arrived and they had either no or little idea regarding the activities they were to face with. However, the on-line anxiety and liking scores for the 3rd lesson suggest more than that (see Figure 5).
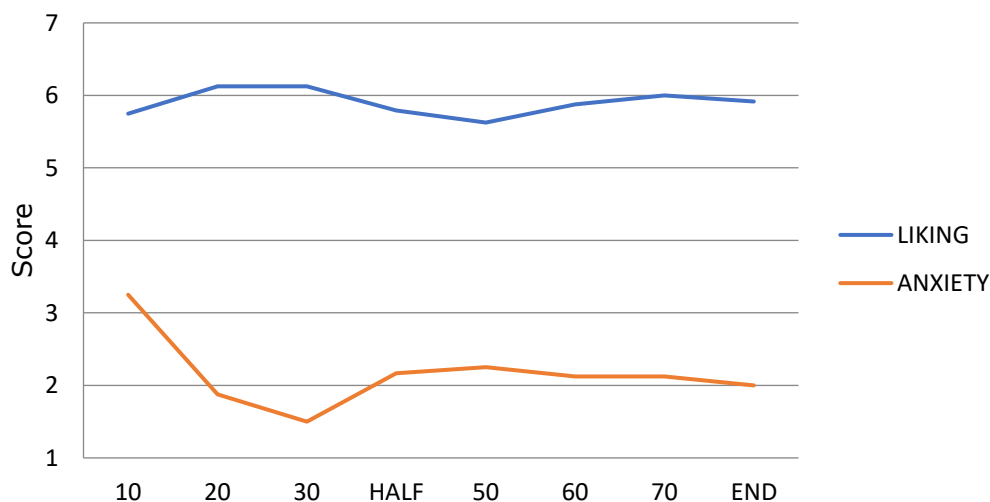
Figure 5. *On-line anxiety and liking scores for lesson 3*

Several reasons for this kind of a sharp decrease could be discussed. The most influential one would probably be the characteristics of the teacher. He is an experienced teacher who knows how to engage with the students in an unthreatening way. Additionally, he has been living in Turkey for a long time; therefore, he is also familiar with Turkish culture. Some of the students reported that the teacher used some funny Turkish vocabulary in the classroom to make the students laugh when they got stuck. Therefore, that the teacher knows a bit of the local language might be another way to make students feel comfortable. As students got to know the teacher, they started

getting rid of their primary negative or skeptical ideas. Thus, their anxiety decreased and almost stood still until the end:

> *I had a bit of anxiety because there was a different teacher, after 2 days of studying with a non-native one. The teacher was from a different country, so a different culture. I experienced difficulty in catching up with the teacher. However, as I get acquainted with the teacher and as the activities moved on, I became relaxed. (S5)*

Comparing the two similar, neutral and communicative lessons, it can be suggested that there is almost no difference between the non-native and native teacher instructions in terms of their contribution to students' level of anxiety. Yet, there is a small difference during the speaking task. (see Figures 6 and 7). It might be depending on the context of the presented task or that the native teacher always made students talk throughout the course. On the other hand, S7 reported that it was a great experience for her and she liked the lesson:

I also had good communication with the teacher. I could understand his speech. It wasn't difficult to understand what he said and he was speaking in an understandable way. I enjoyed it. (S7)
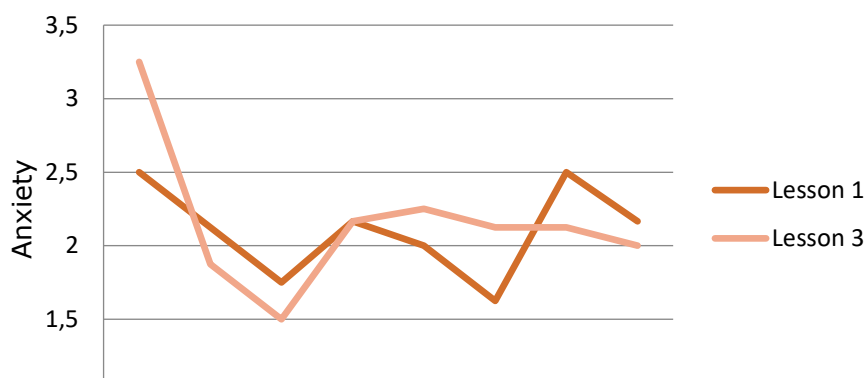

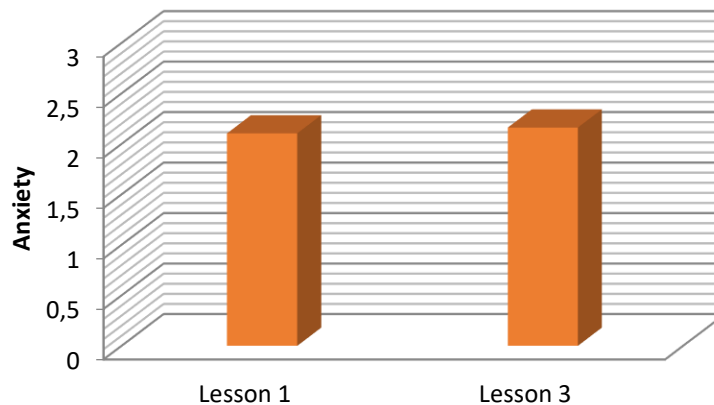**Figure 6.** *On-line scores for lesson 1 and lesson 3*

Figure 7. *Mean anxiety scores for lesson 1 and lesson 3*

The results indicate students' level of anxiety does not depend on their teacher's being a native or non-native speaker of English. Professionalism and experience of the teacher as well as the context of the selected activities might have been the possible sources if there had been a difference between the two.

FAMILIARITY WITH TEACHER HAS AN INTERESTING RELATIONSHIP WITH ANXIETY

The data suggests that teachers' behaving in a different way which students are not used to, or more specifically, changing his/her way of teaching may be a contributing factor on students' level of anxiety. Comparing the first lesson (see Figure 9) to the second one (see Figure 10), it can be concluded that teachers' correcting the errors immediately in a way that students are not used to increases the level of anxiety; whereas, the

non-familiar students are always the most anxious group (see Figure 8) considering all the lessons from which the 3rd one has been excluded due to native teacher instruction. One reason for familiar students' high anxiety can be worrying about disappointing the teacher.
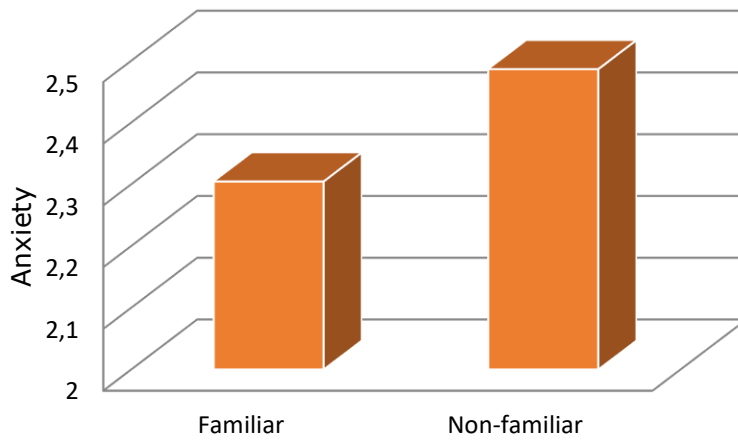
Figure 8. *Mean anxiety scores of the students in terms of teacher familiarity*
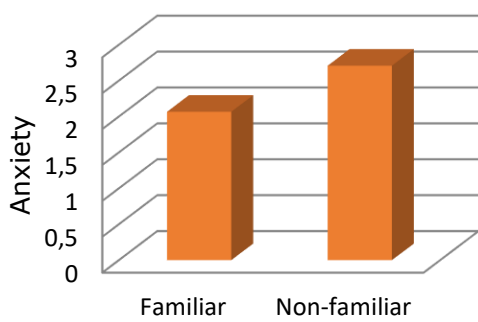

Figure 9. *Mean anxiety scores of the students in terms of teacher familiarity for lesson 2*
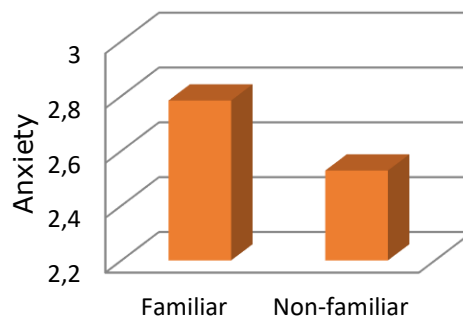
Figure 10. *Mean anxiety scores of the students in terms of teacher familiarity for lesson 1*

TASK BASED ACTIVITIES COULD HELP TO CREATE CONFIDENCE IN THE CLASSROOM

Horwitz (2008) asserts that tasks lead to more realistic communication, make students use authentic sources and combine reading, writing, speaking and listening skills properly. Indeed, when the liking scores are taken into consideration, lesson 4 is noted as the lesson which students liked the most (see Figures 11 and 12).
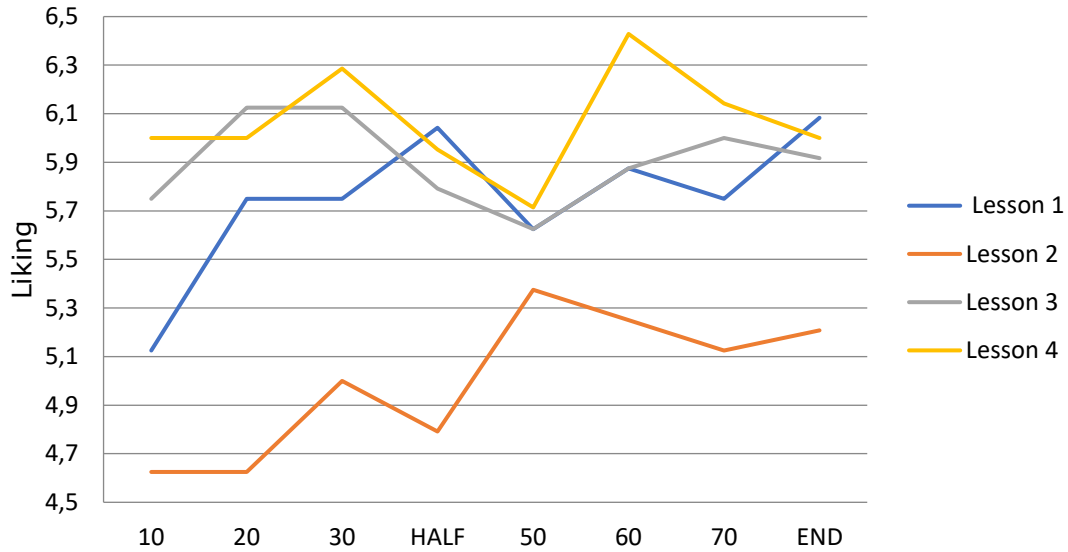
Figure 11. *On-line liking scores for each lesson*
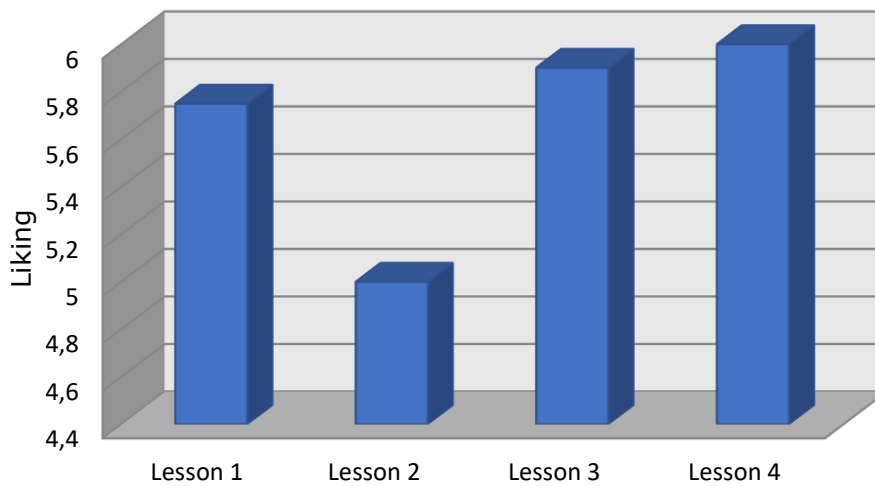
Figure 12. *Mean liking scores for each lesson*

As mentioned before, particularly the second half of the lesson 4 was based on a task-based activity which students were asked to prepare a poster. The results show that students enjoy task-based activities as they work in groups and share information to achieve a common goal. Even during the presentation of their posters, student tend to be less anxious compared to the speaking activities in the other lessons, which indicates that speaking in groups can be more comfortable than speaking individually. On the other hand, the 4th lesson was the last lesson of this study. Hence, there is the possibility that it might also affect students' level of liking because students built good relationships among each other during the formerly held three lessons and they got used to the class as time moved on.

Moreover, due to the cooperative nature of the activity, students' level of liking increased in the second part of the 4th lesson and S1 and S8 reported that they enjoyed a lot:

> *Today was more like a project. When we study like this, our self-confidence increases. Besides this, it was more enjoyable. Also it was better in terms of communication as we needed to*

cooperate with each other. In group works, you exchange ideas with the friends; therefore, it brings good opportunities to improve your knowledge, vocabulary and so on. (S1)

Today the lesson was enjoyable because we carried out a project. It was different. At the beginning, the lesson was of course a bit usual. However, as we carried out the project in the second lesson, it started to become enjoyable… (S8)

Furthermore, mean anxiety scores showed that the 4th class was the least anxiety provoking one even though a video camera was used to record students' oral performances (see Figure 16).
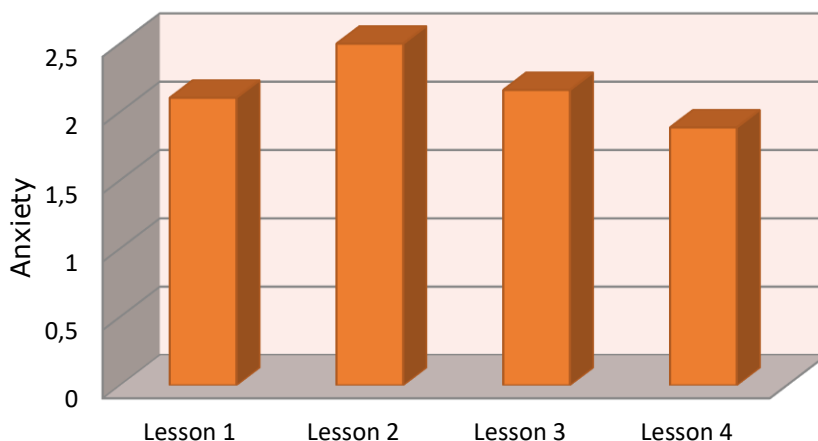
Figure 13. *Mean anxiety scores for each lesson*

ERROR CORRECTION HAS A GREAT CONTRIBUTION TO ANXIETY.

When both liking and anxiety scores are concerned, it can easily be noticed that one of the lessons differs from the others. Lesson 2, in other words the class with immediate error correction, was chosen to be the most anxiety provoking class as well as the least enjoyable one (see Figures 2, 3, 11,12). S5 complains about the constant intervention by the teacher:

...today was a bit problematic, because I started to feel nervous. Being corrected continuously or not being sure of myself led me to feel anxious… (S5)

The interview data indicate that immediate error correction, especially grammatical corrections, can provoke anxiety. In addition, as students follow teacher as a model, they do what the teacher does. In other words, students start correcting each other's errors, which can cause the classroom atmosphere to be both more anxious and chaotic.

...we had good communication (with friends) before but today we started to correct each other today. I felt that the class was getting a bit tense, because we were correcting each other along with you…(S8)

Language learning is a long-running process which involves making errors even while using simple structures. How to treat these errors in the classroom and outcomes of this treatment have always been investigated in many academic studies (e.g. Pawlak, 2014). However, there is one thing almost for sure: errors should be handled by the teachers carefully. As Horwitz (2008) recommends language teachers should be selective in error correction and deal with the errors in a friendly manner.

VIDEO RECORDINGS AFFECT STUDENTS' EMOTIONAL STATES IN THE CLASSROOM

One of the major findings of this study is derived from the 4th lesson. While everything was positive by means of cooperative language teaching and students' building better relationships in time, the level of anxiety was exposed to a sudden increase (see Figure 14). Of course, that the increase occurred right after the introduction of video camera should not be a coincidence.
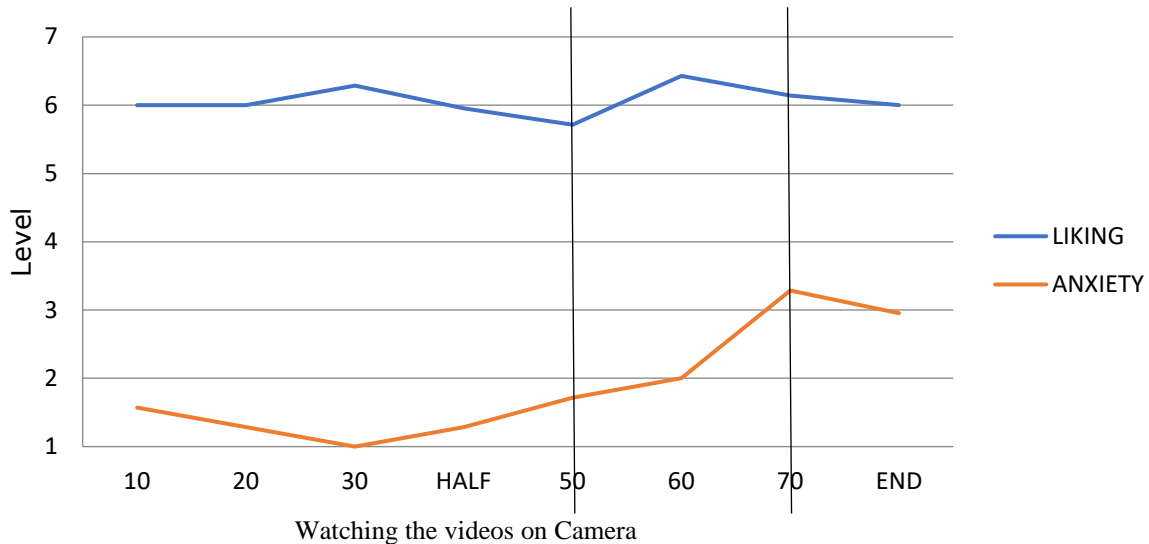
Figure 14. *On-line anxiety and liking scores for lesson 4*

In the second finding it has been mentioned that students face with anxiety during their oral performances. Therefore, combination of the speech anxiety with the video recordings can cause the anxiety arousal to reach even more serious levels. S1 explained how nervous he was during the recording.

> *Indeed, in the activity at the end of the lesson we were asked to speak. Also the recording contributed to the anxiety. Because of these, I started feeling nervous. Additionally, we started being not sure of what we were going to say, so it might be because of lack of ability to speak English fluently… (S1)*

Moreover, anxiety rating was at its highest while students were watching themselves in the classroom. The interview data indicate that this behaviour emerges from students' worrying about their physical appearance on the video and their mistakes.

> *While we were carrying out an enjoyable project, the video-recording made us nervous. Actually, not when the video was being recorded but while watching it in the classroom our anxiety increased. We could not be sure whether we looked silly on the screen or if we made any mistakes (S6)*

All in all, video camera has visible effects on students' level of anxiety and it seems that video recordings in the classroom will be paid more attention in the future as cameras are being used almost in every stage of life.

EXOGENOUS FACTORS MIGHT BE ANXIETY BOOSTERS

2 students, S4 and S5, were going to attend their university's graduation ball after lesson 2. S5 reported that he could not give up thinking the graduation ball he was going to participate.

> *Actually, today is a special day for me and this was also making me anxious, too… I have graduation ball. That is the reason. So I'm already anxious, I don't know how it will be. (S5)*

The statement of S5 could suggest that students' personal or social concerns could serve as an anxiety boosting factor. Students can encounter with several downfalls or worries stemming from their extra scholastic experiences. It would not be rational to say that these students could overcome their exogenous challenges in a short period of time. As emotional preparation is the first requirement for mental preparation, some of the students might still be under the effect of these challenges in the classroom which could be increasing their foreign language anxiety.

4 | CONCLUSION

It is essential to look for new ways of dealing with the problems that learners come across while learning a foreign language. Probably the most frequent one of these problems is foreign language anxiety. Many studies

suggest that language anxiety is a complex issue which should be well understood and carefully treated (see Gkonou et al, 2017). Therefore, this study investigated the foreign language anxiety in the classroom in various ways using an innovative methodology, which revealed several issues. Students showed that they did not like the lesson if they were anxious. Additionally, high levels of anxiety occurred during speaking activities. Similarly, error correction was shown to be anxiety provoking. The lesson in which immediate error correction was made was the lesson that students did not like the most; whereas, it was vice versa for the task-based lesson. On the other hand, it was indicated that recording students during a speaking activity increased their level of anxiety and the highest anxiety was obtained while students were watching their own performances in the classroom. The findings revealed that there was no difference between native and non-native teacher instruction on anxiety. Last but not least, students' self-esteem and the experiences they had outside of the school could contribute to anxiety they had in language classes. In terms of its small scope and limited number of students, this study can be considered as a pilot study to investigate foreign language anxiety in as many in-class aspects as possible, which can lead to a future research. A larger number of participants with a broader scope could provide more precise results and probably make it possible to retrieve inferential statistics.

REFERENCES

Allwright, D., & Bailey K. M. (1991). *Focus on the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Alpert, R., & Haber, R. N. (1960). Anxiety in academic achievement situations. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 61*(2), 207-215.

Ancker, W. (2000). Errors and corrective feedback: Updated theory and classroom practice. *Forum, 38*(4), 20-25.

Arnold, J., & Brown H.D. (1999). A map of the terrain. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 1-24). Cambridge, U.K: Cambridge University Press.

Blackmore, M. A., Erwin, B. A., Heimberg, R. G., Magee, L., & Fresco, D. M. (2009). Social anxiety disorder and specific phobias. In M. G. Gelder, N. C. Andreasen, J. J. Lopez-Ibor Jr., & J. R. Geddes (Eds.), *New Oxford textbook of psychiatry*, (pp. 739-750). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Boekaerts, M. (1986). Situation-specific judgments of a learning task versus overall measures. In E. De Corde, H. Lodewijks, R. Parmentier & P. Span (Eds.), *Learning and instruction*. Oxford:Pergamon Press.

Boekaerts, M. (1987). Individual differences in the appraisal of learning tasks: An integrative view on emotion and cognition. *Communication and Cognition, 20*(2/3), 207-224.

Canagarajah, S. (1999). Interrogating the 'native speaker fallacy': Non-linguistic roots, non-pedagogical results. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native educators in English language teaching* (pp. 77-92). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Chastain, K. (1975). Affective and ability factors in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 25*(1), 153-161.

Cheng, Y. S., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning*, *49*(3), 417–446.

Cook, V. (2005). Basing teaching on the L2 user. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges, and contributions to the profession* (pp. 47-61). New York: Springer.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* Los Angeles: SAGE.

Crombach, M. J., Boekaerts, M., & Voeten, M. J. M. (2003). Online measurement of appraisals of students faced with curricular tasks. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 63*(1), 96-111.

Dewaele, J.-M. (2002). Psychological and sociodemographic correlates of communicative anxiety in L2 and L3 production. *International Journal of Bilingualism 6* (1), 23–38.

Dörnyei, Z., & Malderez, A. (1999). The role of group dynamics in foreign language learning and teaching. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 155-169). Cambridge, U.K: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. New York: Routledge.

Elkhafaifi, H. (2005). Listening comprehension and anxiety in the Arabic language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *89*(2), 206–220.

Gardner, R. C., Masgoret A. M., Tennant J., & Mihic L. (2004). Integrative motivation:Changes during a year long intermediate level language course. *Language Learning, 54*, 1-34.

Gkonou C., Daubney, M., & Dewaele, J. -M. (Eds.). (2017). *New insights into language anxiety: Theory, research and educational implications*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Gregersen, T., & Horwitz, E. K. (2002). Language learning and perfectionism: Anxious and non-anxious language learners' reactions to their own oral performance. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*(4), 562-570.

Gregersen, T., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). *Capitalizing on language learner's individuality: from premise to practice*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Gregersen, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Meza, M. D. (2014). The motion of emotion: Idiodynamic case studies of learners' foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 98*(2), 574-588.

Hedge, T. (2000). Teaching and learning in the language classroom. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Horwitz, E. K. (2008). *Becoming a language teacher: A practical guide to second language learning and teaching.* Boston: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.

Horwitz, E. K. (2017). On the misreading of Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) and the need to balance anxiety research and the experiences of anxious language learners. In C. Gknonou, M. Daubney & J. -M. Dewaele (Eds.), *New insights into language anxiety: Theory, research and educational implications* (pp. 11-30). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *70*(2), 125-132.

Jee, M. J. (2016). Exploring Korean heritage language learners' anxiety: 'We are not afraid of Korean!' *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 37*(1), 56–74.

Johnson, D., Johnson, R., & Holubec, E. (1998). *Cooperation in the classroom*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Julkunen, K. (1989). *Situation and task-specific motivation in foreign language learning and teaching*. Joensuu: University of Joensuu.

Kleinmann, H. (1977). Avoidance behaviour in adult second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 27*(1), 93–107.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2018). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*(1), 37-66.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere* (pp.24-45). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

MacIntyre, P. D. (2012). The idiodynamic method: A closer look at the dynamics of communication traits. *Communication Research Reports, 29*(4), 361-367.

MacIntyre, P. D. (2017). An overview of language anxiety research and trends in its development. In C. Gknonou, M. Daubney & J. -M. Dewaele (Eds.), *New insights into language anxiety: Theory, research and educational implications* (pp. 11-30). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second-language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning, 39*(2), 251-275.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994a). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning, 44,* 283-305.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994b). The effects of induced anxiety on three stages of cognitive processing in computerized vocabulary learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *16*(1), 1-17.

MacIntyre, P.D., & Serroul, A. (2015) Motivation on a per-second timescale: Examining approach-avoidance motivation during L2 task performance. In Z. Dörnyei, P.D. MacIntyre and A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 109–138). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*(4), 471-497.

Mak, B. S. (2011). An exploration of speaking-in-class anxiety with Chinese ESL learners. *System*, *39*(2), 202–214.

Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? *ELT Journal, 46*(4), 340–349.

Medgyes, P. (1994). *The non-native teacher*. London: Macmillan.

Modiano, M. (1999). International English in the global village. *English Today, 15*(2), 22–28.

Nemtchinova, E. (2005). Host teachers' evaluations of non-native English-speaking teacher trainees: A perspective from the classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(2), 235–262.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Bailey, P., & Daley, C. (1999). Factors associated with foreign language anxiety. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 20(*2), 217-239.

Oxford, R. L. (1999). Anxiety and the language learner: New insights. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 58-67)**.** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pawlak, M. (2014). *Error correction in the foreign language classroom: Reconsidering the issues*. Berlin: Springer.

Phillips, E. M. (1992). The effects of language anxiety on students' oral test performance and attitudes. *Modern Language Journal*, *76*(1), 14-26.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2018). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Saito, Y., Garza, T. J., & Horwitz, E. K. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *83*(2), 202–218.

Sato, K. (2003). Improving Our Students' Speaking Skills: Using Selective Error Correction and Group Work To Reduce Anxiety and Encourage Real Communication. Japan: Akita Prefectural.

Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. *Language Learning, 28*(1), 129–142.

Şimşek, E., & Dörnyei, Z. (2017). Anxiety and L2 self-images: The 'anxious self'. In C. Gknonou, M. Daubney & J. -M. Dewaele (Eds.), *New insights into language anxiety: Theory, research and educational implications* (pp. 51-69). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Spielberger, C. D. (1966). Theory and research on anxiety. In C. D. Spielberger (Ed.), *Anxiety and behavior* (pp. 3-20). New York: Academic Press

Tercan, G., & Dikilitaş, K. (2015). EFL students' speaking anxiety: a case from tertiary level students. *ELT Research Journal ,4*(1), 16-27 .

Thompson, A. S., & Khawaja, A. J. (2015). Foreign language anxiety in Turkey: The role of multilingualism. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 37*(2), 115-130.

Tsui, A. (1995). Introducing classroom interaction. London: Penguin English.

Tsui, A. (1996). Reticence and anxiety in second language learning. In K. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voices from the language classroom* (pp. 145-167). Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

Waninge, F. (2010). *The elusive motivation: The development of motivation in real time*. MA Dissertation. University of Groningen.

White, J., & Lightbrown, P. M. (1984). Asking and answering in ESL classes. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 40*, 2, 228-244.

Wu, K. (2010). The relationship between language learners' anxiety and learning strategy in the CLT classrooms. *International Education Studies, 3*(1), 174-191.

Yashima, T., Zenuk-Nishide, L., & Shimizu, K.(2004). The influence of attitude and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication. *Language Learning, 54*, 119-152.