THE EFFECTS OF A SPEAKING ANXIETY REDUCTION MODEL ON SPEAKING PERFORMANCE OF EFL LEARNERS

Tianjian Wang

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Studies

Suranaree University of Technology

Academic Year 2010

ผลของการใช้โมเดลเพื่อลดความกังวลในการพูดที่มีต่อพฤติกรรมการพูด
ของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ

นายเทียนเจียน หวัง

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต
สาขาภาษาอังกฤษศึกษา
มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุรนารี
ปีการศึกษา 2553

THE EFFECTS OF A SPEAKING ANXIETY REDUCTION MODEL ON SPEAKING PERFORMANCE OF EFL LEARNERS

Suranaree University of Technology has approved this thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Thesis Examining Committee

(Dr. Dhirawit Pinyonatthagarn)

Chairperson

(Dr. Sarit Srikhao)

Member (Thesis Advisor)

(Prof. Dr. Chaiyong Brahmawong)

Member

(Dr. Jitpanat Suwanthep)

Member

(Dr. Suksan Suppasetseree)

Member

(Prof. Dr. Sukit Limpijumnong)

Vice Rector for Academic Affairs

(Dr. Peerasak Siriyothin)

Dean of Institute of Social Technology

เทียนเจียน หวัง : ผลของการใช้โมเดลเพื่อลดความกังวลในการพูดที่มีต่อพฤติกรรมการพูดของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ (THE EFFECTS OF A SPEAKING ANXIETY REDUCTION MODEL ON SPEAKING PERFORMANCE OF EFL LEARNERS) อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา : ดร. สฤษดิ์ ศรีขาว, 181 หน้า

งานวิจัยนี้มีจุดประสงค์ดังนี้คือ 1) เพื่อตรวจสอบความกังวลของนักศึกษาที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาที่สอง 2) เพื่อหาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความกังวลในการพูดกับตัวแปรอันเป็นที่สนใจของนักวิจัยอื่นๆอยู่แล้ว 3) เพื่อสร้างแบบจำลองการลดความกังวลในการพูดโดยอาศัย Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) และ 4) เพื่อหาผลของการใช้แบบจำลองการลดความกังวลในการพูด (หวังโมเดล) ต่อความกังวลในการพูดและพฤติกรรมการพูด

ประชากรในการศึกษาวิจัยครั้งนี้ประกอบด้วยนักศึกษาระดับปริญญาตรีชั้นปีที่ 1 ที่ไม่ได้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นวิชาเอกจากคณะเศรษฐศาสตร์และการคลังแห่งกุ้ยโจ จังหวัดกุ้ยโจ ประเทศจีน นักศึกษาทั้งหมดจำนวน 240 คนลงทะเบียนเรียนรายวิชาภาษาอังกฤษซึ่งถือเป็นภาษาที่สองเป็นวิชาบังคับและนับหน่วยกิต ประชากรทั้งหมดได้รับการตรวจสอบระดับความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษา 103 คนได้รับการตรวจสอบความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ (SA) กับนิสัยเป็นกังวล (TA) ความไม่เต็มใจในการสื่อสาร (UTC) ความสำเร็จในด้านภาษา (LA) ประสิทธิผลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของตนเอง (SSE) ความกล้าเสี่ยงในห้องเรียนภาษา (LCR) และสมรรถภาพเชิงสังคมในห้องเรียนภาษา (LCS) และนักศึกษา 32 คนเป็นประชากรที่ใช้ในการทดสอบผลของ แบบจำลองนี้

ผลการวิจัยพบว่า 1) โดยเฉลี่ยผู้เรียนที่มีระดับความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษปานกลางและผู้เรียนเกินกึ่งหนึ่งมีระดับความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษกระจายกันไปในระดับปานกลางหรือระดับสูง 2) ระดับความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาชายหญิงไม่แตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ 3) ความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษมีสหสัมพันธ์เชิงบวกกับนิสัยเป็นกังวล (TA) ความไม่เต็มใจในการสื่อสาร (UTC) และองค์ประกอบหลัก 2 ประการของความไม่เต็มใจในการสื่อสาร (คือ UTCA: มิติเลี่ยงการเข้าหากับ UTCR: มิติรางวัลตอบแทน) และมีสหสัมพันธ์เชิงลบกับความสำเร็จในด้านภาษา (LA) ประสิทธิผลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของตนเอง (SSE) ความกล้าเสี่ยงในการห้องเรียนภาษา (LCR) และสมรรถภาพเชิงสังคมในห้องเรียนภาษา (LCS) 4) มิติเลี่ยงการเข้าหา (UTCA) ความกล้าเสี่ยงในการห้องเรียนภาษา (LCR) และ ความสำเร็จในด้านภาษา (LA) สามารถทำนายความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดีที่สุด 5) มิติเลี่ยงการเข้าหา (UTCA) มีอิทธิพลโดยตรงต่อความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ นิสัยเป็นกังวล (TA) มีอิทธิพลทางอ้อมต่อ

ความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ และความกังวลนี้จะส่งอิทธิพลต่อความกล้าเสี่ยงในการเรียนภาษา (LCR) และสมรรถภาพเชิงสังคมในห้องเรียนภาษา (LCS) อีกโสดหนึ่งด้วย 6) ความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษและความสำเร็จในด้านภาษา (LA) ต่างมีอิทธิพลต่อกัน 7) แบบจำลองการลดความกังวลในการพูด (หวังโมเดล) สามารถใช้ในการลดความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ และทำให้พฤติกรรมการพูดภาษาอังกฤษดีขึ้นโดยการเพิ่มจำนวนคำทั้งหมดในหน่วยสื่อสาร และ 8) ผลจากการใช้แบบจำลองเพื่อลดความกังวลในการพูดที่พัฒนาโดยนายหวัง (Wang SAR Model) ต่อความกังวลในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษและพฤติกรรมการพูดในกลุ่มนักศึกษาชายหญิงไม่แตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ

สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ ลายมือชื่อนักศึกษา _____

ปีการศึกษา 2553 ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา _____

TIANJIAN WANG : THE EFFECTS OF A SPEAKING ANXIETY REDUCTION MODEL ON SPEAKING PERFORMANCE OF EFL LEARNERS. THESIS ADVISOR : SARIT SRIKHAO, Ph.D., 181 pp.

SPEAKING ANXIETY REDUCTION MODEL/SPEAKING ANXIETY/SPEAKING PERFORMANCE

The objectives of the study are (1) to examine the extent of speaking anxiety (SA) experienced by students who learn English as a second language, (2) to simultaneously explore the relationships of SA to several other variables of interest to researchers, (3) to develop a speaking anxiety reduction model (Wang SAR Model) based on the Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT), and (4) to find out the effects of the Wang SAR Model on SA, as well as on speaking performance.

The participants were the first-year non-English-major undergraduates studying in Guizhou College of Finance and Economics, Guizhou, China. They were all enrolled in the course of English as a second language, which was compulsory and credit-bearing. A total of 240 participants were investigated on their SA, 103 were investigated on the relationships of their SA to their trait anxiety (TA), unwillingness to communicate (UTC), language achievement (LA), English speaking self-efficacy (SSE), language class risk-taking (LCR), as well as language class sociability (LCS), and 32 were involved in an experiment testing the effects of the Wang SAR Model.

The results of statistical analysis showed that (1) the learners experienced a moderate level of SA on an average, and over half of the learners' levels of SA fell in the moderate or high interval in terms of distribution; (2) the mean level and the

distribution of the levels of SA did not differ significantly in terms of gender; (3) SA was positively correlated with TA, UTC, as well as the two principal components of UTC (UTCA: the approach-avoidance dimension; UTCR: the reward dimension), and negatively with LA, SSE, LCR, and LCS; (4) SA could be best predicted by UTCA, LCR, and LA; (5) SA was directly influenced by UTCA, indirectly influenced by TA, and it could further influence LCR, as well as LCS; (6) SA and LA had mutual influences on each other; (7) the Wang SAR Model was capable of reducing SA, and improving speaking performance by increasing the total number of words in communication units; and (8) the effects of the Wang SAR Model on SA and speaking performance did not differ significantly in terms of gender.

School of English

Academic Year 2010

Student's Signature _____

Advisor's Signature _____

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this research work is one of the great events which I feel ever so proud of. It should be attributed not only to my hard work in the past years, but also to the help and care I have got from so many experts and friends. I am very grateful to all of them for what they have blessed me.

First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to my dear supervisor, Dr. Sarit Srikhao. With his profound linguistic expertise, rich experience in research, and great wisdom, he has helped me to complete the work step by step. He is not only very responsible for my work, but also extremely considerate toward me. Working with him has been a great experience, which would be impressed in my memory forever.

I am extremely indebted to the advisory committee members, Dr. Dhirawit Pinyonatthagarn, Chair of the Committee, Prof. Dr. Chaiyong Brahmawong, the external examiner, Dr. Jitpanat Suwanthep, and Dr. Suksan Suppasetseree. Their recommendations and suggestions have been very constructive for my work. They have provided me with rich literature related to my research topic, and spent their precious time to give me patient guidance. What I have benefited from them was not only a great improvement on my work, but also the methodology which would produce an everlasting effect on my research career.

My gratitude also goes to Dr. Peerasak Siriyothin, the dean of Institute of Social Technology of SUT, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Anchalee Wannaruk, the Chair of the

School of English of SUT. They have blessed us foreign students a lot of kind help and consideration to make our life and study in SUT an enjoyable experience.

I owe a lot to Asst. Prof. Dr. Siriluck Usaha, the former Chair of the School of English of SUT. She has given me a lot of patient directions to my work at the early stage.

Many of my thanks should go to the graduate coordinators, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Channarong Intaraprasert, and Dr. Sirinthorn Seepho, they have not only given me a lot of help with my study, but also kept us graduates informed with whatever necessary for us to know.

I would like to express my gratefulness to the course instructors at SUT: Assoc. Prof. Jeremy Ward, Assoc. Prof. Songphorn Tajaroensuk, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Khanit Khaimook, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Channarong Intaraprasert, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Suphat Sukamolson, Asst. Prof. Dr. Pannatorn Sangarun, and Dr. Sirinthorn Seepho. They have helped me to lay down the foundation for research.

My special thanks should go to Ms. Saruta Chantaros, the Secretary of the School of English of SUT. She is always so kind and patient, having provided me with numerous helps and cares, which I would never forget.

There are also many other sincere Thai and Chinese friends, as well as experts, who have helped me a lot with my study and research work. I would always be grateful to all of them.

Tianjian Wang

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ABSTRACT (THAI)…….....I

ABSTRACT (ENGLISH)…….III

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS…….....V

TABLE OF CONTENTS…….....VII

LIST OF TABLES…….....XII

LIST OF FIGURES……..XIII

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS…….....XIV

CHAPTER

1. INTRODUCTION…….1

1.1 Rationale……..……....1

1.2 Objectives of the Study..…..…….……...……4

1.3 Significance of the Study……...…….....6

1.4 Scope and Limitations……..……...….……..7

1.5 Definitions of Key Terms……...……...8

1.6 Summary ……..…...…….……..9

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE….……..…..…..……10

2.1 Concept of Anxiety……...……..…..…..…..10

2.2 Concept of Language Anxiety ...……...……..……...11

2.3 Identification of Language Anxiety……...……..……...13

2.3.1 Self-Report……..……..…….....14

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

Page

2.3.2 Observation……..……..14

2.4 Relationships of Language Anxiety to Learner Variables ……..……15

2.4.1 Language Anxiety and Culture...……..……..……15

2.4.2 Language Anxiety and Belief…..……..……15

2.4.3 Language Anxiety and Personality……17

2.4.4 Language Anxiety and State Anxiety……18

2.4.5 Language Anxiety and Gender……..……18

2.5 Relationships of Language Anxiety to Achievement and Speaking…...19

2.5.1 Language Anxiety and Overall Achievement ……..……20

2.5.2 Language Anxiety and Speaking……..……21

2.6 Theories Concerning Language Anxiety……23

2.6.1 “Side-Effect” Interpretation of Language Anxiety……24

2.6.2 Active-Role Interpretations of Language Anxiety……25

2.7 Learning Theories Relevant to and Possible Remedies for Language Anxiety……...28

2.7.1 Learning Theories Relevant to language anxiety…….....28

2.7.2 Possible Remedies for Language Anxiety ……33

2.8 Summary……...……..36

3. METHODOLOGY…….….....37

3.1 Research Questions…….37

3.2 Research Variables……..……38

3.2.1 Variables Related to Research Question 1……38

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

Page

3.2.2 Variables Related to Research Question 2…….39

3.2.3 Variables Related to Research Question 3-5…….39

3.3 Population and Samples…….42

3.3.1 Characteristics of the Population……..…….42

3.3.2 Sampling Methods and Sample Sizes……..…..42

3.4 Instruments and Materials……..…….48

3.5 Research Designs……..……..53

3.6 Research Procedures……...55

3.6.1 Procedure for Research Question 1-2……....55

3.6.2 Procedure for Research Question 3-5……....55

3.7 Data Analysis……..59

3.7.1 Data Analysis for Research Question 1…….59

3.7.2 Data Analysis for Research Question 2…….59

3.7.3 Data Analysis for Research Question 3-5..……....60

3.8 Pilot Studies……61

3.8.1 Pilot Study A……61

3.8.2 Pilot Study B……..66

3.9 Summary…….....68

4. Data Analysis and Results and Discussion……...70

4.1 Data Analysis and Results …….70

4.1.1 Data Analysis and Results to Research Question 1……...70

4.1.2 Data Analysis and Results to Research Question 2……...72

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

Page

4.1.3 Data Analysis and Results to Research Question 3-5……80

4.2 Discussion……...85

4.2.1 Extent of SA Experienced by the Learners ……...86

4.2.2 Relationships of SA to the Other Variables……...87

4.2.3 Effects of the Wang SAR Model……...90

4.2.4 A Model for SA, Beliefs in Communication in L2 and UTCA...……..92

4.3 Summary…….....94

5. SPEAKING ANXIETY REDUCTION: THE WANG SAR MODEL…..95

5.1 Justification for Developing the Wang SAR Model Based on the REBT….....95

5.1.1 Rationale for the Selection of the REBT……...95

5.1.2 Grounds for and Aspects Involved in the Development…….....97

5.2 Components and Logical Steps of the Wang SAR Model……..99

5.2.1 Prologue ……..101

5.2.2 Background Knowledge……..102

5.2.3. Roots and Remedies of SA……104

5.2.4 Epilogue……...116

5.3 Summary……...117

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

Page

6. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS……..118

6.1 Conclusion of the Study……118

6.2 Pedagogical Implications……..120

6.3 Recommendations ……122

6.4 Summary……...123

REFERENCES……..……..……..……...124

APPENDICES…….…….135

CURRICULUM VITAE…….....….188

LIST OF TABLES

Table **Page**

Table 3.1 Distribution of the Sample in the Experiment……..47

Table 3.2 Design for Research Question 3-5……....54

Table 3.3 Reliabilities of the Scales Employed in Pilot Study A…….....63

Table 3.4 Principal Components of TA Found in Pilot Study A …….....64

Table 3.5 Correlations Found in Pilot Study A…….....65

Table 3.6 Means of SA for Pretest and Posttest in Pilot Study B……68

Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics for SA……71

Table 4.2 Statistics Related to the Reliabilities of the Instruments for Question 2…..73

Table 4.3 Inter-Correlations for SA and the Other Variables……..……..…74

Table 4.4 Regression Coefficients for the Prediction of SA (R^2 = .46)……75

Table 4.5 Inter-Rater Reliabilities Signified by Pearson Correlations…….....82

Table 4.6 Statistics Related to the Reliabilities of Instruments for Question 3-5…….82

Table 4.7 Descriptive Statistics for the Gain Scores of the Dependent Variables…...83

Table 4.8 Effects of the Condition of Experiment….....84

Table 4.9 Effects of the Condition of Experiment × Gender……85

Table 4.10 Comparison of Correlation Coefficients for the Same Constructs…….88

Table 5.1 Types of Intelligence……108

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure **Page**

Figure 2.1 Basic Cognitive Behavior Model (Wright, 2006, p. 174)……...34

Figure 3.1 Logical Framework of the Variables in Research Question 3-5…….....42

Figure 4.1 Demonstration of the Implications of the Levels of SA…….71

Figure 4.2 Distributions of Levels of SA…….72

Figure 4.3 Hypothesized Relationships for SA and the Other Variables …….....76

Figure 4.4 Estimated Relationships for SA and the Other Variables (Model A)……..78

Figure 4.5 Estimated Relationships for SA and the Other Variables (Model B)……..79

Figure 4.6 Influences of Beliefs in Communication in L2 and UTCA on SA…….93

Figure 4.7 Hypothesized Model Connecting SA, Beliefs in Communication in L2 and UTCA……...93

Figure 5.1 Components of the Wang SAR Model……...…99

Figure 5.2 Logical Steps of the Wang SAR Model……100

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANCOVA	=	Analysis of Covariance
CA	=	Communication Apprehension
CBT	=	Cognitive Behavioral Therapy
CR	=	Cognitive Restructuring
CU	=	Communication Unit
EFL	=	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	=	English as a Second Language
FLCAS	=	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
JFL	=	Japanese as a Foreign Language
L2	=	Second Language
LA	=	Language Achievement
LAE	=	Language Achievement on College Entrance Test
LAF	=	Language Achievement on Final-Term Test
LCDH	=	Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis
LCR	=	Language Class Risk-Taking
LCS	=	Language Class Sociability
OPI	=	Oral Proficiency Interview
RE	=	Relaxation Exercises
REBT	=	Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy
SA	=	Speaking Anxiety
SAR	=	Speaking Anxiety Reduction
SAstate	=	Speaking State Anxiety
SD	=	Systematic Desensitization
SSE	=	Speaking Self-Efficacy

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (Continued)

TA	=	Trait Anxiety
TAT	=	Thematic Apperception Test
UTC	=	Unwillingness to Communicate
UTCA	=	Approach-Avoidance dimension of UTC
UTCR	=	Reward dimension of UTC

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As an emotional phenomenon, language anxiety has been attracting a lot of attention from educators and researchers in the past decades. Being a primary component of language anxiety, speaking anxiety (SA) has been examined by numerous investigations. Though many truths have been revealed on this issue, there are still many problems in urgent need of solution. The present study probed into the topic of SA from a unique perspective. This chapter is an introduction to the whole study. The rationale and objectives of the study are presented here. The significance, scope and limitations of the study are argued. The definitions of key terms are provided.

1.1 Rationale

Learner differences in second or foreign language learning can be interpreted not only in terms of cognitive factors such as language aptitude, learning style, but also the affective factors, such as motivation and anxiety. Scholarly interest in the relationship of anxiety to second language learning began in the 1960s (Djigunovic, 2006). Early research produced confusing results. Some studies revealed positive correlations between anxiety and language proficiency, others revealed negative ones, and there were still others which revealed no correlations either positive or negative (Scovel, 1978: see Section 2.2). The confusing findings made researchers unable to establish a clear picture of how anxiety affects language learning and performance.

Reviewing the literature then available, Scovel (1978) concluded that it was difficult to determine the effects of anxiety on language learning because of (a) the inconsistency of instruments used to assess anxiety, and (b) the complex and intricate hierarchy of variables that may intervene in the language learning process.

Scovel (1978) suggested that language researchers should be specific about the type of anxiety they were measuring and recommended that anxiety studies take note of the different types of anxiety that had been identified. MacIntyre & Gardner (1989, l99l), suggested that three types of anxiety— trait, state, and situation-specific anxiety— could be identified in studies on the role of anxiety in second language learning. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) proposed that the anxiety that was responsible for students' negative emotional reactions to language learning was situation-specific, and they called it Foreign Language Anxiety. They developed an instrument, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), to measure this anxiety. According to Horwitz et al., the scale had high internal consistency, achieving an alpha coefficient of .93. A test-retest reliability over eight weeks achieved an $r=.83$ ($p<.001$). A construct validation study was also carried out, showing that the FLCAS was related to but distinguishable from other specific types of anxiety.

The situation-specific view of anxiety clarifies a lot of the earlier confusing findings. Horwitz (2001) reviewed related literature and suggested that studies using the FLCAS and other specific measures of second language anxiety had found consistent moderate negative correlations between the foreign language anxiety and measures of second/foreign language achievement (typically final grades).

Apart from the relationship between language anxiety and language achievement, many studies have also investigated the relationships of language

anxiety to other factors. All the studies up to now have greatly deepened our understanding of the construct of language anxiety, yet knot points and issues still exist. Firstly, findings on the relationships between language anxiety and various factors have not always been consistent. Secondly, researchers can still not agree on whether language anxiety is primarily a cause or "side effect" in the process of second language learning (MacIntyre, 1995; Horwitz, 2001; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007). Thirdly, few empirical studies have attempted to investigate the effects of anxiety reduction techniques on language anxiety and language performance.

The last of the above mentioned issues was noted by Jones (2004, p. 37) who commented that:

> There do not seem to be any specific remedies for language anxiety. The treatment recommended by researchers and theorists could certainly work as a prescription for anxiety but it might as easily be advice on what 'the good teacher' should routinely do. Oxford (1999: 67), for example, proposes a schedule of suggestions for diminishing language anxiety, including: 'Encourage moderate risk-taking and tolerance of ambiguity in a comfortable, non-threatening environment' and 'Give students permission to use the language with less than perfect performance'. Tsui (1996: 164) urges teachers to establish good relationships and have private consultations with individual students. A good learning atmosphere, she says, 'allows students to have time to think, to check with each other or even admit publicly that they don't know the answer, without fear…' (p.165). All such advice is excellent but applicable even to students who do not necessarily show signs of anxiety. The advice cannot be other than general.

All the remaining problems related to language anxiety justify more efforts to be devoted to the issue. In the expectation of making some contributions and developing the current state of knowledge, the author selected the present study of SA.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

Rather than investigating language anxiety as a whole, the present study focused on a primary component of language anxiety— speaking anxiety (SA), which is the anxiety related to classroom speaking performance. The objectives include:

(1) To examine the extent of SA experienced by students, and to investigate whether SA differs significantly in terms of gender;

(2) To explore the relationships of SA to other variables of interest to researchers;

(3) To develop a speaking anxiety reduction model (Wang SAR Model) based on the Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT);

(4) To find out the effects of the Wang SAR Model on SA as well as on speaking performance, and to examine whether the effects of the model differ significantly in terms of gender.

The first objective was expected to reveal the seriousness of SA, and its relationship to gender. Findings on the relationship between language anxiety and gender are still confusing.

The second objective attempted to get a better understanding of the relationships of SA to other variables. To achieve the second objective, the following criteria were followed to identify the "other variables": (a) The variables had been studied with college students so that they could be relevant to the present research population; (b) The variables had been found to be related to language anxiety, since variables unrelated to language anxiety are unlikely to be related to SA, a component of language anxiety; (c) The variables had values theoretically in normal distribution so that they could be submitted to various advanced statistical analysis; and (d) The variables could be investigated by the author with a questionnaire or with the

documents available from the relevant language teachers or the administrative offices, so that they were cost-effective and feasible for the present author who had limited time and research fund. Based on those criteria, a list of variables were selected: trait anxiety (TA), unwillingness to communicate (UTC), language achievement (LA), speaking self-efficacy (SSE), language class risk taking (LCR), and language class sociability (LCS). Though previous studies had tapped one or more of those variables, no studies had been found to have investigated all the variables simultaneously (see Ely, 1886; Horwitz, 1991; Liu and Jackson, 2008). By covering all those variables in one study and focusing on their relationships to SA (rather than language anxiety in general), the present author expected that new relationships could be revealed, and the relative strengths of the relationships could be exposed.

The third objective was selected because no ready models specifically effective for treating language anxiety were available. REBT was a typical technique of Cognitive Restructuring (CR), which had been recommended as applicable to the problem of language anxiety (see Section 2.7.2). As a type of psychotherapy, REBT can not be directly applied to language anxiety and thus the author decided to develop a speaking anxiety reduction model (the Wang SAR Model) from the REBT (see Section 5.1.2).

The last of the objectives mentioned above was expected to test the effectiveness of the Wang SAR Model. Speaking performance was involved, because the author also wanted to further examine which aspect(s) of speaking performance could be influenced by the model. With gender involved, the effects of the model could be better understood.

The purpose of the 4 objectives together was not only to achieve a better understanding of SA, but also to develop and test a specific remedy for SA.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Educational research serves the purposes of finding solutions to education problems and gaining insight into issues people do not understand. The goal is to discover principles or interpretations of behavior not only for explaining and predicting, but also for controlling of events (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006). The present study was justifiable according to the goal of general education research.

Scovel (1991, p. 23) suggested that anxiety is related to "the intricate hierarchy of learner variables that intervene". Based on Scovel's suggestion, it could be hypothesized that there are complicated relationships (still beyond the knowledge of researchers) between SA and the other variables involved in the present research objectives. Investigating SA and the related variables, the present study could be expected to shed new light on the relationships, and help people to better explain the construct of SA and its relationships to other variables. Based on the better explanation, educators are likely to achieve a more precise prediction and control of SA.

Developing and testing the Wang SAR Model had merits for controlling SA. MacIntyre (1999, p. 33) claimed that speaking seemed to be "the single most important source of language anxiety". Anxiety is believed to occupy the limited cognitive resources and thus reduce the effectiveness of language behaviors (see Section 2.6.2). Phillips (1992) revealed that foreign language anxiety was negatively and moderately correlated with oral exam grades even when ability was controlled. Studies with induced anxiety indicated that the more anxious learners produced

speech of lower quality than the less anxious ones (Djigunović, 2006). All the views and findings suggest the urgent need of techniques for the controlling of SA. The outcome of the present study had the possibility to satisfy the need to a certain degree.

The merits for explanation and control of SA can also be considered as the theoretical and practical value of the present study, of which the practical value appears particularly significant.

1.4 Scope and Limitations

The study focused on the population of the first year undergraduate students majoring in subjects other than English in Guizhou College of Finance and Economics, Guizhou, mainland China. The selection of the particular population was determined by the convenience to the researcher as well as by the nature of the college. The researcher was an English teacher in the college and could more easily get support and help needed for the study. The majority of the students here majored in subjects other than English. The college was a second level higher education institute in southwest China. The students had a relatively poor grasp of the English language on an average, as could be shown by the unsatisfactory passing rates in the College English Test in recent years (rarely over 50% for test takers). Those factors constituted part of the background of the research. The specific background on which the investigation was carried out could limit the generalization of the findings to other backgrounds. To achieve a higher internal validity, strict control of the experimental condition was employed which could reduce the external validity. Due to the financial and time limit, the number of the participants might not be large enough to best represent the research population. Further research on different backgrounds,

involving different factors, and drawing larger sizes of samples is worthwhile.

1.5 Definitions of Key Terms

The terms listed below were essential to the research. The definitions of the terms served the purpose of delimitating the concepts so that they could be unambiguously operated in the collection and analysis of the data in the study. Some of the definitions could be inconsistent with those for the same term mentioned in the literature.

(1) Speaking Anxiety (SA): the proneness of becoming anxious in English speaking performance in the classroom, as measured by the Speaking Anxiety Scale (see Appendix A).

(2) Trait Anxiety (TA): the principal component of the trait anxiety (Spielberger, 1983) related to mood, as measured by the Trait Anxiety Scale (see Appendix B: Part 1 (I)).

(3) Unwillingness to Communicate (UTC): the degree of reluctance to exchange ideas with others, as measured by the Unwillingness to Communicate Scale (Appendix B: Part 1 (II)).

(4) Language Class Risk-Taking (LCR): the tendency in language class to use the English form whose correctness is beyond the confidence of the user, as measured by the Language Class Risk-Taking Scale (Appendix B: Part 2 (II 1-6)).

(5) Language Class Sociability (LCS): the tendency in language class to use English for socializing, as measured by the Language Class Sociability Scale (Appendix B: Part 2 (II 7-11)).

(6) Speaking Self-Efficacy (SSE): the self-ratings of English speaking levels, as measured by the Speaking Self-Efficacy Scale (Appendix B: Part 3).

(7) Language Achievement (LA): achievement in English as indicated by the reported Language Achievement on College Entrance Test (LAE) and the Language Achievement on Final-Term Test (LAF).

(8) Wang SAR Model: a model (lecture specified by a given script) developed from the Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) for the purpose of reducing English speaking anxiety, as is presented in Chapter 5.

(9) Speaking State Anxiety (SAstate): the momentary fear of concrete problems in oral English use, as measured by the Speaking State Anxiety Scale (see Appendix C).

(10) Speaking Performance: the impromptu speaking behavior in English, as is tested by the picture-describing tasks in laboratory conditions specified by the author, and assessed by the Speaking Performance Assessment Criteria (See Appendix D).

1.6 Summary

Language anxiety is a situation specific phenomenon. It is negatively related to language achievement. SA is a primary component of language anxiety. Learners experiencing higher SA have been found to produce speech of a lower quality. To better understand and control the issue, the present study examined the SA experienced by students, and explored its relationships to other variables. A model for treating SA was to be developed, and its effects on SA and speaking performance were to be tested. The study was expected to contribute to the explanation, prediction and controlling of SA. Focusing on the population in one college in China, and with a relatively small number of participants, the research had its limitations.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter is a review of related literature. It begins with a discussion of the concepts of general anxiety and language anxiety, and continues with an introduction of the techniques for identifying language anxiety. Subsequently, literature on the relationships of language anxiety to learner variables and language learning/using are covered. Finally the theories concerning language anxiety are presented; basic learning theories relevant to and specific remedies for language anxiety are introduced.

2.1 Concept of Anxiety

Anxiety is generally defined by psychologists as a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly connected with an object (Hilgard, Atkinson & Atkinson, as cited in Scovel, 1991). As an emotional state, anxiety is related to the arousal of the limbic system (Lamendella, as cited in Scovel, 1991). There are also definitions which relate anxiety to the autonomous system (Spielberger, as cited in Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1991), for the limbic system is closely related to the autonomous system. Typical components of anxiety include: (a) the emotional experience, (b) the related object/objective, and (c) the physical arousal. Spielberger (as cited in Young, 1991a) further distinguished between trait anxiety and state anxiety. The former was regarded as a comparatively stable personal difference in anxiety-proneness. The latter was a transitory subjective feeling of worry, apprehension,

nervousness, and tension, accompanied by activation of the individual's nervous system. Alpert and Haber (1960) brought about the concepts of facilitating and debilitating anxieties, based on the effects of anxiety on test achievement. According to Alpert and Haber, these constructs were independent of each other. Thus a person could have both anxieties, one of them, or neither of them. Scovel (1978) suggested that facilitating anxiety stimulated learners to approach the learning task, while debilitating anxiety spurred learners to avoid it. Chastain (1975, p. 160) suggested that "perhaps some concern about a test is a plus while too much anxiety can produce negative results".

2.2 Concept of Language Anxiety

Though helpful, the concept of general anxiety is not adequate for the research on second language acquisition, for it can not help to clarify the confusing results of early studies. Some of those studies revealed incomplete correlations between anxiety and language achievements. For example, Swain and Burnaby (1976) studied English speaking French students, finding a negative correlation between one measure of French proficiency and anxiety and no correlation between other measures of French proficiency and anxiety. Tucker, Hamayan, & Genesee (1976) also found that anxiety correlated again with one measure of French proficiency, but not with any of the three other measures of language proficiency. Other studies found complete correlations, but these correlations contradicted the results got from other students or languages. The study by Chastain (1975) showed that the test scores of French audio-lingual method students negatively correlated with anxiety, while the test scores of German and Spanish students using the traditional method positively correlated with anxiety.

The confusing findings partly resulted from the inconsistency of instruments used (Scovel, 1978), which was further related to the inconsistency of the concept of anxiety cherished by the researchers. Thus a clear and widely accepted conceptualization of the anxiety involved in language learning is indispensable for a clarification of the embarrassing situation. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) defined language anxiety as the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically connected to second language contexts， including speaking, listening and learning. A more detailed description of language anxiety was provided by Horwitz et al. (1986). They regarded communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation as the conceptual building blocks for the description of foreign language anxiety. Communication apprehension is considered as fear or anxiety related to communicating with people. They suggested that the inability to express one's thoughts and ideas in the foreign language or the inability to comprehend another person were potential sources of anxiety for language learners. Test anxiety is a type of performance anxiety due to a fear of failure (Gordon & Sarason; Sarason, as cited in Horwitz et al., 1991). Test-anxious students often set excessively high standards for themselves and get anxious when they fail to show perfect test performance. Students who are test-anxious in foreign language class suffer a lot owing to the frequent assessments inherent in the learning. Fear of negative evaluation is defined as the apprehension about evaluation from others, the avoidance of being involved in evaluative situations, and the expectation that one is negatively evaluated by others (Watson & Friend, as cited in Horwitz et al., 1991). Fear of negative evaluation is not limited to test-taking situations, which separates it from the concept of test anxiety.

Although communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation are useful for describing foreign language anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) suggested that foreign language anxiety was not merely the sum of these fears. They considered foreign language anxiety as a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors connected with, and arising from classroom language learning situations. Foreign language anxiety is a form of situation-specific anxiety: it is stable over time but limited to the particular situations of language learning. Except the foreign language anxiety defined by Horwitz et al. (1986), the anxiety related to specific language skills, such as writing, reading, listening, and speaking are all situation specific anxieties. The situation-specific anxiety is different from the state anxiety, because it is the tendency to become anxious, rather than the real-time anxious feeling. It is different from the trait anxiety, for it is limited to a specific type of situation, rather than across various types of situations. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) suggested that situation-specific anxiety can be seen as trait anxiety in a given context.

The conceptualization of language anxiety clarified a lot of the early confusions. Relatively consistent findings on the effects of language anxiety have been obtained by researchers viewing and measuring language anxiety as a situation-specific phenomenon (see Section 2.5.1).

2.3 Identification of Language Anxiety

Students with different levels of anxiety in the foreign language classroom settings have different characteristics and can thus be identified. Basic approaches to identifying language anxiety include self-report and observation (Scovel, as cited in Madsen, Brown, & Jones, 1991).

2.3.1 Self-Report

Self-report is the technique which is most widely used in the research of language anxiety, because of its practicality and availability (Madsen et al., 1991). Self-report methods generally take the forms of Likert scales. The respondent must select from the choices on the scale to express his\her anxiety (Maclntyre & Gardner, 1994a). One of the popularly used self-report Likert scales is the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al. (1986). The FLCAS has 33 items, each expressed by a 5-point sub-scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The items presented are reflective of communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. For Horwitz et al., the scale possessed a high validity and reliability. The FLCAS measures a learner's general language anxiety instead of tapping only temporary states of anxiety. Another less commonly employed self-report technique is marking on figures representing the continuity of the levels of anxiety (see MacIntyre & Gardner, l99lb).

2.3.2 Observation

Anxiety, similar to other types of emotions, can be observed on certain occasions, because emotions can sometimes be revealed by facial expressions, voices, gestures, or behaviors etc. Nevertheless, observation is not sensitive enough to be commonly employed as a measure of language anxiety (Snyder & Ray, 1971).

2.4 Relationships of Language Anxiety to Learner Variables

Learner variables can include any differences between individual learners or groups of learners. In this section, only non-linguistic variables are covered, including culture, belief, personality, state anxiety, and gender. Language achievement and performance are to be discussed in a separate section.

2.4.1 Language Anxiety and Culture

In the study of various cultural groups, Horwitz (2001) noted relatively different means of scores on the FLCAS. Americans displayed similar levels of foreign language classroom anxiety, Korean EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners showed higher levels, and Turkish learners of English lower levels. Horwitz claimed that general foreign language anxiety might differ between various cultural groups. The study by Woodrow (2006) indicated that English language learners from Confucian Heritage Cultures (China, Korea and Japan) were more anxious language learners than European and Vietnamese participants.

2.4.2 Language Anxiety and Beliefs

Beliefs can be related to oneself or to language learning. The beliefs related to oneself are also labeled self-constructs. Mercer (2008) suggested that in research and theorizing on foreign language learning, self-constructs include aspects such as self-confidence, self-concept, self-efficacy, and self-esteem.

A significant amount of research supported that self-constructs are related to anxiety. Kitano (2001) found that students' anxiety levels were positively correlated with their decreased perceptions of their own abilities (measured by the self rating of the current level of speaking ability, and the self rating of the perception by the native speaker) in the language they were learning. Gardner，Tremblay & Masgoret (1997) found that confident learners reported a lower level of anxiety and a higher Can Do rating of proficiency, while less confident learners reported a higher level of anxiety and a lower Can Do rating of proficiency, as was supported by MacIntyre, Noels & Clément (1997) who found that anxious students tended to underestimate their competence. Moreover, Low Self-Confidence has been discovered to be one of the two components of the scale FLCAS (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). The various

discoveries seemed to corroborate the conclusion: anxiety and self-constructs are closely related.

Apart from the beliefs about oneself, beliefs about language learning are also related to anxiety. One of the six sources of language anxiety claimed by Young (1991b) is learner beliefs about language learning. An impairing belief is perfectionism. In an interview study (Price, 1991, p. 106), students were found to report that their tendency to be "overtly perfectionistic" might have contributed to their anxiety in language classes. Perfectionism is responsible for the test anxiety of some students who habitually put impractical demands on themselves and feel that anything less than a perfect test performance is a failure (Horwitz et al., 1986). Horwitz et al. (1991) noted that anxious students feared they would not be able to understand all language input, as was also related to perfectionism.

Besides perfectionism, other inappropriate types of beliefs are also connected with language anxiety. Ohata (2005, p. 7) provided an example that “if beginning learners believe that pronunciation is the single most important aspect of L2 learning, they would naturally get frustrated to find the reality of their imperfect speech even after a lot of practice.” Horwitz et al. (1991) found that many students insisted that the second language should not be spoken until one could speak it correctly and that it was unacceptable to guess about unknown words. They proposed that such types of beliefs can result in anxiety since students have to use the second language in communication before they can speak it fluently and that guessing about unknown words are unavoidable even for excellent learners.

The relationship between anxiety and beliefs implies the possibility of restructuring one’s beliefs as a remedy for the problem of language anxiety.

2.4.3 Language Anxiety and Personality

Personality is the integrated pattern of thoughts, emotions and behaviors. This pattern includes the stable and consistent psychological features which distinguish one individual from another (Peng, 2001). Various personality theories have been advanced by different psychologists. In this section only trait anxiety and unwillingness to communicate are discussed, because they are typical features of personality which have been found to be related to language anxiety.

1. Language Anxiety and Trait Anxiety

The term trait anxiety was put forward by Spielberger (see Section 2.1). It refers to the tendency to experience anxiety across various situations. Horwitz (1991) found that language anxiety measured by the FLCAS was positively and significantly correlated with trait anxiety measured by the Trait scale of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, 1983).

2. Language Anxiety and Unwillingness to Communicate

According to Burgoon (1976), individuals with communication reticence display the temperament of unwillingness to communicate. Liu and Jackson (2008) identified language anxiety with a scale adapted from the FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1991) and simultaneously identified the unwillingness to communicate with the Unwillingness to Communicate Scale (Burgoon, 1976), discovering a moderate correlation between the two constructs.

Both of the above mentioned studies, however, were correlational in nature, and could not guarantee causal inferences, which are in need of further study.

2.4.4 Language Anxiety and State Anxiety

Language anxiety is the general tendency to experience anxiety in situations

where second language is used or learnt, while state anxiety is the momentary arousal of anxiety. The two are closely related. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994a, p 15) claimed that "students who report experiencing language anxiety in the past are prone to experiencing state anxiety when exposed to a second language context".

2.4.5 Language Anxiety and Gender

Gender-related research on language anxiety has yielded conflicting results. One inconsistency is whether gender is related to anxiety, and another is whether males or females are more liable to it.

The findings of the study by Aida (1994) and that by Chang (1996) revealed no differences in classroom anxiety between males and females. Matsuda & Gobel (2004) investigated first-semester English classes (required) at a Japanese university. Gender was not found to have a significant effect on overall general/reading anxieties or on the subcomponents of either anxiety such as Low Self-Confidence in Speaking English, Reading Confidence/Enjoyment, etc.

Quite a few studies found direct relationships between anxiety and gender. But the findings were still inconsistent. On the one hand, some of those studies indicated that males seemed to be more prone to anxiety. Kitano (2001) investigated the anxiety of college learners of Japanese and reported a correlation between anxiety and self-perception (measured by Can Do Ratings) in male students. Male students felt higher anxiety when they perceived their spoken Japanese less competent than that of others; however, such a relationship was not observed among female students. The proneness to anxiety on the part of male learners is explained by the learning context where men may feel less comfortable due to the perception of language learning as a female domain. Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (2001, p. 12) suggested that a "female oriented foreign

language culture" might exist. On the other hand, some studies discovered that females were more liable to anxiety. Mejías, Applebaum, Applebaum, & Trotter (1991) found higher anxiety among Hispanic females than males. Machida (2001) examined JFL (Japanese as a Foreign Language) learners' class anxiety, finding female learners being more anxious than their male counterparts. This was partly supported by Elkhafaifi (2005) who investigated postsecondary learners of Arabic as a foreign language, discovering females being more anxious than males. But at the same time, the author discovered no significant difference in listening anxiety in terms of gender. Investigating the issue from a dynamic view, MacIntyre, Baker, Clément and Donovan (2002) found that boys' anxiety levels remained constant across the three grade levels from the 7th to the 9th grade, while girls showed a decrease in the levels of anxiety from grade 8 to grade 9.

The inconsistency could be caused by sampling errors or other unknown variables, which require further exploration.

2.5 Relationships of Language Anxiety to Achievement and Speaking

A key concern of most language practitioners' is the relationship between language anxiety and language leaning. Learning development can be reflected by the overall language achievement and the quality of performance in a specific language skill. The former provides an integrated indicator of one's language competence, while the latter provides only an indicator of one's competence in a specific language skill. In the following sections the relationships of language anxiety to overall achievement and speaking performance are to be discussed respectively.

2.5.1 Language Anxiety and Overall Achievement

Various criteria have been used as indicators of achievement. In studies of the

relationship between language learning and language anxiety, indicators of language achievement can be course grades, proficiency test scores, or self-reported proficiency scores, while language anxiety have generally been measured by various self-report techniques. Negative relationships between language anxiety and language achievement have been reported by studies with various levels of learners.

At the elementary school level, Chan & Wu (2004) found a significant negative correlation between language anxiety and achievement measured by the final scores among EFL learners. Among postsecondary students of Arabic as a foreign language, the negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and achievement was also discovered (Elkhafaifi, 2005). At the university level, lots of studies in various places in the world have supported the negative relationships between language anxiety and language achievement. Wei (2007) examined the anxiety of second year Chinese undergraduate learners of English in a university in Beijing. A significant negative correlation was revealed between foreign language anxiety and the participants' self-reported proficiency levels. This was supported by Liu (2006) who reported a study on anxiety among Chinese undergraduates at three different proficiency levels (band 1, band 2 and band 3), which revealed that the more proficient students tended to be less anxious. Among young adult Anglophone bilingual university students, a robust negative correlation between language anxiety and language competence was shown by MacIntyre et al. (1997).

All the above mentioned studies have taken a situation specific perspective of anxiety, and produced relatively consistent results with regard to the relationships between anxiety and language achievement. Those findings conformed to the claim by Horwitz (2001) that language anxiety is generally negatively related to language

achievement.

2.5.2 Language Anxiety and Speaking

The anxiety associated with second language speaking performance is called speaking anxiety. Speaking anxiety has been supposed to be the result of speaking, and has also been found to influence speaking.

MacIntyre (1999, p. 33) claimed speaking seems to be "the single most important source of language anxiety". Students have been found to feel most anxious when they respond to the teacher or are singled out to speak English in class (Liu, 2006). The predominance of the number of items related to speaking on instruments designed to measure general foreign language anxiety also reflects the widely held view of speaking being the most anxiety-provoking aspect of foreign language learning for many students (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999). Speaking anxiety can affect the strategies students employ in communication and the quality of the speech. In their experimental study, Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) induced anxiety with a video camera, cold manners on the part of the examiners, and stress-loaded instructions to examine the effect on oral performance, finding that the subjects experiencing anxiety inducing conditions were less interpretive (more concrete) in their descriptions of pictures of ambiguous scenes (TAT pictures) than the subjects experiencing relaxing conditions. Djigunović (2006) discovered that in picture description tasks, high anxiety (also induced with experimental conditions) language users employed fewer repetitions, produced smaller continuous speeches, had longer mid-clause pauses, and made more false starts. It was also found that students with high levels of CA (Communication Apprehension: an index of the tendency of experiencing speaking anxiety) tended to employ the strategy of repetition in picture

describing tasks, which implicated the need of more time for thinking, while those with low CA employed more strategy of approximation, which reflected their courage in risking saying things close to their intentions (Tiono & Sylvia, 2004). Liu and Jackson (2008) reported a study in which language anxiety was found negatively correlated with Language Class Sociability (LCS) and Language Class Risk-Taking (LCR), which suggested that students with a higher level of anxiety had a lower tendency to use the language for sociability or to employ forms which were beyond their confidence of correct use. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) found that anxious students produced shorter self-descriptions and that their descriptions were judged as lower in fluency, lower in sentence complexity, and less of the second language accent. It has been suggested that OPI (Oral Proficiency Interview) can result in anxiety on the side of the interviewee (Young, 1986). Though in Young's study, the increase in anxiety during OPI was not found leading to a decrease in performance when ability was controlled, Young still suggested that when it was used for actual grading or placement, the OPI could increase anxiety significantly and thus affect performance. Young's suggestion was supported by the study of Phillips (1992), who examined the relationships between FLCAS and 8 features of oral test performance, including: (1) total words in Communication Units (CUs: independent clauses with all its modifiers), (2) average length of CUs, (3) percent of error-free CUs, (4) percent of words in error-free CUs, (5) percent of total words in mazes (language not belonging to a CU), (6) average length of mazes, (7) number of target structures, and (8) number of dependent clauses (see Appendix D for the discussion of CUs, mazes, and dependent clauses), of which "(1)" , "(7)" and "(8)" were found significantly correlated with FLCAS when ability was controlled. The same relationships were

also investigated by Wilson (2006), and the result revealed that the "(1)" and the "(5)" were significantly correlated with FLCAS when ability was controlled. The studies by Phillips (1992) and Wilson (2006) were very persuasive about the influence of anxiety on speaking performance, due to (a) the control of ability, and (b) the more precise measurement.

Based on the literature, it seems that language anxiety can influence certain aspects of speaking performance. The correlational findings by Wilson and Phillips seem to suggest that the total words in CUs, the percent of total words in mazes, and the number of dependent clauses are likely to be affected by language anxiety. It is urgent to reduce the learners' speaking anxiety and improve their oral performance.

2.6 Theories Concerning Language Anxiety

Early research produced mixed findings about the relationship of anxiety and language learning, partly due to the inconsistence of instruments for measuring anxiety. With the situation-specific conceptualization of language anxiety, and the development of corresponding instruments, relatively consistent findings have been achieved. In other words, negative correlations have been yielded between anxiety and language achievement. Correlations, however, can not guarantee causal relationships. Is language anxiety primarily a result of poor language learning? Or is it primarily a cause of poor learning? In spite of the findings from various studies, agreement has not been reached on the issue.

2.6.1 "Side-Effect" Interpretation of Language Anxiety

In a response paper to Sparks and Ganschow, MacIntyre (1995, p. 90) pointed

out that:

> The linguistic coding deficit hypothesis, introduced by Sparks and Ganschow (1991, 1993a, 1993b), postulates that language aptitude is the primary source of individual differences in language achievement. This may be seen to reduce affective variables, such as language anxiety, to the role of unfortunate side effects, devoid of explanatory power.

Horwitz (2001, p. 112) also commented that "… some researchers (Sparks and Ganschow and their colleagues) have suggested that poor language learning is a cause rather than a result of language anxiety."

The Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (LCDH) is based on the theory that human language system entails codes (phonological, semantic and syntactic), and that difficulty in second language learning stems from one or more deficiency in these codes in the student's native language system (Schwarz, 1997). Sparks and Ganschow's view closely links the first and the second language coding abilities (Zheng, 2008). It seems to be supported by their 10-year longitudinal research with 54 participants (Sparks & Ganschow, 2007). In the longitudinal research, the participants were tested with native language measures in first through fifth grades, and were also tested on their language aptitude, foreign language proficiency as well as foreign language classroom anxiety in high schools. The results indicated that foreign language classroom anxiety and foreign language proficiency were negatively and significantly correlated ($r=-.49$). Foreign language proficiency was positively and significantly correlated with language aptitude ($r=.68$). Language aptitude was positively and significantly correlated with native language measures, including Woodcock Reading Mastery Test, Test of Written Spelling, Formal Reading Inventory, Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, and Test of Cognitive Skills ($.41 \leq r$

≤ .81).

Sparks and Ganschow's findings were compatible with their previous claims about the "side-effect" role of language anxiety. They further inferred that FLCAS was probably measuring self-perceived language skills, and that the self-perceived language skills were likely to be confounding variables in research whose author suggested the primary role of language anxiety in language achievement and proficiency.

Sparks and Ganschow discounted the role of affective variables such as anxiety in language acquisition. Their view is not without problems. Firstly, their 10-year study was only a longitudinal survey, rather than an experiment, and it is vulnerable to draw a solid and clear causal conclusion from a survey. Secondly, the sample size of their study was too small (54 participants) to be persuasive. Thirdly, their theory can not account for the findings of some investigations where performance was impaired by anxiety arousal even when ability was controlled.

2.6.2 Active-Role Interpretations of Language Anxiety

More researchers advocate the active roles of language anxiety. In other words, those researchers stress the causal roles of language anxiety in learning behavior or performance.

1. Krashen's Theory

Krashen (1982) advanced the Affective Filter Hypothesis. According the Affective Filter Hypothesis, learners with high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, and a low level of anxiety are more likely to succeed in second language acquisition. Low motivation, low self-esteem, and high anxiety can increase the affective filter and stop acquisition from comprehensible input.

2. Baily's Theory

Bailey (1983) suggested that competitive second language learners make overt comparisons of their achievements or self-perceived achievements with the achievements of others or with their own expectations. Once the comparisons result in unsuccessful self images, facilitating or debilitating anxiety may be yielded. In the case of facilitating anxiety, the learners may increase their efforts at leaning, while in the case of debilitating anxiety, learning may be impaired or even abandoned.

3. Tobias's Theory

According to Tobias (as cited in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a), an anxious person tends to engage in self-directed cognition rather than to concentrate on the task itself. These task-irrelevant thoughts compete for the limited cognitive resources with task-relevant ones. Without such self-engagement, non-anxious individuals get an advantage when the task at hand is difficult. Tobias further suggested that interference may occur at input，processing, and output levels. During input, anxiety may cause poor initial processing of information. During the processing stage of information, anxiety may produce little effect if the task is easy to the person, and may produce greater negative influence if the task becomes more difficult to the person. At the output stage, anxiety may interfere with the retrieval of information from one's memory. Tobias's theory is not specifically concerned with language anxiety, but was cited by MacIntyre and Gardner as supporting the role of language anxiety.

4. Eysenck's Theory

Eysenck (as cited from MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994) offered a reconceptualization of anxiety in terms of cognitive interference. He suggested that anxious people have their attention divided between task-related cognition and self-related cognition. The reduced

cognitive resources make performance less efficient. Eysenck further assumed that anxious people may attempt to compensate for their inefficiency by extra effort. Facilitating effect of anxiety may result if the amount of extra effort is more than needed for compensation. Still, this theory is not specific to language anxiety but was cited as appropriate for explaining the role of language anxiety.

All the above mentioned theories suggest the active role of language anxiety, either facilitative or debilitative. They are more complementary than contradictory. Krashen's view is applicable to language acquisition from comprehensible input, while Bailey's view suits with competitive language learners. Tobias's and Eysenck's views seem to be more concerned with the cognitive interference consequences of anxiety. McIntyre and Gardner (1994, p. 285) concluded that "even when anxiety appears to facilitate or at least not to impair performance, one must consider the degree of effort invested in that performance. For example, it has been reported that anxious language students study more than relaxed students but their achievement does not reflect that effort (Horwitz et al.，1986; Price, 1991)." Since debilitative anxiety may impair cognitive function, anxious students may learn less and also may not be able to demonstrate what they have learned. Consequently they are likely to experience even more failures, which in turn increase their anxiety. Moreover, debilitating anxiety may hamper second language development by causing avoidance behaviors. Anxious students may express their feelings through behaviors such as skipping language classes, failing to prepare for classes (Bailey, 1983). MacIntyre and Charos (1996) reported that foreign language learners suffering from communication apprehension usually have a lower willingness to communicate in the target language. Liu and Jackson (2008) also found that the scores testing unwillingness to

communicate and foreign language anxiety correlated significantly with each other. Anxiety may produce its influence on learning through the intermediate factor of self-confidence, which can further lead to different achievements (Crookall & Oxford, 1991; Clément, 1980).

The dispute on the role of anxiety in language learning does not seem likely to be settled soon. A key factor contributing to the disagreement is that most of the related studies are non-experimental. It is hardly persuasive to draw causal conclusions from non-experimental studies. Probably a more beneficial perspective to the issue is to cease arguing about the "primary" role, and to accept findings on either side. Language anxiety can play roles of cause and effect by turns. It seems desirable to reduce the learners' language anxiety.

2.7 Learning Theories Relevant to and Possible Remedies for Language Anxiety

To manage language anxiety, it is necessary to turn to basic learning theories relevant to and specific remedies for the issue. The former provide general strategies or have pedagogical implications for dealing with language anxiety, while the latter provide specific techniques for controlling language anxiety.

2.7.1 Learning Theories Relevant to Language Anxiety

1. Connectionism

Connectionism interprets learning in terms of the interrelationships between stimulus, response and feedback. The early development of the connectionism (also called behaviorism) can be attributed to Pavlov (as cited in Chen & Liu, 1997), who investigated classical conditioning, and Skinner(as cited in Chen & Liu, 1997) who

conducted research on operant conditioning. Classical conditioning is a kind of associative learning, which occurs when a neutral stimulus (conditioned stimulus) and a significant stimulus (unconditioned stimulus) are repeatedly paired. The result of this type of learning is that the organism/individual can gradually produce a behavioral response to the conditioned stimulus, which is called conditioned response. Operant conditioning develops via the feedback of reward or punishment following the behavior. In this type of learning, the frequency of a behavior may increase as a result of reward, and decrease as a result of punishment. Connectionism can explain some anxiety in both the first and the second language. In the first language, communication apprehension (CA) has been supposed to be a consequence of punishment relevant to the act of communication in the early years. When a child's attempts to speak the mother tongue are greeted with punishment from significant others, he/she will soon learn that the desirable behavior could be none other than keeping quiet. Consistent punishment may eventually create an apprehensive individual (Daly, 1991). In the second language, anxiety could be a result of the transference of the CA from the mother tongue, or a result of the unpleasant experience following or accompanying the behavior of learning or using the target language, among other sources/causes of anxiety. The language teacher him-/herself may be responsible for the development of the language anxiety experienced by some students due to the feedback given to the learners' language performance. It has been reported that frequent immediate correction of mistakes or errors (teacher feedback) is likely to increase the tension and apprehension of a second language learner. Negative evaluative responses from peer learners are also liable to cause anxiety for an individual (Hou, 2004).

To manage language anxiety, language teachers should give learners positive reinforcement for their attempts to use the new language. Negative feedbacks of the teacher corresponding to the imperfect speaking performances of the learners, such as scolds, blames, corrections of mistakes in the class, should not be frequently given immediately following the performances. The teacher should also encourage peer learners to support and cheer each other even when the performances are unsatisfactory.

2. Constructivism

Constructivism is a psychological theory which suggests that knowledge and meanings are generated by previous experience. The development of constructivism can be attributed to Piaget (as cited in Chen & Liu, 1997), who suggested that an individual internalizes knowledge via accommodation and assimilation. When the new experience is perceived as being consistent with the internal representations of the world, a person incorporates it into an existing framework (assimilation). When the new experience is perceived as being inconsistent with the internal representations, a person's internal representations of the external world are likely to be modified to fit the new experience (accommodation).

Constructivism regards learners as unique individuals with unique backgrounds, which help them to construct unique understandings of the same truth. According to constructivism, social interactions should be stressed, during which an individual can develop his/her thinking; the active roles of the learners, and the facilitating roles of instructors are emphasized, which are believed to foster learning; learning is considered to be more likely to occur if the new information is in proximity to, yet slightly above, the current level of development of the learner

(Vygotsky, as cited in Chen & Liu, 1997). Constructivism encourages cooperative/collaborative learning. In the process of cooperation between peers, learners are supposed to be able to construct shared understanding of the same sets of truth.

In second language acquisition, cooperative learning has been suggested being capable of reducing language anxiety, increasing learner confidence, and stimulating motivation (Xing, 2007). Language teachers can foster cooperative learning by assigning group work or pair work in and outside the language classroom.

3. Transformative Learning

Transformative learning is an adult learning theory first advanced by Mezirow (1975) who based his theory of transformative learning or learning for perspective transformation on the findings of a large study he conducted with mature women returning to college for further education. Transformative learning occurs when criticizing existing assumptions and meaning schemes brings about a significant reframing of an individual's meaning perspective (Mezirow, 1991). Meaning perspective has been defined by Mezirow as an individual's frame of reference through which meaning is constructed and all learning takes place. The frame of reference has two sub-components: habits of mind and points of view (Mezirow, 2000). It is through the process of transformational learning that people transform their taken-for-granted frames of reference so that they may generate beliefs and opinions that will prove more truthful or justified to guide actions.

Transformative learning theory explains how the belief system changes. Since dysfunctional beliefs (for example, perfectionism) are potential causes of language anxiety, language teachers should take advantage of the strategies of transformative

learning, such as discussing, exposing and criticizing the learners dysfunctional beliefs, so as to bring about a transformation of those beliefs and consequently a reduction of their language anxiety.

4. ACPO Model

The ACPO Model stands for another set of learning principles, advanced by Brahmawong (2006). “A” stands for advance organizers, “C” stands for “concurrent organizers”, and “P” stands for “post organizers”. According to Brahmawong:

> An advance organizer provides the learning plan to the students at the beginning of a lesson to let them know the topics, concepts or main ideas, objectives, learning activities, instruction media, learning resources, and evaluation process.
> A concurrent organizer is a tool to help the students acquire the knowledge, read the require subject matter or know-how, get hand-on experiences, perform the assigned tasks, and check the results of their work.
> A post organizer provides generalization or conclusion of what the students learn and how they should apply what they learn in different situations.

The ACPO Model conforms to constructivism. Organizers can help learners to waken or arouse their previous experience or background knowledge. By providing an expectation at the beginning of learning, an assisting tool while learning, and a direction on the generalization or conclusion following learning, organizers can make the language acquisition more structured, and less uncertain/ambiguous, which ultimately contributes to the reduction of language anxiety (Daly, 1991).

2.7.2 Possible Remedies for Language Anxiety

Many suggestions for treating language anxiety are also pieces of advice for a good language teacher. They are too general. For the purpose of discovering specific

remedies for language anxiety, the author searched all the available literature and finally discovered a few techniques: systematic desensitization (SD), relaxation exercises (RE), modeling, and cognitive restructuring (CR). A deeper study of those techniques suggests that they all belong to the psychological technique called cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT).

CBT is an umbrella term for therapies that are based on behaviorism and cognitive psychology. As a kind of psychotherapy, CBT is in contrast with pharmaceutical therapy. CBT was first developed for depression and anxiety disorders, and later was modified for many other conditions (Wright, 2006). According to Meichenbaum, the primary task of CBT is to help the clients to define the problems with cognition and behavior, to foster the behavioral, cognitive and emotional modification of the clients, and to prevent the relapse (Tang & Li, 2008). CBT is based on the interrelationships between events, cognitions/beliefs, emotions and behaviors, as can be displayed with a simplified model by Wright, Basco & Thase (See Figure 2.1, as cited in Wright, 2006).

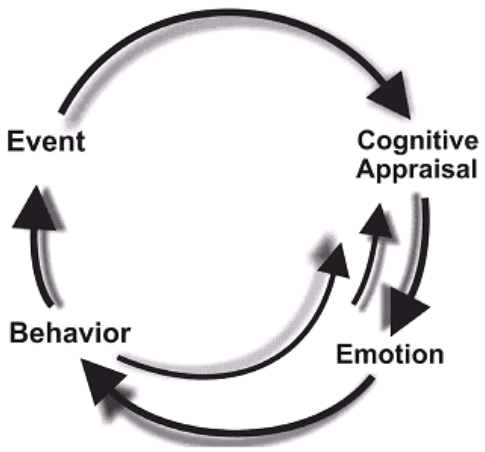


Figure 2.1 Basic Cognitive Behavior Model (Wright, 2006, p. 174)

Therapists can select the behavioral and/or cognitive intervention to interrupt the cycle and encourage more appropriate responses. To identify the maladaptive cognition and behavior, and to help the patients to gain skills in coping with the problems, CBT generally involves the collaboration between the therapist and the patient. Psycho-education is one of the key features of CBT, and clients are typically asked to read self-help books, pamphlets and handouts at the beginning phase of the treatment (Wright, 2006). The following CBT techniques can be found in literature related to language anxiety.

1. Systematic Desensitization (SD)

SD is a training procedure for phobia or other anxiety, in which the subjects learn to gradually associate relaxation cues with images of anxiety provoking situations or events (Daly, 1991). The ultimate purpose is to help the subjects to become desensitized to the anxiety provoking situations or events.

2. Cognitive Restructuring (CR)

"The therapy challenges 'irrational beliefs' held by an apprehensive individual about communication and attempts to replace them with self-statements that permit the individual to better cope with communication" (Daly, 1991, p. 9). Daly demonstrated the significance of CR with an example: Highly apprehensive speakers stubbornly stick to the belief that their speeches have been poorly received even though there are empirical evidences that their speeches have been well received. One of the typical methods of CR is Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT) (Tian, 2001; Dryden, 2001; see Chapter 5). REBT is based on the assumption that irrational beliefs are the sources of anxiety of the learners when anticipating communication in the second language and recognition of the irrational beliefs can lead to a new interpretation of the language communication situations and can further lead to a

change of emotion and behavior related to second language communication (Foss & Reitzel, 1991).

3. Modeling

Modeling is a technique which involves showing the deserved behavior for a person by a film, video or real person (Tang & Li, 2008). McCoy (as cited in Foss & Reitzel, 1991) suggested that modeling can be applied to the second language classroom for reducing anxiety.

4. Relaxation Exercises (RE)

RE aim at helping an individual to relax physically which can be expected to counterbalance the physical tension accompanying emotional problems. Horwitz et al. (1991) recommended RE as specific techniques that teacher can use to allay students' language anxiety.

In contrast with the "general" approaches to language anxiety (Jones, 2004, p. 37), the various techniques of CBT are more specific treatments. But "the methods presented have not been adapted to the specific characteristics of the second language classroom" (Foss & Reitzel, 1991, p. 130). Reviewing available literature, the present author discovered only one experimental study employing CBT techniques for language anxiety. It was by Jones (2002) who used CR and RE (labeled "relaxation training") for treating language anxiety among adult native Spanish-speaking ESL learners. During the experiment, Jones tried to arouse the anxiety of the subjects by telling them in advance that they would read aloud a short passage of English when they completed the questionnaires. The intervention/treatment was administered by playing relevant tapes for the subjects in one session. The posttest was given immediately following the intervention. The result revealed no significant effects of the techniques on language anxiety.

Due to the scarcity of literature, it is still early to assess the roles of CBT techniques in language anxiety. The techniques can only be considered as possible remedies in need of further adaptation, development, and empirical studies.

2.8 Summary

Different from general trait or state anxiety, language anxiety is a situation-specific phenomenon. It can be identified by observation and/or self-report. The most popularly used forms are the self-report Likert scales. Language anxiety is related to many learner variables. Relatively consistent findings have been revealed that language anxiety is negatively related to language achievement. Various theories have been advanced to explain the roles of language anxiety. Different techniques of CBT have been recommended for dealing with the issue of language anxiety, but few empirical studies are available testing the effects of those techniques. Further research in the second language classroom settings is in need to evaluate those techniques.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides the methodology for the present research. It begins with the research questions, which are followed by the corresponding research variables. After the discussion of the population, samples and the research instruments as well as the materials involved, the research designs are presented and the research procedures are described. Succeeding a discussion of the data analysis, the chapter ends with two pilot studies.

3.1 Research Questions

To achieve the objectives of the study (see Section 1.2), the following research questions were proposed:

(1) To what extent do students experience Speaking Anxiety (SA) in the English language classroom? Does the Speaking Anxiety (SA) experienced by students differ significantly in terms of gender?

(2) How is Speaking Anxiety (SA) related to Trait Anxiety (TA), Unwillingness to Communicate (UTC), Speaking Self-Efficacy (SSE), Language Class Risk-Taking (LCR), Language Class Sociability (LCS), and language achievement (LA)?

(3) Can the Speaking Anxiety Reduction Model (Wang SAR Model) developed on the basis of the Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) reduce

students' Speaking Anxiety (SA)? Does the effect differ significantly in terms of gender?

(4) Can the Speaking Anxiety Reduction Model (Wang SAR Model) reduce students' Speaking State Anxiety (SAstate)? Does the effect differ significantly in terms of gender?

(5) Can the Speaking Anxiety Reduction Model (Wang SAR Model) improve the speaking performance (assessed by the total number of words in Communication Units (CUs), the percent of the total number of words in mazes, and the total number of dependent clauses)? Does the effect differ significantly in terms of gender on any of the criteria? If yes, on which criterion/ criteria?

Research Question 4 was not a primary concern of the present study. It was used as a means of triangulation for Research Question 3, because, theoretically speaking, the answers to Research Question 3 and 4 are consistent. The variables involved in both of the questions are closely related (see Section 2.4.4).

3.2 Research Variables

A variable is a property which can take two or more values. Variables can be classified in different ways for different purposes. The following sections discuss the variables with regard to the research questions in the present study.

3.2.1 Variables Related to Research Question 1

Two variables were involved in Research Question 1: the level of SA, and gender. The level of SA was used as a variable because the author wanted to examine how seriously students were suffering from anxiety related to speaking performance in the classroom. The results were helpful for understanding other findings of the

present study. In other words, the level of SA functioned as a kind of background on which other findings were obtained. Gender was also considered as a variable so that the relationship between SA and gender could be discovered.

3.2.2 Variables Related to Research Question 2

Besides the SA, the TA, UTC, LCR, LCS, LA, and SSE were also involved in Research Question 2. Those variables had been found to be related to language anxiety by earlier studies (see Section 2.4.3, 2.5.2, 2.5.1, 2.4.2). Unfortunately, none of the relevant studies had examined all the variables simultaneously, to the knowledge of the present author. Therefore, Research Question 2 filled a gap in the study of language anxiety. The significance of examining all those variables simultaneously was that the complicated relationships among them could be revealed. The discovery of the relationships might further result in pedagogical implications for the prediction and control of SA.

3.2.3 Variables Related to Research Question 3-5

Research Question 3-5 were to be answered by the results of an experiment, the variables involved in which are to be discussed in terms of independent, dependent, and control variables.

1. Independent Variables

In an experiment, independent variables refer to the variables whose effects on other variables are to be studied. The present research involved two independent variables: the condition of experiment and gender.

The condition of experiment was the condition which a participant experienced. To test the effects of the Wang SAR Model, two levels of the condition of experiment were required: one was the treatment condition in which the Wang SAR Model was present, and the other was the control condition which was similar to the

treatment condition except that the Wang SAR Model was absent. To fully justify and explain the condition of experiment, the Wang SAR Model was discussed in a separate chapter (Chapter 5).

Gender was selected as an independent variable, so as to examine whether or not the effects of the Wang SAR Model differed significantly in terms of gender. The results could help people to achieve a better understanding of the Wang SAR Model. Gender was a factor of interest in many studies related to language anxiety (see Section 2.4.5).

2. Dependent Variables

In an experiment, dependent variables refer to the variables on which the effects of the independent variables are to be studied. The present research involved several dependent variables: SA, SAstate, the total number of words in CUs, the percent of the total number of words in mazes, and the total number of dependent clauses.

SA was selected as a dependent variable since speaking seems to be "the single most important source of language anxiety" (MacIntyre, 1999, p. 33). The effect of the Wang SAR Model on SA was worth investigation.

SAstate was selected as a dependent variable because it could provide a triangulation for the effect of the Wang SAR Model on SA. SA was a tendency to experience anxiety, while SAstate was the momentary arousal of anxiety. The tendency was believed to influence the arousal (see Section 2.4.4). If the Wang SAR Model was effective for the SA, it should be effective for the SAstate. SAstate was not used as a means of triangulation for Research Question 1 and 2 because they were to be answered with data from surveys. SAstate can not be measured in surveys. It can

only be aroused by specific tasks in specific situations, which were created by the condition of experiment related to Research Question 3-5 in the present study (see Section 3.6.2).

The total number of words in CUs, the percent of the total number of words in Mazes, and the total number of dependent clauses were all indicators of speaking performance. Examining the effects of the Wang SAR Model on those dependent variables had two merits. Firstly, it could provide a test of the causal relationship between anxiety and performance. The logic was: if the reduction of SA/SAstate resulted in an improvement of performance, it could be reasonably inferred that anxiety did influence performance. In other words, anxiety was not merely a "side effect" (see Section 2.6.1). Secondly, it could reveal which aspect of performance was influenced by anxiety.

3. Control Variables

LA was likely to be related to the dependent variables in the present study. Higher achievers were hypothesized to have lower levels of language anxiety and to produce better speaking performances (see Phillips, 1992; Wilson 2006). To avoid the possible influence of LA, indicators of LA (LAE and LAF; see Section 1.5) were selected as control variables, the effects of which were removed with ANCOVA.

4. Logical Framework of the Variables

The logic framework of the variables in the experiment is demonstrated in Figure 3.1 (Indicators of speaking performance refer to the total number of words in CUs, the percent of the total number of words in mazes, and the total number of dependent clauses**)**, which can be interpreted as: the variables on the left (independent and control variables) were hypothesized to influence the variables on the right (dependent variables).

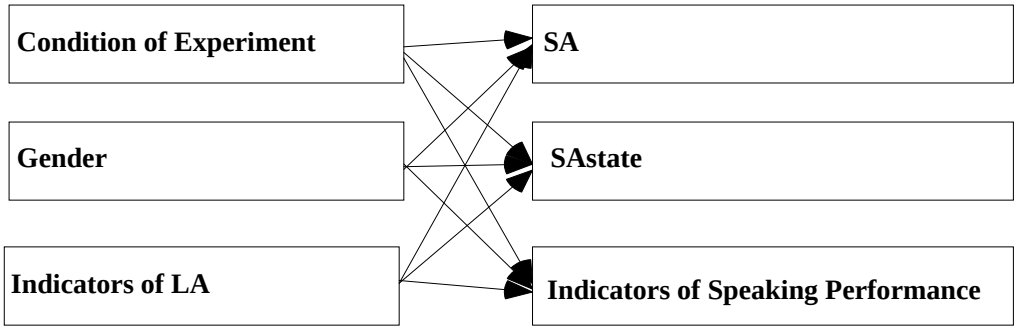


Figure 3.1 Logical Framework of the Variables in Research Question 3-5

3.3 Population and Samples

3.3.1 Characteristics of the Population

The population was the first year, non-English-major students who were studying for a bachelor's degree in Guizhou College of Finance and Economics. First-year students were selected as the target population because the Wang SAR Model was hypothesized to have lasting positive effects on language learning, and it was expected to benefit the learners for a longer time if the Wang SAR Model was applicable to and effective for the first year students.

Students in the population were studying in the School of Maths and Statistics, the School of International Economics, the School of Finance, the School of Industrial and Commercial Management, the School of Accounting, the School of Information, the School of Public Management, the School of Resources and Environment Management, the School of Management Science and Engineering Management, the School of Culture Dissemination, the School of Law, the School of Traveling Management, the School of Education Management, the School of Economics, the School of Finance and Taxation, and the School of International Finance. They were all enrolled in the course of English as a second language, which was compulsory and

credit-bearing. Four hours was regularly devoted to English every week during the first two years of college study. Students were encouraged to spend extra time in the self-regulated learning center, where they could use digital resources. The teachers here were generally Chinese. Communicative teaching approach was popularly employed. There were about 60 students in a class.

3.3.2 Sampling Methods and Sample Sizes

Generally speaking, researchers cannot or will not study the whole population. Only one or more unit(s) of the population is/are to be actually involved in the study. To rationally select the unit(s), sampling techniques need to be employed.

1. Sampling Methods

A sample is a subset of the research population. Sampling refers to the procedure of obtaining the sample. Generally speaking, two types of sampling can be identified, the probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, the researcher can specify the probability of each sampling unit's being included in the sample in a single draw from the population, while in non-probability sampling, there is no way of specifying each unit's probability of being included in the sample (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996).

Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias claimed that researchers do use non-probability samples, though they can make accurate estimates of the population's parameters only with probability samples. They suggested that non-probability sampling is employed for convenience and economy, or when the population cannot be accurately defined, or when a list of the units of the population is unavailable.

In the present research, the probability and non-probability sampling were both employed. For Research Question 1and 2, the administration of questionnaires

were required. The corresponding samples were drawn with the probability sampling technique, because (a) a list of members of the population was available, and (b) no obstacles were expected to prevent the administration of a questionnaire to a random sample from the population. Probability sampling has several major forms:

(1) Simple Random Sampling: a probability sampling procedure, in which all members of the population have an equal and independent chance of being included in the sample.

(2) Stratified Sampling: a probability sampling procedure, in which the sample is randomly drawn from a number of strata of the population.

(3) Cluster Sampling: a probability sampling procedure, in which natural clusters of the population are randomly drawn and included in the sample.

(4) Systematic Sampling: a probability sampling procedure, in which sample is drawn by taking every k^{th} case from a list of the population.

For Research Question 1 and 2, the present study employed cluster sampling, because (a) the members in the population existed not only as individuals but also as natural groups (clusters), and (b) it was more convenient for the administration of the questionnaires to clusters than to isolated individuals.

For Research Question 3-5, non-probability sampling was employed, because a 14 days experiment was to be done. It was unfeasible to randomly draw a sample, in which all the members were willing to participate in the long experiment. There are three major types of non-probability sampling techniques (Ary et al., 2006):

(1) Convenience Sampling: a non-probability sampling procedure, in which cases available are used for a study.

(2) Purposive Sampling: a non-probability sampling procedure, in which cases

judged as typical or representative of the population are chosen for a study.

(3) Quota Sampling: a non-probability sampling procedure, in which typical cases from diverse strata of a population are selected for a study.

The present study selected convenience sampling, because the participation in the study depended on the willingness of the students, rather than the selection of the author. Volunteers were recruited by an invitation letter (see Appendix E) from the population for the study. Volunteers were ever employed as participants by other similar studies. To investigate the effects of two types of relaxation trainings on students' state and trait anxiety, Rasid, and Parish (1998) used volunteers as participants. In the study of the effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language, volunteers were employed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994b). MacIntyre et al. (1997) also employed volunteers as subjects when studying the role of anxiety in self-ratings of second language proficiency.

2. Sample Sizes

The size of a sample is decided by taking into consideration of various factors such as the financial resources or the time available, the requirement on the accuracy of the study, the homogeneity or heterogeneity of the population on the variable(s) being studied, the requirement of statistical analysis, the size of the population (if it is a finite one), the type of study, the availability of the participants, and the sampling method, etc.

For the investigation related to Research Question 1, the sample size was 240 students (112 males, 128 females) from 5 natural groups randomly selected from the population. The size was well above the minimum requirement of 96.04, which was calculated from the following formula for infinite population (lecture, Khaimook. K., July, 2008):

$n = (z^2 \times s^2) / d^2$
n: sample size
z: z value
s^2: variance of scores on speaking anxiety
d: maximum error

The "z" value was set as 1.96. The "d" value for the mean score on every item of the scale involved was set as 0.20 (5% times of the range of possible scores on one item— with a minimum score being 1, and the maximum score being 5). The "s^2" was set as 1 (the square of ¼ times of the range).

For the investigation related to Research Question 2, the sample size was 103 (29 males, 74 females) from 2 natural groups. The size was also larger than the minimum requirement (96.04). It was smaller than the sample size for Research Question 1 because the questionnaire to be used for Research Question 2 was much longer, and would cost much more time to answer (see Section 3.5 for the research design and the instruments involved). To keep the sample size slightly above the minimum requirement, the author wanted to reduce the total cost of time of the learners.

For the experiment related to Research Question 3-5, the original sample size was 40 (20 males, 20 females), but only 32 (16 males, and 16 females) finished the whole experiment (The reported reasons for the attrition included visiting relatives, going shopping, and being busy with the lessons). The participants were volunteers recruited from 4 groups. The size was based on a consideration of a rule of thumb, a literature review and the purposes of the study. For experimental studies, Borg and Gall suggested 15 subjects per group as a rule of thumb (as cited in Mertens, 1998, p. 270). Rasid and Parish (1998) reported an experimental study on the effects of two types of relaxation trainings, in which 55 subjects were distributed in three

experimental conditions. Jones (2002) put a total sample of 43 participants in four experimental conditions in a study related to cognitive restructuring and relaxation training. In an experimental study on language anxiety and language processing, which involved the measurement of language-specific state anxiety, Djigunovic (2006) employed 33 participants, who were assigned to two experimental conditions. Arnold (2007) assigned a sample of 56 participants to three experimental conditions to study the effects of communication trainings on speaking anxiety. The above experiments involved variables similar to the present research. They employed 16.06 participants/subjects in one experimental condition on an average. Compared with the rule of thumb and the average size of sample in one experimental condition found in the literature review, the actual sample size of 32 for the present experiment (with 16 in each experimental condition on an average) was large enough.

The distribution of the sample was demonstrated in Table 3.1 (Originally, the 20 males and 20 females were equally and randomly assigned to both groups).

Table 3.1 Distribution of the Sample in the Experiment

	Control Group	**Treatment Group**
Male	7	9
female	8	8

The control group was part of the sample that experienced the control condition, and the treatment group was that experienced the treatment condition (see Section 3.2.3). As was clear, females were evenly distributed in both the treatment and the control group, while two more males were involved in the treatment group than in the control group. The distribution was approximately balanced.

3.4 Instruments and Materials

The following instruments and materials were employed for measuring the variables (see Section 1.5 for the definitions) involved in the study, as well as recruiting the participants. All the scales were adapted or adopted from instruments applicable to college students (see Horwitz et al., 1986; Liu, & Jackson, 2008; Djigunović, 2006).

1. Speaking Anxiety Scale (See Appendix A)

It was a 15-item 5-point Likert scale, of which 13 items were adapted from the FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986; the FLCAS was not adopted because it measures more than merely speaking anxiety), and 2 were developed by the present author. The items were all supposed to measure SA. In the adaptation, the specific term of "English" or "English class" replaced the general term of "foreign language" or "(foreign) language class" so that the new scale was more appropriate for the present study with the English language learners. The developed items were: "9. I feel relaxed when I am speaking English in the class", and "12. I feel relaxed when the English teacher asks questions that I have not prepared for in advance". They were employed because most of the adapted items were supposed to examine the degree of the presence of SA, rather than the absence of it. In the adaptation of the items from the FLCAS and the development of the new items, the author made reference to Arnold (2007), who had adapted and developed similar items in his study involving the measurement of foreign language Communication Apprehension (anxiety in oral communication) with the US university students. Following each item were 5 choices for measuring the construct of SA: *(A) Strongly Agree; (B) Agree; (C) Undecided; (D) Disagree; (E) Strongly Disagree.* The choices were scored *1, 2, 3, 4, 5* respectively if the relevant

item was a symptom of the absence of the construct measured, and scored *5, 4, 3, 2, 1* if was the presence. Higher scores indicated higher levels of the construct.

2. Trait Anxiety Scale (see Appendix B: Part 1 (I))

It was a 10-item 4-point Likert scale, adapted from the trait scale of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, 1983). The adaptation was based on a pilot study (see Section 3.8.1), in which the trait scale was found to have two principal components: the worry dimension and the mood dimension. It was the mood dimension that was judged as significantly correlated with speaking anxiety. To save the time of the participants, the present study adapted the original trait scale in such a way that only the 10 items which had loadings over .40 on the mood dimension were selected and composed the Trait Anxiety Scale. Following each item were 4 choices: *Not At All; Somewhat; Moderately So; Very Much So.* The scoring rules were similar to those for the "Speaking Anxiety Scale", except that only 4 grades were available.

3. Unwillingness to Communicate Scale (Appendix B: Part One (II))

It was a 20-item 5-point Likert scale adopted from Burgoon (1976). The scale has two principal components: the approach-avoidance dimension (UTCA), which is measured by the first 10 items on the scale, and the reward dimension (UTCR), which is measured by the last 10 items on the scale. According to Burgoon and Koper (as cited in Liu and Jackson, 2008, p. 74), the former "represents an individual's tendency to avoid or participate in interpersonal and small group interactions" (signifying the presence or absence of CA), while the latter "reflects attitudes toward communication—whether one considers it a valuable, honest, and personally rewarding enterprise or feels socially isolated and regards communication as a deceptive, manipulative, or unprofitable activity". The choices and the scoring rules were the same as those for the "Speaking Anxiety Scale".

4. Language Class Risk-Taking Scale (Appendix B: Part Two (II 1-6))

It was a 6-item 5-point Likert scale adapted from Ely (1986). The word *Spanish* in the original scale was changed to *English* to suit the English learners in the present study. The choices and the scoring rules were the same as those for the "Speaking Anxiety Scale".

5. Language Class Sociability Scale (Appendix B: Part Two (II 7-11))

It was a 5-item 5-point Likert scale adapted from Ely (1986). The adaptation, choices, and scoring rules were the same as those for the "Language Class Risk-Taking Scale".

6. Speaking Self-Efficacy Scale (Appendix B: Part Three)

It was a 7-item 5-point Likert scale. Six of the items were adapted by the author from the *self-rating scale for speaking ability*, attached to the *College English Requirements (general)* (http://www.edu.cn/20040120/3097997.shtml). The original scale requires ticking the items which suit the learner, while the present author adapted it into a 5-point Likert scale. One of the items was developed by the author: "The integrated level of my English speaking ability was: ". This item was intended to examine the overall self rating. Following each item were five choices: *1, 2, 3, 4, 5*, with "1" for the lowest rating, and "5" for the highest rating on the dimension described. Higher scores indicated higher degrees of SSE.

7. Speaking State Anxiety Scale (See Appendix C)

It was an 8-item 5-point Likert scale directly adopted from Djigunović (2006), who used the scale to investigate the speaking state anxiety ("language-specific state anxiety", p. 197) of the "Croatian L1- English L2" (p. 195) undergraduates. In the present study, it was used for both the pre- and posttest of the SAstate (on the posttest,

the item “English score on college entrance test___” was present to investigate the LAE). The choices and scoring rules were the same as those for the “Speaking Anxiety Scale”.

8. Speaking Performance Assessment Criteria (See Appendix D)

They were criteria for assessing the speaking performance in terms of the total number of words in CUs, the percent of the total number of words in mazes, and the total number of dependent clauses. The criteria were adopted from Wilson (2006), who based his criteria on Hunt (1965), Loban (1975), Larsen-Freeman (1983), Phillips (1990, 1992) (as cited in Wilson, 2006). Both Wilson (2006) and Phillips (1992) applied the criteria to assessing second language speaking performance of university students. The selection of the three criteria was determined by (a) part of the purposes of the study and (b) findings on the relationships of language anxiety to speaking performance. As part of the purposes, the study attempted to find out the effect of the Wang SAR Model on speaking performance. Only the characteristics of speaking performance which were likely to be influenced by language anxiety were further likely to be sensitive to the Wang SAR Model. Research findings (Phillips 1992; Wilson, 2006; also see Section 2.5.2) suggested that the three criteria adopted in the present study were likely to measure aspects of speaking performance liable to the influence of anxiety.

9. Invitation Letter (See Appendix E)

To recruit volunteers for the experiment, an invitation letter was prepared, and read by the present author at the beginning of English classes to students to be sampled from the population. The letter primarily covered the purposes, requirements, and general procedure of the study. Issues which could influence the willingness of participation were also included in the letter.

10. Pictures for Oral Description (See Appendix F)

Two pictures were needed for oral description in order to test the speaking performance, with one for the pretest (Picture A), and the other for posttest (Picture B). To select the pictures, the author first prepared 10 similar ones downloaded from the internet, and then displayed them on the big screen in the front of a multimedia classroom before a sample of 10 students randomly drawn from the research population. From the 10 pictures, the students were required to evaluate and select 2 which they thought were appropriate for testing their speaking performance and were approximately equivalent in difficulty. Based on the tendency of selections of the 10 students, two pictures were finally chosen as being suitable for use and approximately equivalent in difficulty. Both pictures were scenes of life in schools. For actual use in the experiment, the pictures were printed by a color printer on pages of size A4.

11. Wang SAR Model (See Chapter 5)

It was a lecture of 1 to 1.5 hours on dysfunctional beliefs related to English speaking performance. The script was developed on the basis of the Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT: Dryden, 2001).

12. Indicators of Language Achievement (LA)

LA was indicated by the Language Achievement on College Entrance Test (LAE), and the Language Achievement on Final-Term Test (LAF). The two indicators were expected to well reflect the construct of LA (see Section 3.5 for the investigation of the indicators).

To investigate the relationships of SA to other variables, the scales measuring TA, UTC, SA, LCR, LCS, and SSE were put on one integrated questionnaire labeled Questionnaire on Disposition and Learning (see Appendix B). To avoid potential

language barriers, the English versions of the scales and the script of the Wang SAR Model were translated into Chinese, and the translation involved was double-checked by another researcher. To examine the equivalence between the original and the translated scales, fifteen graduates from Guizhou College of Finance and Economics were invited to answer both versions of the scales, and the results showed a satisfactory Pearson correlation between them ($r = .91$, $p<.01$). Five Chinese experts in the field of English language studies (three associate professors, and two professors) were invited to examine all the instruments and materials. The experts were all informed of the details of the procedures in which the instruments and materials were used (see Section 3.6). All of them approved of the validity of the instruments and materials, as well as the procedures.

3.5 Research Designs

Research Question 1 entailed a survey, in which the Speaking Anxiety Scale (See Appendix A) was administered to all the participants, investigating their levels of SA and demographic variables with gender included.

Research Question 2 also entailed a survey, in which the Questionnaire on Disposition and Learning (see Appendix B) was administered to all the participants, investigating their levels of TA, UTC, SA, LCR, LCS and SSE. As indicators of LA, LAE was required to be reported on the questionnaire (Appendix B: Part Two (II 12)), and LAF was collected from the English teachers concerned at the end of the term.

Research Question 3-5 entailed an experiment. An equal number of males and females were recruited. Both the males and the females were randomly and equally divided and put into the control and the treatment group. The pre- and posttest for

both groups were the same, involving the measurement of SA, SAstate, and speaking performance. The only difference in the experimental condition was that the treatment group received the Wang SAR Model between the pre- and posttest, while the control group did not (see Table 3.2). SA was measured by the Speaking Anxiety Scale (see Appendix A), SAstate by the Speaking State Anxiety Scale (see Appendix C), and speaking performance by oral description of the pictures (see Appendix F). In addition, the indicators of LA were also investigated in similar ways to those for Research Question 2 (see Appendix C for the item measuring LAE).

Table 3.2 Design for Research Question 3-5

Group	Pretest	Treatment	posttest
Treatment	SA SAstate Speaking performance	Yes	SA SAstate Speaking performance
Control		No	

The experiment took a true experimental design, since random assignment of participants was followed. Random assignment of participants is a prerequisite of typical tests of parametric statistics, according to Shaver (as cited in Mertens, 1998). Repeated measures were employed so that the gain scores on the variables could be obtained. Since the only difference in the experimental condition between the two groups was the presence or absence of the Wang SAR Model, the difference in the gain scores between the two groups could be reasonably attributed to the effects of the Wang SAR Model.

3.6 Research Procedures

3.6.1 Procedure for Research Question 1-2

To collect data for answering Research Question 1, the Speaking Anxiety Scale (see Appendix A) was administered on November 16 and 17, 2009, and for answering Research Question 2, the Questionnaire on Disposition and Learning (Appendix B) was administered on November 24, 2009. The LAF (an indicator of LA) was collected from the language teachers concerned during January 18~22, 2010, when the LAF was available. The common steps for the two surveys with the questionnaires included: (a) distributing the questionnaires; (b) telling the participants the purpose of the questionnaire (for the survey related to Research Question 1, using "the purpose is to gain a better understanding of your second language learning experience"; for that related to Research Question 2, using "the purpose is to gain a better understanding of your second language learning experience and your disposition"), and promising them that the information would only be used for a study, with privacy kept; (c) giving the participants chances for questioning; (d) asking the participants to answer the questionnaires; (e) collecting the questionnaires; and (f) providing the participants means of communication for further possible inquiring.

3.6.2 Procedure for Research Question 3-5

The procedure for Research Question 3-5 involved three stages: developing the Wang SAR Model, testing the model, and investigating the LAF (the LAE was investigated during the posttest of the model with an item on the Speaking Anxiety Scale).

1. Developing the Wang SAR Model

The developing of the Wang SAR Model began with a literature review,

searching for all the available specific techniques mentioned by researchers as applicable to language anxiety. As a result, four CBT techniques were found: SD, RE, modeling, and CR (see Section 2.7.2). Due to the scarcity of empirical studies on those techniques, the author had to make further estimation about the feasibility and effectiveness of those techniques based on the limited relevant literature available (Foss & Reitzel, 1991; Jones, 2002; Daly, 1991; Horwitz et al. 1991; Bedford, 2006), personal experience and intuition. It was CR that was eventually judged as feasible and effective for reducing anxiety (see Section 5.1.1). Moreover, REBT, a typical technique of CR (Tian, 2001) was selected as a prototype for developing the Wang SAR Model (REBT could not be adopted: see Section 5.1.2). When the preliminary model was completed, it was given to a group of 5 college students for evaluation. With their support, and suggestions, the author revised the preliminary model, and submitted it to 5 experts for examination (see Section 3.4). They all approved to its validity. A pilot study also supported the effectiveness of the model for the reduction of SA (see Section 3.8.2). It was then that the model was decided to be employed in the main study for further examination. Chapter 5 is devoted to the discussion and presentation of the Wang SAR Model.

2. Testing the Wang SAR Model

The Wang SAR Model was tested in an experiment, which occupied 3 stages, with 1 for the pretest on November 14, 2009, 1 for the treatment of the treatment group on November 14, 2009, and 1 for posttest on November 28, 2009. The steps involved were as follows.

Step 1: Pretest

The pretest measured the SA, SAstate and speaking performance individually

according to the respective appointment. A participant from the control group and one from the treatment group took turns to receive the tests, which were administered in two common classrooms (Room 1 and Room 2) in succession. In Room 1, a collaborator of the author was present and he would ask each participant arrived to first answer the Speaking Anxiety Scale (see Appendix A) according to the direction and then wait outside Room 2 (the next room). In Room 2, the chief examiner (the author) and a collaborator were present. The collaborator sat by a desk in the second row, manipulating a notebook computer, which was used to play the recorded directions and record the speech of the participant. On the desk in the first row right in front of the collaborator were a speaker, a picture and a pencil-box in which a pen was kept for answering the questionnaire. When a participant entered the room, the collaborator would play the recorded Chinese direction, and the participant was supposed to follow it:

> "您好，请站在前边（静音 5 秒, 其间助手用手势指示对方到放有话筒、图片和文具盒的桌子边) 。请拿起话筒和图片，您的任务是用英语看图说话一分钟，您的讲话将被录音，请准备 10 秒钟（静音 10 秒）。请填写问卷（助手暂停指导语，递去口语状态焦虑量表，直到问卷填完并取回后，取消暂停）。请拿起话筒和图片，立即开始看图说话（助手启动录音。一分钟后，助手停止录音，并告诉被试"时间到，谢谢参与"。召唤下一名被试）。"

> In English, the direction was to the meaning:

> Hello! Please come and stand in the front of the room (There is 5 seconds of recorded silence, in which the collaborator gestures the participant to stand by the desk where the speaker, the picture and the pencil-box are kept). Please pick up the speaker and the picture. Your task is to orally describe the picture in 1 minute. Your description will be recorded. Please prepare for 10 seconds (10 seconds of recorded silence follows). Please answer the questionnaire (The collaborator puts the direction in pause，passes the Speaking State Anxiety Scale (see Appendix C) to the participant, and waits for it to be answered.

> The collaborator collects the questionnaire as soon as it is finished, and cancels the pause). Please pick up the speaker and the picture, and begin the description right now (The collaborator starts the recording

> of the speech. When 1 minute is over, the collaborator stops the recording and announces, "Time is up, thank you for your participation". He calls the next one to enter for the test).

The whole course (in Room 2) lasted for about 5 minutes for a participant on an average. The pretest lasted from 8:00 a.m. to 12:20 p.m. (not everyone arrived exactly on time）.

Step 2: Treatment

Following the pretest in the same day, the participants in the treatment group received the treatment with the Wang SAR Model (See Chapter 5) from 2:30 p.m. to 3:50 p.m. The participants in the control group received no elaborate treatment.

Step 3: Posttest

Fourteen days after the pretest was the posttest. The elaborate delay was expected to reduce the effect of the pretest, and to give the participants in the treatment group a chance for adapting their emotional and behavioral reaction to the speaking performance in the English class. The posttest was similar to the pretest, except that (a) an audience of 9 collaborators was present; (b) the picture for oral description was different; (c) the direction was slightly different (Following "Your description will be recorded (您的讲话将被录音)" (see the direction for pretest), was one additional sentence "The students will evaluate your performance (同学们将对您做出评价)"; and (d) on the Speaking State Anxiety Scale, the item "English score on college entrance test___" was present. Except the "(d)", which was intended to investigate the LAE, all the other measures were expected to arouse higher levels of anxiety. The test was administered during 8:00 a.m. to 12 a.m.

3. Investigating the LAF

As an indicator of LA, the LAF was collected from the language teachers concerned during January 18~22, 2010, when the LAF was available.

3.7 Data Analysis

3.7.1 Data Analysis for Research Question 1

Research Question 1 focused on the extent of SA experienced by the learners, and the difference of SA in terms of gender. In the preliminary analysis, descriptive statistics were employed to analyze the demographic features, such as gender and age, and the reliability of the Speaking Anxiety Scale was calculated to show the internal consistency of the instrument.

Following the preliminary analysis, the minimum (Min), maximum (Max), mean, and standard deviation (Std.) of the levels of SA were analyzed. The mean was further judged as low, if the average score on each item of the scale (average item score) fell below 3, as moderate if between 3~4, and as high if above 4 (Liu & Jackson, 2008). The percentage of the participants falling within each of the three intervals (the distribution) was also reported. Independent Samples T Test was employed to show whether the means differed significantly in terms of gender, and Chi Square Test was employed to examine whether the distributions of the levels of SA differed significantly in terms of gender.

3.7.2 Data Analysis for Research Question 2

Research Question 2 focused on the relationships of SA to other variables. The reliabilities of all the scales were analyzed in the preliminary analysis. Then, correlation was conducted to show the interrelationships between the variables, and stepwise regression was employed to examine the significant predictors of SA. Since

neither the correlation nor the regression analysis could reveal the causal relationships between the variables, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was conducted.

3.7.3 Data Analysis for Research Question 3-5

Research Question 3-5 aimed at examining the effects of the Wang SAR Model on the SA, the SAstate, and the speaking performance. In the preliminary analysis, the speaking performance was transcribed and quantified in terms of the total number of words in CUs, the number of dependent clauses, as well as the percent of the total number of words in mazes, following the Speaking Performance Assessment Criteria (see Appendix D). The reliabilities of the quantification, as well as those of the rating scales were then calculated.

Succeeding the preliminary analysis, the gain scores (posttest - pretest) of the dependent variables (SA, SAstate, the total number of words in CUs, the number of dependent clauses, and the percent of the total number of words in mazes) were computed for use in the ANCOVA. The related assumption was:

(1) Gain scores for the control group = the effects of LA (LAE, LAF) + the effects of extraneous variables;

(2) Gain scores for the treatment group = the effects of the Wang SAR Model + the effects of LA (LAE, LAF) + the effects of extraneous variables;

(3) The effects of extraneous variables on both groups were equal.

Consequently, ANCOVA was the preferable technique for the analysis. By using the gain scores as the dependent variables, the condition of experiment as the fixed/independent variable, and treating the IAE and LAF as covariates, the effects of the Wang SAR Model could be analyzed.

To further examine whether the effects of the Wang SAR Model on the dependent

variables differed in terms of gender, the condition of experiment and gender were both used as independent variables in the ANCOVA (with other variables remaining the same), so that the interaction effects between them could be displayed. The effects of the Wang SAR Model on the dependent variables could be inferred as differing significantly in terms of gender or not according to whether the interaction effects were significant or not.

3.8 Pilot Studies

Two important pilot studies were involved in the examination and development of the instruments for answering the research questions. One was labeled "Pilot Study A", and the other "Pilot Study B". The two studies were to be briefly presented in the following sections.

3.8.1 Pilot Study A

This pilot study was related to the examination and development of the instruments for Research Question 1-2.

1. Purpose of Pilot Study A

The purpose was to examine (1) the reliabilities of the scales for answering Research Question 1-2, and (2) the significance of the correlations between SA and several other variables (or the principal components of the variables) to be involved in Research Question 2.

2. Participants in Pilot Study A

The participants were 44 (13 males, 30 females, 1 without reporting gender) first year non-English majors from a natural group in Guizhou College of Finance and Economics.

3. Instruments for Pilot Study A

The instrument was an integrated questionnaire composed of a list of scales for measuring TA, UTC (UTCA, UTCR), SA, LCR, and LCS. Except for TA, which

was measured by the 20-item trait scale of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, 1983), all the other variables were measured in similar ways as those in the main study (see Section 3.4).

4. Procedure for Pilot Study A

The Pilot study was conducted at the beginning of an English class on April 15, 2009. After distributing the questionnaire, the author told the participants that the purpose of the survey was to gain a better understanding of the relationships of English learning and disposition, and promised them the confidentiality of the information. When it was finished about 20 minutes later, the author collected the questionnaires and thanked the participants.

5. Data Analysis for Pilot Study A

Firstly, the scales involved in the questionnaire were submitted to the analysis for the Cronbach's reliabilities. Secondly, the variables measured by the scales were submitted to the analysis for the principal components. Thirdly, Pearson correlation was conducted to examine the relationships between SA and the other variables (or the principal components of the variables).

6. Results and Discussion of Pilot Study A

The Cronbach's Alpha yielded suggested an acceptable internal consistency for each of the scales concerned (see Table 3.3). The relatively small Alpha values for the LCR and LCS (.67, .71) could be attributed to the length of the scales. Liu and Jackson (2008) achieved an Alpha value of .60 for LCR and .76 for LCS.

Table 3.3 Reliabilities of the Scales Employed in Pilot Study A

	TA	UTC	SA	LCR	LCS
Alpha	.88	.84	.85	.67	.71

Principal component analysis (with rotated solution) was conducted only for the TA, because: (a) the two components for the UTC were known (UTCA, and UTCR: see Section 3.4), (b) the SA was measured by elaborately adapted items from the FLCAS, and therefore it was already a sub-scale of the FLCAS, with no need for further analysis (see Section 3.4), (c) following related literature, the LCR and LCS could all be accepted as single-dimensioned instruments (see Liu & Jackson, 2008). The results (see Table 3.4) showed that the TA had two principal components. There were 10 items having loadings over .40 on each of the components. Component 1 was labeled "the worry dimension", because most of the items loaded heavily on it tapped the degree of worry, while component 2 was labeled "the mood dimension", because the relevant items expressed the construct of mood.

Table 3.4 Principal Components of TA Found in Pilot Study A

	Component	
	1	2
Item 5	.834	.234

Item 11	.788	-.052
Item 18	.771	.260
Item 20	.755	.132
Item 17	.747	.241
Item 9	.722	.163
Item 12	.720	.491
Item 8	.695	-.126
Item 15	.682	.008
Item 14	.529	.474
Item 2	.390	-.037
Item 4	.365	.281
Item 3	.128	.725
Item 16	.152	.709
Item 6	.030	.694
Item 1	.032	.653
Item 13	.049	.580
Item 10	.205	.576
Item 19	.110	.553
Item 7	-.048	.506

Pearson correlation (see Table 3.5) revealed that the SA was significantly correlated with the UTCA and the LCR, but not with the other variables or the principal components of the variables. Since the levels of significance of correlation coefficients are strongly influenced by sample sizes, it is plausible to hypothesize that the correlations of the SA with the mood dimension of the TA ($p = .053$) and the LCS ($p = .062$) can be significant with larger samples. Even the correlation between the SA and the UTCR ($p = .102$) can be hypothesized to be significant when the size of sample is large enough, due to the fact that Liu and Jackson (2008) ever found that they were significantly correlated. It is more plausible to consider the correlation

between the SA and the worry dimension of TA to be insignificant than to be significant, because (1) the p = .383 is too far from being significant, and (2) no studies were found to reveal significant correlations between the two.

Table 3.5 Correlations Found in Pilot Study A

		SA	TA (worry)	TA (mood)	UCTA	UCTR
TA (worry)	r	.135				
	p	.383	.			
TA (mood)	r	.294	.573(**)			
	p	.053	.000	.		
UCTA	r	.423(**)	.399(**)	.538(**)		
	p	.005	.008	.000	.	
UCTR	r	.253	-.078	.183	.434(**)	
	p	.102	.619	.240	.004	.
LCR	r	-.758(**)	-.105	-.244	-.453(**)	-.233
	p	.000	.499	.111	.002	.133
LCS	r	-.284	.226	-.025	-.152	-.187
	p	.062	.141	.874	.332	.229

n = 44; TA (worry) = the worry dimension of TA; TA (mood) = the mood dimension of TA; ** correlation at 0.01 (2-tailed).

7. Conclusion to Pilot Study A

With reference to relevant literature, the pilot study suggested that the translated scales for the TA, UTC, SA, LCR, and LCS were reliable. The worry dimension of the TA was not related to SA. For the main study, all the scales were wholly applicable except the TA, from which the items measuring the worry dimension of trait anxiety should be removed, so as to avoid wasting time measuring a component unrelated to SA.

3.8.2 Pilot Study B

This pilot study was related to Research Question 3-5. It was expected to validate the Wang SAR Model before it was used for the main study.

1. Purpose of Pilot Study B

The purpose of this study was to examine whether the Wang SAR Model could significantly reduce the SA.

2. Participants in Pilot Study B

The participants were 33 (8 males, 25 females) second year English majors from a natural group in Guizhou College of Finance and Economics. Though all of them participated in the pretest and the treatment, only 23 (5 males, 18 females) of them finished the posttest.

3. Instruments for Pilot Study B

(1) Speaking Anxiety Scale

It was a 15-item Likert scale of agreement employed for the measurement of the SA. The scale was similar to that used in the main study (Appendix A).

(2) Wang SAR Model

It was a lecture of 1 to 1.5 hours on dysfunctional beliefs related to SA. The Wang SAR Model used in this pilot study was the same as that used in the main study (see Chapter 5).

4. Procedure for Pilot Study B

The study was composed of a pretest of SA, a treatment with the Wang SAR Model, and a posttest of SA. The pretest of the SA was achieved by administering the questionnaire containing the speaking anxiety scale at the beginning of a normal English class, on April 9th, 2009. After distributing the questionnaires, the author told the participants that the purpose of the survey was to gain a better understanding of

their experience in English learning, and promised the learners the confidentiality of the information. When the questionnaires were finished about 5 minutes later, they were collected. Succeeding the collection of the questionnaires, the author announced that a lecture was to be delivered then and immediately began the treatment with the Wang SAR Model. After about 80 minutes, the treatment was over. The posttest of the SA was administered with the same questionnaire and at the same time as those for the pretest 14 days later (April 23, 2009). After the distribution of the questionnaires, the author told the participants that they were required to report their emotional and behavioral reactions to English classes since they received the lecture. The questionnaires were finished and collected after about 5 minutes and thus the posttest of the SA was completed.

5. Data Analysis for Pilot Study B

Th% dat` cmllected were first submitted to the analycis for the reliabilities of th% scade involved, and then to Paired-Samples T Test to examine the change of the SA after the treatment.

6. Results and Discussion of Pilot Study B

Prehiminary analysis yielded a Cronbach• s Alpha of .90 for the speaking anxiety scale used in the pre4est, and .92 for the same scale in the posttest, both indic!ting high internal consistencies of the scale. Paired-Samples T Test showed that: (1) t`e mean score (an average of the sums of the scores on all the 15 items achieved by different participants) for the posttest was smaller than that for the pretest (40.83 < 45.61: see Table 3.6), (2) the difference between the mean on the posttest and that on the pretest was significant (t= 4.88, p = .000), and (3) scores on the posttest were significantly correlated with those on the pretest (r = .85, p = .000).

The results seemed to suggest that the experiment had acceptable validity and that the reduction of the SA could be attributed to the effect of the Wang SAR Model.

Table 3.6 Means of SA for Pretest and Posttest in Pilot Study B

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair	**Pretest**	45.61	23	8.63	1.80
	Posttest	40.83	23	8.76	1.83

7. Conclusion to Pilot Study B

This pilot study seemed to support the effectiveness of the Wang SAR Model as an anxiety reduction instrument for language learners. The model was worth further examination in the main study.

3.9 Summary

This chapter provides a full picture of the methodology of the present research. Five questions were to be answered, of which 2 involved surveys of the SA and other related variables, and 3 involved an experiment on the effects of the Wang SAR Model on speaking related anxiety and speaking performance. The surveys were based on cluster sampling, and were conducted at the beginning of English classes. The experiment was based on convenience sampling, and took the form of a true experimental design, with pretest, treatment and posttest, lasting 14 days. Descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were employed for the data analysis. During the development of the instruments, two pilot studies were ever conducted. One of them was related to Research Question 1-2, the results of which suggested acceptable reliabilities of the scales involved and the relatedness between SA and the other

variables (or the principal components of the variables), except the worry dimension of trait anxiety, which was to be removed from further examination in the main study. The other pilot study was related to Research Question 3-5, which supported the effectiveness of the Wang SAR Model on SA.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter covers the data analysis, results and discussion. For the data analysis and results, the extent of SA experienced by the students (Research Question 1), the relationships of SA to other variables (Research Question 2), as well as the effects of the Wang SAR Model on SA, SAstate, and speaking performance (Research Question 3-5) are analyzed and reported. The results of Research Question 3-5 are reported together due to the fact that the effects of the same independent variables on different dependent variables could be conveniently examined together with the same statistical techniques. In the discussion, the implications and revelations of the findings are provided.

4.1 Data Analysis and Results

4.1.1 Data Analysis and Results to Research Question 1

To what extent do students experience Speaking Anxiety (SA) in the English language classroom? Does the Speaking Anxiety (SA) experienced by students differ significantly in terms of gender?

Preliminary analysis revealed that, among all the 243 participants investigated, 240 (112 males, 128 females) provided complete responses. The 3 cases with missing data were deleted in further statistical analyses. The ages reported had a mean of 19.39 years, ranging from 17 years to 24 years. The coefficient Alpha yielded was .90 which was an acceptable index of the internal consistency of the Speaking Anxiety Scale.

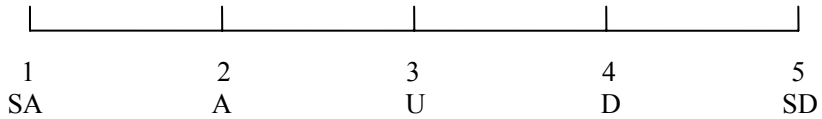
Following the preliminary analysis were the descriptive and inferential analyses. Table 4.1 displays the descriptive statistics of the levels of SA corresponding to the total sample, males, and females respectively. The level of SA for each participant was represented by the average score he/she got on each item (Average Item Score: the sum of one's score on all the items divided by the number of items), and the possible range was 1 to 5.

Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics for SA

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std.
Total	240	1.40	4.67	3.04	.67
Male	112	1.47	4.60	3.03	.65
Female	128	1.40	4.67	3.04	.69

The means for different groups (3.04, 3.03, 3.04) all signified moderate levels of SA (see Section 3.7.1). The results of Independent-Samples T Test indicated no significant difference, t = -.17, df = 238, p = .87, in the mean levels of SA in terms of gender. The implications of the levels of SA can be demonstrated on Figure 4.1.

I do not worry about making mistakes in my English class.



(SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; U = Undecided; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree)

Figure 4.1 Demonstration of the Implications of the Levels of SA

The mean levels of SA found in the present study suggested that both the male and the female participants selected a point slightly beyond the "Undecided" to a statement like *"I do not worry about making mistakes in my English class"* on an average.

To compare the distributions of the levels of SA between males and females, the frequencies of the scores of SA falling within different intervals (see Section 3.7.1) were calculated. For the males, 53 (47.3%) fell in the low interval, 53 (47.3%) the moderate, and 6 (5.4%) the high interval. The corresponding statistics for the females were 62 (48.4%), 56 (43.8%), 10 (7.8%) (see Figure 4.2). Those differences did not seem to be large. The Chi-square Tests indicated no significant difference, $x^2 = .72$, df = 2, p = .70, in the distribution of the levels of SA in terms of gender.

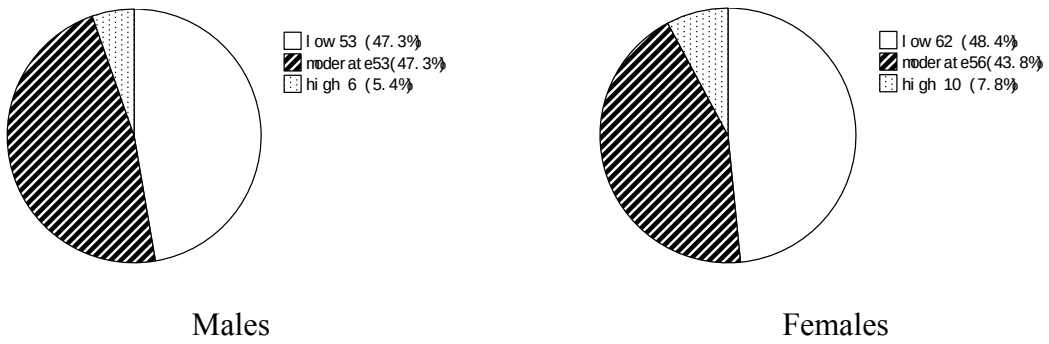


Figure 4.2 Distributions of Levels of SA

4.1.2 Data Analysis and Results to Research Question 2

How is Speaking Anxiety (SA) related to Trait Anxiety (TA), Unwillingness to Communicate (UTC), Speaking Self-Efficacy (SSE), Language Class Risk-Taking (LCR), Language Class Sociability (LCS), and language achievement (LA)?

Preliminary analysis revealed acceptable reliabilities for all the rating scales involved (see Table 4.2).The moderate reliabilities for LCS and LCR (.60, .66) was due to the length of the scales (5, 6 items): “Other things being equal, the longer the test, the greater its’ reliability” (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006:265). Liu

and Jackson (2008) ever reported a reliability of .60 for the LCR. Anyway, all the Alpha coefficients yielded in the present study were "acceptable" "for research purposes" (Alpha >.50; see Ary et al., 2006, p. 267).

Table 4.2 Statistics Related to the Reliabilities of the Instruments for Question 2

	TA	UTC	UTCA	UTCR	LCR	LCS	SSE	SA
Items	10	20	10	10	6	5	7	15
Response	100	100	100	100	100	100	96.1	100
Alpha	.78	.81	.78	.84	.66	.60	.89	.89

N = 103; Items = total number of items; Response = the percent of cases with full responses.

To further reveal the relationships of the SA to other variables from different perspectives, the data were submitted to the analyses of Pearson correlation, stepwise regression, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

For correlation and regression analysis, the LA was not only represented by the two indicators (LAE, LAF), but also by the average of them *(LAav = (LAE × 100 ÷ 150 + LAF) ÷2. The average was calculated in this way because the total score for the LAE was 150, and that for the LAF was 100).* Since the UTC was a multidimensional construct, both of the sub-components (the UTCA, and the UTCR) were all submitted to the analyses so as to achieve a precise understanding of their relationships to the SA.

Correlation analysis (see Table 4.3) revealed that the SA was positively correlated with the TA, UTC, UTCA, as well as the UTCR, and negatively correlated with the LAE, LAF, LAav, LCR, LCS, as well as the SSE. The correlations suggested, on the one hand, that learners who had the tendency to experience negative mood, to avoid communication with others, or to consider communication as unrewarding,

were liable to experience high SA. On the other hand, the correlations implied that higher SA was related to lower English achievement, lower tendency to use the English form whose correctness is beyond one's confidence or to use English for socialization in the classroom.

Table 4.3 Inter-Correlations for SA and the Other Variables

	LAE	LAF	LAav	TA	UTC	UTCA	UTCR	LCR	LCS	SSE
LAF	.25*	1								
LAav	.71**	.86**	1							
TA	-.24*	-.16	-.24*	1						
UTC	-.30**	-.15	-.28**	.50**	1					
UTCA	-.17	-.13	-.20	.36**	.80**	1				
UTCR	-.31**	-.11	-.24*	.42**	.74**	.19	1			
LCR	.22*	.16	.26**	-.30**	-.41**	-.37**	-.26**	1		
LCS	-.05	-.06	-.07	-.20*	-.28**	-.26**	-.17	.27**	1	
SSE	.29**	.35**	.41**	-.31**	-.34**	-.27**	-.25*	.23*	.16	1
SA	-.29**	-.26**	-.36**	.34**	.58**	.57**	.30**	-.54**	-.33**	-.38**

N = 95~103; * correlation at 0.05, ** at 0.01(2-tailed).

To select the best model for the prediction of the SA, the variables involved in the correlational analysis were further submitted to stepwise regression analysis. The results are displayed in Table 4.4. The regression model could be expressed as: **SA** = .42UTCA -.33LCR -.18LAav (R^2 = .46), suggesting that the first best predictor for SA was UTCA, the second was LCR, and the third was LAav, with 46% of the variance of SA capable of being accounted for by the predictors.

Table 4.4 Regression Coefficients for the Prediction of SA (R^2 = .46)

	Beta	t	p
UTCA	.42	5.251	.000
LCR	-.33	-4.029	.000
LAav	-.18	-2.332	.022

As neither the correlation nor the regression analysis could reveal causal relationships, analysis with SEM was followed. SEM is different from an experiment for examining causal relationships. In an experiment, the researcher manipulates the independent variables and observes the effects on the dependent variables, while in the SEM the researcher specifies or partly specifies one or more models based on knowledge or theories and examines whether the data support the model(s). To conduct the SEM, two preliminary steps were needed:

Firstly, construct the measurement models. The measurement models specify how the observed variables depend on the unobserved or latent variables. In the present study, the observed variables included the LAF, LAE, and all the items on the scales involved. The latent variables were the SA, TA, UTC, UTCA, UTCR, LCR, LCS, SSE, and LA. Since the UTC was not a uni-dimensional construct, it was excluded from the SEM. No information would lose, because both of its principal components (UTCA and UTCR) were present in the SEM. Except the LA, each latent variable was related to many observed variables, and parceling was in need (Zhang, Yang, Liang, Wang, & Shao, 2008). Two parcels were constructed for each latent variable, which were signified by "_1" and "_2" (for example, TA_1, TA_2: see Figure 4.3). LAE, LAF, and the parceled variables all served as indicators in the SEM. Each indicator also received the influence of an error variable (for example, e1→TA_1, e2→TA_2).

Secondly, construct the structural model, which specifies the relationships between the latent variables. The present study was more explorative than confirmative. In other words, the few relationships theoretically sound were specified by the author, as were symbolized by the thicker lines, with arrows indicating the directions of influence. Many other relationships beyond the confidence of the author were symbolized by the thinner lines, suggesting that they were suspected by the author, and were to be specified by specification search. In the structural model, the latent variables receiving the influence of other latent variables were endogenous variables, each of which received the influence of an error variable (for example, e4→UTCA). The hypothesized relationships specified by the author were:

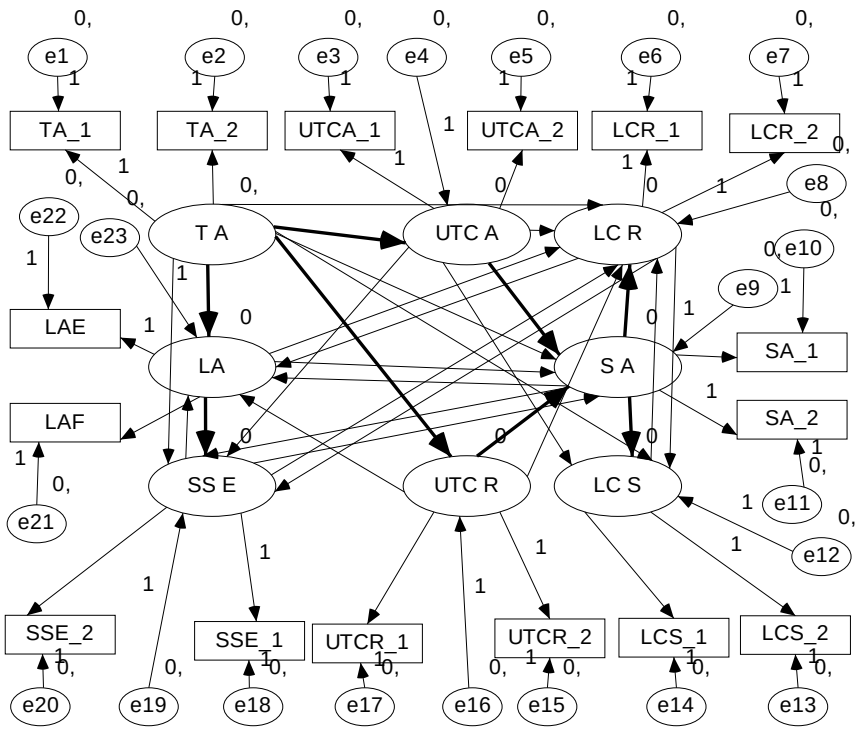


Figure 4.3 Hypothesized Relationships for SA and the Other Variables

1. "TA→UTCA/UTCR→ SA →LCR/LCS"

TA was a tendency to experience anxiety in *various* situations, UTCA/UTCR was related to the tendency to experience anxiety in *communication* situations, and SA was the tendency to experience anxiety in *English communication* situations (language class). Therefore, the more general disposition was likely to influence the more specific disposition (deduction). SA could further influence LCR/LCS because: when a learner was *fearful about speaking English* itself, he/she was likely to be *more fearful about speaking English when the additional risks of committing mistakes existed*, and was *unlikely to speak English for socialization*.

2. "TA →LA →SSE"

Anxiety was likely to distract the attention or occupy the cognitive resources which could otherwise be used for learning (see Section 2.6.2). Learners suffering from anxiety were likely to have a lower efficiency of learning, and consequently a lower language achievement (LA). The LA, whether indicated by the LAE or LAF, was an objective mirror of one's level, which was likely to influence the self rating of one's level (SSE).

The hypothesized relationships to be specified by the specification search included: (a) "TA→LCR"; (b) "TA→SA"; (c) "TA→LCS"; (d) "TA→SSE"; (e) "UTCA→LCR"; (f) "UTCA→LCS"; (g) "UTCA→SSE"; (h) "UTCR→LCR"; (i) "LA→LCR"; (j) "LCR→LA"; (k) "LA→SA"; (l) "SA→LA"; (m) "SSE→LA"; (n) "UTCR→LA"; (o) "SSE→LCR"; (p) "LCR→SSE"; (q) "SSE→SA"; (r) "SA→SSE"; (s) "LCS→LCR"; (t) "LCR→LCS". The rationale for the hypothesis was: (1) personality variables (TA, UTCA, UTCR) may influence second language variables (LA, LCR, LCS, SA, SSE), rather than the reverse, because the former seem to be

more fundamental than the latter; (2) second language variables may have mutual influences; (3) uncorrelated variables are unlikely to have significant causal relationships and should be dismissed from examination.

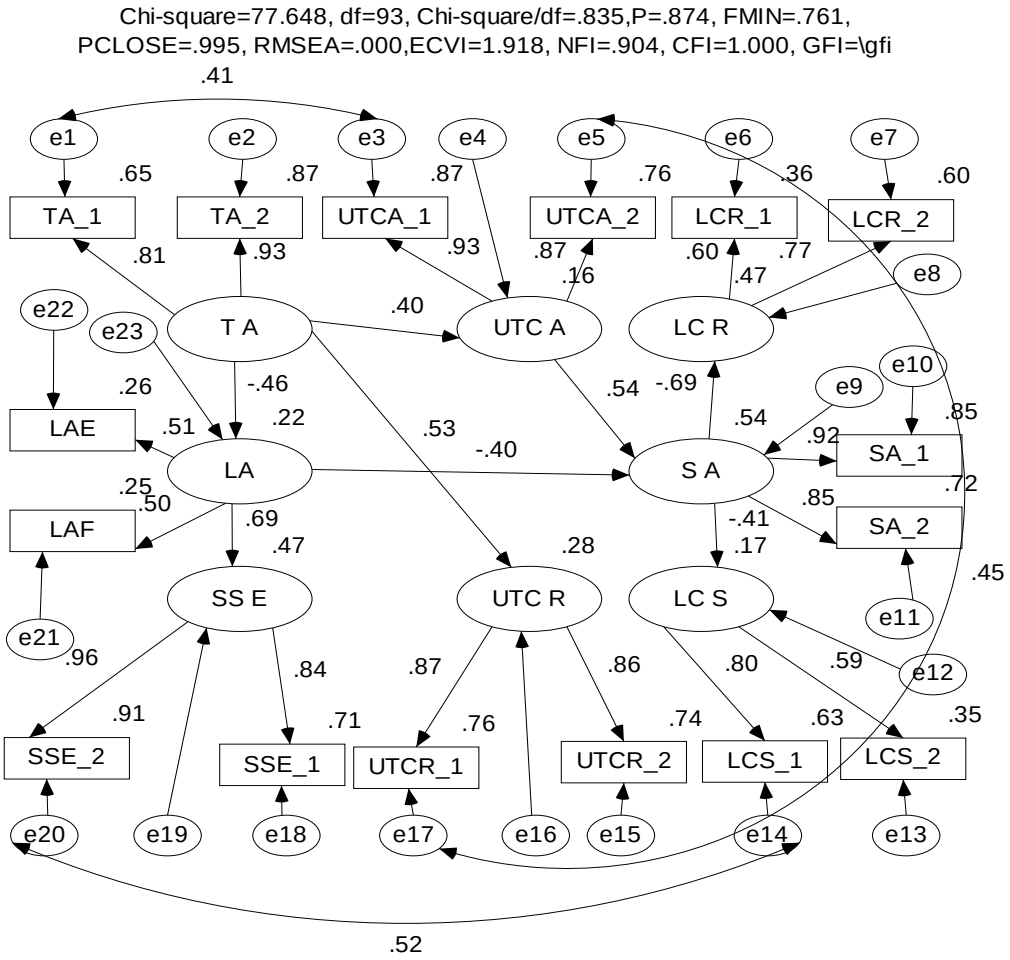


Figure 4.4 Estimated Relationships for SA and the Other Variables (Model A)

The output of the estimation was further adjusted with reference to the fitness measures, and ultimately two satisfactory models were obtained: Model A and Model B (see Figure 4.4, Figure 4.5). The differences between them were the directions of the arrows between LA and SA, and some of the parameters.

Both models were based on standardized estimations. The directions of the single-headed arrows signified the directions of causation, with the numbers near the

midpoints of the arrows representing the regression weights or direct factor effects. The double-headed arrows indicated correlations, with the numbers near the midpoints of the arrows showing the coefficients.

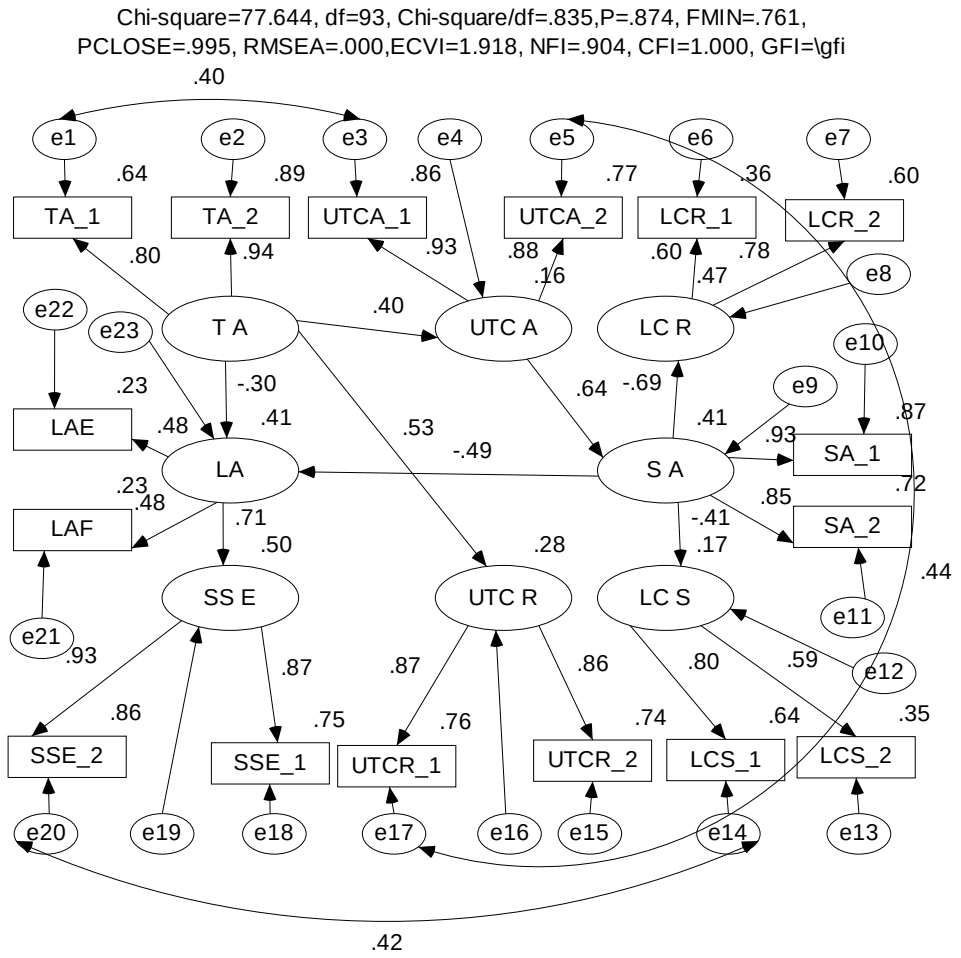


Figure 4.5 Estimated Relationships for SA and the Other Variables (Model B)

The regression weights and correlation coefficients all achieved statistical significance, except the coefficient between e14 and e20, which was quite near the level of significance (p = .065 in Model A, .062 in Model B), and plausible for being included in the model. The number near the upper right side of a rectangular or elliptical figure signified the Squared Multiple Correlation, indicating the percent of

variance of the variable accounted for by the other variables directly or indirectly related to it. The fitness measures (Chi-square, df, etc.) were displayed on top of the path diagrams, all indicating acceptable goodness of fit.

Both models indicated that the SA was directly influenced by the UTCA , and it could further affect the LCR, as well as LCS. The TA had direct or indirect influences on all the other latent variables. The SSE and UTCR had no significant influence on other variables. The two models together showed that the SA and the LA had mutual influences. The Squared Multiple Correlations suggested that a total of 54% of the variance of SA could be accounted for by the directly or indirectly related variables in Model A, and 41% in Model B. Moreover, most of the latent variables were also indirectly related to each other through the intermediary of the error variables which were correlated.

4.1.3 Data Analysis and Results to Research Question 3-5

Can the Speaking Anxiety Reduction Model (Wang SAR Model) developed on the basis of the Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) reduce students' Speaking Anxiety (SA)? Does the effect differ significantly in terms of gender?

Can the Speaking Anxiety Reduction Model (Wang SAR Model) reduce students' Speaking State Anxiety (SAstate)? Does the effect differ significantly in terms of gender?

Can the Speaking Anxiety Reduction Model (Wang SAR Model) improve the speaking performance (assessed by the total number of words in Communication Units (CUs), the percent of the total number of words in mazes, and the total number of dependent clauses)? Does the effect differ significantly in terms of gender on any of the criteria? If yes, on which criterion/ criteria?

Of all the 40 students having volunteered to participate in the experiment, 32 (80%) actually completed all the phases (see Section 3.3.2). The rate of attrition was not high compared with that encountered by Rasid & Parish (1998) who ever reported a 2-week experiment similar to the present one, in which only 62.5% finished all the phases. The data of those who failed to complete the experiment were deleted in further analyses.

The transcription of the speaking performance was accomplished by the author, checked and improved by a peer researcher until it was believed to be satisfactory.

The quantifying of the speaking performance was conducted by the author and a peer researcher separately, following the Speaking Performance Assessment Criteria (Appendix D). Here is an example of the transcription and quantification of the recorded speech of a participant (words in normal font stand for words in CUs, in italicized font for words in mazes, and in bold font for words in CUs as well as in dependent clauses):

The Transcription

There are four boys in the picture. *We can* we can see **that** *two boys* **two boys are discussing and two boys** *look look boos* **look book**. *One one boys* one boys is very happy. Maybe *the book the books* the books *has has something interesting* has something interesting *to you* to he.

The Quantification

(1) The number of CUs is 4. The total number of words in CUs is 33.
a. There are four boys in the picture……1 CU
b. we can see **that two boys are discussing and two boys look book**…… …… ..1 CU
c. one boys is very happy…… ……..……1 CU
d. Maybe the books has something interesting to he…… ……..1 CU

(2) The number of mazes is 7. The total number of words in mazes is 20. The percent of total number of words in mazes is 20 ÷ (20 + 33)×100% = 37.74%.

a. *We can*……....1 maze
b. *two boys*…….……1 maze
c. *look look boos*…….……1 maze
d. *One one boys*……..1 maze
e. *the book the books*…….…..……..1 maze
f. *has has something interesting*……..…. …….1 maze
g. *to you*…….…..…..…...1 maze

(3) The total number of dependent clauses is 2.
a. **that two boys are discussing**……1 dependent clause
b. **and two boys look book**……...……1 dependent clause

Pearson correlations showed high inter-rater reliabilities for the quantification of speaking performance on each criterion (see Table 4.5). To eliminate the inconsistencies between the raters, the ratings were further examined and revised against the criteria until agreement was arrived at on all the ratings.

Table 4.5 Inter-Rater Reliabilities Signified by Pearson Correlations

	PreCU	PreM	PreDep	PosCU	PosM	PosDep
r	.99**	.99**	1.00**	1.00**	.99**	1.00**

Pre- = Pretest of; Pos- = Posttest of; -CU = total number of words in CUs; -M = percent of total words in mazes; -Dep = total number of dependent clauses; ** correlation at 0.01(2-tailed).

The reliabilities of the instruments for SA and SAstate were also calculated. The results showed high internal consistencies of both scales on either the pretest or the posttest (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Statistics Related to the Reliabilities of Instruments for Question 3-5

	Pretest		Posttest	
	SA	**SAstate**	**SA**	**SAstate**
Items	15	8	15	8
Response (%)	100	100	100	100
Alpha	.94	.83	.96	.93

N = 32; Items = total number of items; Response = the percent of cases with full responses.

To examine the effects of the Wang SAR Model on the dependent variables, descriptive statistics of the gain scores (posttest - pretest) of the SA, the SAstate, the total number of words in CUs, the percent of total number of words in mazes, and the total number of dependent clauses were compared between the control and the treatment group (see Table 4.7; the Average Item Scores were employed for the pre- and posttest of SA and SAstate: see Section 4.1.1).

Table 4.7 Descriptive Statistics for the Gain Scores of the Dependent Variables

	Minimum		**Maximum**		**Mean**		**Std. Deviation**	
	Ctrl	**Trt**	**Ctrl**	**Trt**	**Ctrl**	**Trt**	**Ctrl**	**Trt**
GainSA	-.73	-1.87	.40	.13	**-.14**	**-.57**	.36	.72
GainSAstate	-.50	-2.38	.13	.38	**-.14**	**-.64**	.16	.77
GainCU	-28.00	-20.00	23.00	48.00	**-3.33**	**14.18**	14.58	16.39
GainM(%)	-33.33	-35.65	26.57	29.17	**-4.00**	**-.37**	17.71	13.89
GainDep	-2.00	-2.00	2.00	3.00	**-.40**	**.29**	1.35	1.49

Ctrl = control group; Trt = treatment group; Gain- = gain score of; see Table 4.5 for other labels.

According to Tables 4.7, both the SA and SAstate had negative mean gain scores in either the control or the treatment group (-.14; -.57; -.14; -.64), which suggested the possibility of desensitization effects caused by the repeated measurements. The participants were not so anxious in the posttest as in the pretest, no matter which group they were in. But compared with the control group, the treatment group had greater absolute mean gain scores ($|-.57| > |-.14|$; $|-.64| > |-.14|$), suggesting that the SA and SAstate decreased more for the treatment group on an average. In terms of the total number of words in CUs and the total number of dependent clauses, the positive mean gain scores of the treatment group (14.18, .29) suggested that, on an average, the treatment group expressed more comprehensible

speech, and used more dependent clauses in the posttest than in the pretest. In sharp contrast, the negative mean gain scores of the control group (-3.33, -.40) revealed the opposite tendency. As to the percent of total number of words in mazes, the negative mean gain scores of both groups (-4.00%, -.37%,) implied that the proportions of useless information expressed by both groups decreased in the posttest, and decreased more for the control group ($|-4.00\%| > |-.37\%|$). Those changes, as a whole, suggested that the Wang SAR Model could have produced its effects: having reduced the anxiety, and influenced the speaking performance.

To examine the statistical significance of the effects of condition of experiment when the possible effects of ability or LA (LAE, LAF) were controlled, ANCOVA was conducted (see Section 3.7.3), and the output is displayed in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Effects of the Condition of Experiment

Source	Depend	SS	df	MS	F	Sig	η^2
Condition of Experiment	**GainSA**	1.55	1	1.55	4.65	.04	.14
	GainSAstate	1.65	1	1.65	4.78	.04	.15
	GainCU	1561.09	1	1561.09	7.09	.01	.20
	GainM	452.51	1	452.51	2.69	.11	.09
	GainDep	1.57	1	1.57	.79	.38	.03

Depend = Dependent Variable; SS = Sum of Squares; MS = Mean Square; η^2 = Partial η^2; see Table 4.7 and Table 4.5 for other labels.

According to Table 4.8, the condition of experiment had significant effects only on the gain scores of SA, SAstate, and the number of total words in CUs (p = .04, .04, .01), and the proportions of total variation of the three dependent variables attributable to the condition of experiment were respectively .14, .15, and .20 (see the η^2 in Table 4.8).

The descriptive and the inferential statistical results (Table 4.7, 4.8) together suggested that the Wang SAR Model could reduce the SA, the SAstate, and increase the total number of words in CUs.

To further examine the effects of gender, both gender and condition of experiment were used as independent variables in the ANCOVA. The results (see Table 4.9) showed no significant interaction effects on any of the dependent variables, indicating that the effects of the Wang SAR Model did not differ in terms of gender.

Table 4.9 Effects of Condition of Experiment × Gender

Source	Depend	SS	df	MS	F	Sig	η^2
Condition of Experiment × Gender	**GainSA**	.05	1	.05	.14	.71	.01
	GainSAstate	.04	1	.04	.11	.75	.00
	GainCU	242.90	1	242.90	1.08	.31	.04
	GainM	2.16	1	2.16	.01	.91	.00
	GainDep	.58	1	.58	.27	.61	.01

See Table 4.7 and Table 4.5 for the labels.

4.2 Discussion

Rating scales, indicators of LA, indicators of speaking performance, and the Wang SAR Model were used in the present study. The rating scales all had acceptable reliabilities. There seemed to be no problem with the indicators of LA (the LAE was nationally used, while the LAF was used in the whole college). Adopted from repeatedly published criteria, the indicators of speaking performance were out of question. The employment of the Wang SAR Model for treating SA was also theoretically justifiable (see Section 5.1). The results were consequently acceptable, and were to be discussed in the following.

4.2.1 Extent of SA Experienced by the Learners

The extent of SA experienced by the learners was revealed by the mean level as well as the distribution of the levels. The mean (3.04) of the total sample revealed by the present study indicated a moderate level of SA. In terms of distribution, more than half of the learners fell in the moderate or high intervals of SA (see Section 3.7.1, 4.1.1).

Both the mean and the distribution revealed in the present study are worth the concern of language teachers, because they could have serious negative effects on the development of the speaking skill and speaking performance.

Firstly, SA is a barrier for the skill development. Learners suffering from higher SA are less likely to participate in class interactions (Young, 1991b). The reduced chances of practice could result in a lower level of the speaking skill, which might lead to a still higher level of SA, and thus begin a vicious circulation.

Secondly, SA could have negative effects on performance. An anxious person might divide his/her attention between task relevant thoughts and task irrelevant ones (see Section 2.6.2). The reduced cognitive resources could result in a lower efficiency of performance. Therefore, on occasions when speaking the second language is unavoidable, the more anxious learners are likely to perform more poorly than their less anxious counterparts, even when there is no difference in the actual ability. The poorer performance may result in a more painful experience for the speaker, which could cause an even higher level of SA and lead to a vicious circulation, similar to that in the skill development.

Both of the vicious circulations deserve the attention of educators. Whether for the purpose of developing the speaking skill or improving the efficiency of

performance, the issue of SA should be controlled.

The mean levels of SA, as well as the distributions, however, did not differ between males and females, a finding similar to those of some research, but different from others. Though beyond explanation, the finding is significant because it could contribute to the accumulation of facts which may ultimately lead to the clarification of the confusion.

4.2.2 Relationships of SA to the Other Variables

The relationships of SA to other variables were examined by means of correlation, stepwise regression and the SEM. The results of the three types of analyses, though internally consistent, reflected the relationships from different perspectives.

1. Relationships of SA to the Other Variables in Terms of Correlation

The correlation analysis indicated that the SA was positively correlated with the TA, the UTC, the UTCA, as well as the UTCR, and negatively with the LA (signified by LAE, LAF, and LAav), the SSE, the LCR, as well as the LCS.

The directions and strengths of some of the correlations found in the present study are quite similar to those found by other studies. Table 4.10 displays a comparison of the coefficients yielded by the present study with those yielded by Liu & Jackson (2008).

Table 4.10 Comparison of Correlation Coefficients for the Same Constructs

Correlated factors	Present study (n=103)	Liu & Jackson (n=547)
SA (FLCAS2)↔UTC (UCS)	*.58***	.525**
SA (FLCAS2)↔UTCA (UCS1)	*.57***	.582**
SA (FLCAS2)↔UTCR (UCS2)	*.30***	.257**
SA (FLCAS2)↔ LCR	-.54**	−.457**
SA (FLCAS2)↔ LCS	-.33**	-.368**

Labels by Liu and Jackson were in the brackets.

The direction and strength of the correlation between TA and SA (*.34***) in the present study are also similar to those between trait anxiety and foreign language classroom anxiety (.29**) found by Horwitz (1991). Those similarities seem to support the validity of the present correlational findings.

The correlations implied that learners with a higher negative mood, a stronger unwillingness to communicate with people, were likely to experience higher anxiety when speaking the second language in the classroom. The higher anxiety further suggested a lower language achievement, a lower self-efficacy in speaking ability, and a weaker tendency to take risks or socialize in the target language in the classroom.

2. Relationships of SA to the Other Variables in Terms of Regression

Stepwise regression yielded a model: SA = .42UTCA -.33LCR -.18LAav, suggesting that the SA could be best predicted by the UTCA, LCR, and LAav. This model is extremely similar to Liu & Jackson (2008, p. 81), who found that the first best predictor for SA (FLCAS2) was UCS1 (= UTCA: β = .31), the second best one was LCR (β = -.24), and the third was OE (the Overall English Proficiency, which is equivalent to the LAav: β = -.20).

The regression model indicated that language teachers could foretell the levels

of speaking anxiety by the degrees of communication apprehension (UTCA), the tendencies to take risks in the language class, and the levels of language achievement.

3. Relationships of SA to the Other Variables in Terms of SEM

Both Model A and Model B confirmed all the original hypotheses with which the author had specified the structural model, except that about the influence of UTCR on SA (see Figure 4.4, 4.5). The findings also seem to be supported by other research. The influence of TA on LA is consistent with the views of Tobias and Eysenck (as cited in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; 1994), who explained the effects of anxiety on learning in terms of cognitive interference. The influence of LA on SSE is supported by MacIntyre, Noels, Clément (1997：274), who suggested that "those who are more proficient tended to perceive themselves as more proficient". The effect of UTCA on SA can also find its echo in literature: Horwitz, Horwitz, Cope (1991：30) insisted that "People who typically have trouble speaking in groups are likely to experience even greater difficulty speaking in a foreign language". The findings about the influences of SA on both LCR, and LCS are consistent with Samimy & Tabuse who suggested that anxiety could affect risk-taking (as cited in Matsuda & Gobel, 2004), and consistent with Young (1991b) who insisted that some students may become so fearful of speaking in class that they refuse to participate at all. The insignificant influence of UTCR on SA seems to suggest that UTCR is a construct different from what was hypothesized by the author. The author hypothesized that UTCR is a tendency to experience anxiety in general communication situations, and the tendency could transfer to the second language classroom. Since the results from the SEM did not support the hypothesis, it seems that UTCR is not a general tendency to experience anxiety, though it is a tendency to have negative attitude to communication

(see Section 3.4 for the explanation of the UTCR). This result from the SEM implies, for example, individuals who regard communication as a valueless behavior may not necessarily feel fearful about communication.

The findings from the SEM are significant for: (a) it provided data support for some of the claims held by researchers on the relationships between the variables involved; (b) the mutual influences between SA and LA revealed here are helpful for the clarification of the confusion concerning the relationships between the two variables (Researchers have argued about whether language anxiety is primarily a cause or effect in language learning. The present study seems to suggest that it could be both a cause and effect); and (c) the causal relationships could be used for controlling the SA, as is to be discussed in Chapter 6.

4. **Convergence of Different Analyses**

The variables related to SA in the present study could be put in two categories: personality features, and non-personality features. The former include UTC (UTCA, UTCR) and TA (see Section 2.4.3), while the latter include the LA, SSE, LCR, and LCS. The analysis of regression and SEM both suggested that SA was primarily a function of the personality feature of UTCA (among the variables involved in Research Question 2), because (1) UTCA was found to be the best predictor of SA (Table 4.4), and (2) UTCA had the strongest influence on SA (Figure 4.4-4.5).

4.2.3 Effects of the Wang SAR Model

The effects of the Wang SAR Model were examined through the experiment. The results showed that, when ability (LA) was controlled with ANCOVA, the Wang SAR Model could reduce the learners SA, SAstate, and improve the speaking performance by increasing the total words in CUs. The effects of the Wang SAR

Model did not differ in terms gender.

To evaluate the validity of the study, the effect of the Wang SAR Model on SAstate was examined as a means of triangulation (see Section 3.2.3). Since the effects of the model on both the SA and SAstate were found to be consistent (both types of anxiety were reduced and the degrees of reduction did not differ significantly in terms of gender), it could be reasonably inferred that the results about the effect of the Wang SAR Model on SA were valid.

The results concerning the effect of the Wang SAR Model on speaking performance were consistent with the common finding by Phillips (1992) and Wilson (2006), both of whom discovered that higher language anxiety was related to smaller total number of words in CUs. The results of the present study, however, were more revealing, because the findings by Phillips and Wilson were both correlational in nature, which only suggested the possible influence of language anxiety on speaking performance, while the results of the present study were based on an experiment, which provided more persuasive evidence about the influence of anxiety on performance. But the present study did not support the divergent findings between Phillips and Wilson (see Section 2.5.2). Perhaps unknown variables had their roles in the divergences.

The Wang SAR Model was developed from the REBT (a typical CR), a branch of CBT. The results related to the effect of the Wang SAR Model on SA were inconsistent with Jones (2002), who failed to discover any significant effects of CBT (cognitive restructuring and relaxation training) on language anxiety. The different results were probably caused by (a) the technique (Jones did not develop the CBT for language anxiety, while the present author did), and /or (b) the experimental design

(Jones gave the posttest immediately following the treatment and thus deprived the students of the chances to practice the desired emotional/behavioral reactions in real situations of language learning, while the present author delayed the posttest and provided the students with chances to do them).

The findings have great theoretical, as well as practical implications. Theoretically, they suggested that beliefs play a key role in SA, and that modifying beliefs could reduce SA. The findings also indicated that REBT is not only effective for use in clinical settings, but also in second language learning and using situations when appropriately adapted. Since the reduction of anxiety led to a change of the performance, the study implied that anxiety is not only a side effect of poor language learning (see Section 2.6.1). Practically speaking, the findings on the effects of the Wang SAR Model are of great pedagogical implications, which are to be discussed in Chapter 6.

4.2.4 A Model for SA, Beliefs in Communication in L2 and UTCA

One more issue seemed to be in puzzle. On the one hand, the fact that the Wang SAR Model could reduce SA by modifying beliefs in communication in the second language (L2) supported the inference that SA was obviously influenced by those beliefs. On the other hand, the results of stepwise regression and SEM suggested that SA was strongly influenced by UTCA. The relationships could be demonstrated by Figure 4.6. The puzzle was: What was the relationship between UTCA and beliefs in communication in L2?

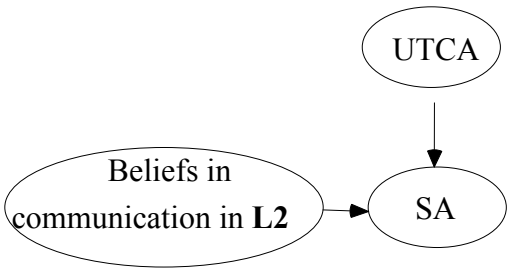


Figure 4.6 Influences of Beliefs in Communication in L2 and UTCA on SA

To answer the question, the author advanced a hypothesized model:

Similar to the influence of *beliefs in communication in L2* on SA, there are *beliefs in communication in general,* which influence UTCA. Moreover, the *beliefs in communication in general* influence the *beliefs in communication in L2* (see Figure 4.7: G = general).

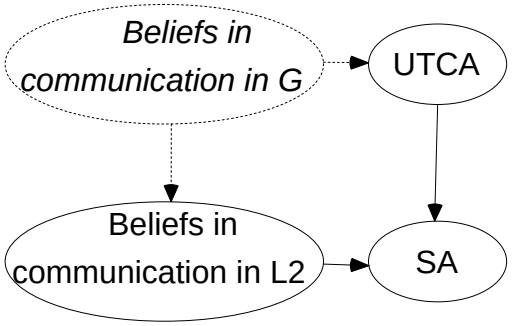


Figure 4.7 Hypothesized Model Connecting SA, Beliefs in Communication in L2 and UTCA

The hypothesized relationships conform to logic and relevant theories. Both SA and UTCA represent the degree of fear of oral communication (in the second language or in general). If the SA is influenced by beliefs, the UTCA is equally likely to be influenced by beliefs, though the beliefs could be different, in terms of analogy. The A—B—C personality theory also supports the inference (see Section 5.2.3). The logic for the influence of *belief in communication in general* on *beliefs in communication in L2* is obvious because the former subsumes the latter (deduction).

The model also conforms to intuition. For example, if a person believes he must speak perfectly and imperfect speaking performance is terrible (*beliefs in*

communication in general), he is likely to be afraid to express himself in a group (UTCA). Moreover, with the same beliefs, he is likely to believe that he must speak perfectly and imperfect speaking performance is terrible in the second language (*beliefs in communication in L2*).

The merit for the hypothesized model is that it connects all the key variables in the present study.

4.3 Summary

Over half of the learners participated in the present research reported a moderate or high level of SA, which is worth the concern of language teachers, because SA have negative effects on the development of the speaking skill and speaking performance. Though correlated with many different variables, the SA could only be significantly predicted by UTCA, LCR, and LA. In terms of causal relationships, SA was influenced by TA, UTCA, and could further influence the LCR, and LCS. Mutual influences existed between the SA and LA. The Wang SAR Model could reduce the SA, and increase the total words in CUs. The close relationships of SA to UTCA and the beliefs in communication in the second language could be explained by a hypothesized model in which beliefs in communication in general connect all the variables.

CHAPTER 5

SPEAKING ANXIETY REDUCTION:

THE WANG SAR MODEL

The chapter focuses on the Wang SAR Model (Speaking Anxiety Reduction Model by Wang, the present author), a technique based on the REBT (Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy), which is a typical type of CR (Cognitive Restructuring). It begins with the justification for developing the Wang SAR Model from the REBT, and ends with the components and logical steps of the model. The components include the prologue, the background knowledge, the roots and remedies of SA, and the epilogue. Each component is made up of a brief introduction and a detailed script.

5.1 Justification for Developing the Wang SAR Model Based on the REBT

5.1.1 Rationale for the Selection of the REBT

For the purpose of discovering specific remedies for language anxiety, the author searched all the available literature and finally discovered four techniques: systematic desensitization (SD), relaxation exercises (RE), modeling, and cognitive restructuring (CR). Probing deeper into the literature of each of the technique, the author found that SD demands levels of training and expertise beyond those of general ESL teachers (Foss & Reitzel, 1991). Modeling, though technically simple,

seems to have little face validity, because a lot of language learners remain anxious though they have no lack of modeling of relaxed language performances from their non-anxious peers in the everyday language classroom settings. Of the remaining two techniques, CR seems more attractive than RE. CR attempts to modify inappropriate beliefs related to emotional problems, while RE aims at counterbalancing the physical tension accompanying emotional problems (see Section 2.7.2). Beliefs have been found to be a root of language anxiety (see Section 2.4.2); physical tension accompanying anxiety arousal is only the symptom. It seems more effective to treat the root rather than the symptom of language anxiety. For treating emotional problems, Bedford (2006) ever warned of the ineffectiveness of symptom control:

> And the really astonishing thing is that you could get rid of the symptom by some method (like drugs, NLP, Suggestion Hypnotherapy, Counselling or whatever) only to find that something else later takes its place. Another symptom emerges to replace the old one because the root cause of the symptom is still there. The technical term for this is "symptom substitution".

Based on the consideration above, the author turned to CR. More specifically speaking, the author followed the REBT (Dryden, 2001), a typical technique of CR. REBT is based on the A—B—C personality theory (see Section 5.2.3), which assumes irrational beliefs to be the primary sources of psychological problems. Replacing the irrational beliefs with their rational substitutes is the essence of the REBT. Though widely practiced in clinical settings to help individuals to recover from psychological problems, this psychotherapy has not been found to be applied to classroom settings to treat language anxiety in any empirical study. Anyway, the REBT seems applicable to the problem of SA. It is a therapy for various psychological problems related to dysfunctional beliefs (incorrect and harmful

beliefs). Since SA is also related to dysfunctional beliefs (Horwitz et al. 1991), it is likely to be reduced or controlled by REBT.

5.1.2 Grounds for and Aspects Involved in the Development

Though seemingly applicable to the problem of SA, REBT could not be adopted directly by the present author for the problem of SA. In fact, REBT provides only the general principles rather than specific answers to emotional problems, which may have a variety of roots. Even in clinical settings, the therapist has to adapt it to the specific troubles of each client. Foss & Reitzel (1991) also suggested that specific techniques for language anxiety need to be adapted to the characteristics of the second language classroom. Moreover, beliefs other than the irrational ones may also be responsible for the SA. Consequently, the author decided to develop the Wang SAR Model based on the REBT. The following basic learning theories have been taken into consideration for the development:

1. Transformative learning (see Section 2.7.1)

This theory is concerned about the reframing of an individual's habits of mind and points of view. Since the dysfunctional beliefs related to SA are part of one's points of view, they are likely to be modified by the strategies for transformative learning. Criticizing existing assumptions (beliefs), a typical strategy for transformative learning, was followed by the present author to develop the Wang SAR Model.

2. Constructivism (see Section 2.7.1)

This theory suggests that knowledge and meanings are generated by previous experience. In developing the Wang SAR Model from the REBT, the selection of the anecdotes, the uses of arguments, as well as the specification of the irrational and

rational beliefs were all based on a consideration of the learners' experience so that learners could construct full understanding of the meanings.

3. Connectionism (see Section 2.7.1)

Connectionism stresses the influence of consequences on behaviors. In developing the Wang SAR Model, this theory was followed in such a way that learners are suggested to set feasible goals and provide self-reinforcement to foster the change of beliefs.

In the development of the Wang SAR Model on the REBT, the following aspects were directly involved:

First, adopting the general concepts of irrational and rational beliefs, and simultaneously specifying those beliefs (showing learners typical examples) related to SA. The specification could help learners to clearly recognize their problematic beliefs and the corresponding healthy substitutes.

Second, developing an additional section. Language anxiety is not only related to irrational beliefs (For example, "It is catastrophic when things are not the way I would like them to be—that is, I cannot speak this language fluently and that is horrible": see Foss & Reitzel, 1991, p. 135), but also related to unfeasible goals (For example, perfectionism is unfeasible: see Section 2.4.2) , which are not discussed in the REBT (Dryden, 2001). To make the Wang SAR Model more effective, an additional section coping with unfeasible goals were developed.

Third, simplifying the procedure for operation. Psycho-education is essential for psychological problems (see section 2.7.2). If the learners are informed of the concept of SA, the seriousness of SA, the roots of SA, and the remedies for SA, they are likely to change their SA. A lecture following an elaborately designed script

seemed adequate to achieve the purpose. Therefore the Wang SAR Model took the form of a specified lecture.

5.2 Components and Logical Steps of the Wang SAR Model

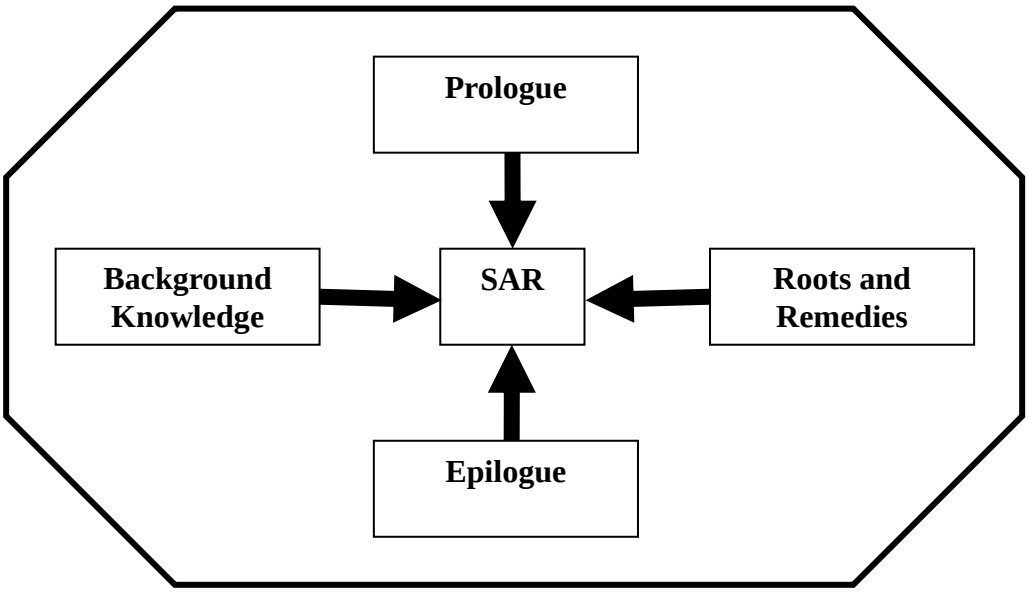


Figure 5.1 Components of the Wang SAR Model

The Wang SAR Model had 4 components (see Figure 5.1): (1) the prologue; (2) the background knowledge; (3) the roots and remedies of SA; and (4) the epilogue. The prologue was intended to introduce the issue of SA and catch the attention of the audience. The background knowledge focused on two topics: the concept of SA and the negative consequences of SA. The purpose of this section was to help the audience not only to recognize the issue of SA, but also to attach great importance to it. The part of roots and remedies of SA included two sub-components: (a) the SA rooted in unfeasible goals and its remedy, and (b) the SA rooted in irrational beliefs

and its remedy. Though the two sub-components seemed similar, both addressing dysfunctional beliefs, they were different: the former attributed the problem to the unfeasibility of the goals, while the latter stressed the roles played by the rigidness of ideas, as well as by the derivatives from the rigidness of ideas. Closing the lecture, the epilogue summarized the discussion covered so far, and provided strategies for the reinforcement of the modification of beliefs.

The logical steps followed by the Wang SAR Model were: (a) presenting the prologue; (b) providing the background knowledge; (c) discussing the roots and remedies; and (d) presenting the epilogue (see Figure 5.2). For the audience, the prologue could arouse the interest in the issue of SA; the background knowledge might stimulate the desire to control SA; the roots and remedies were expected to provide the techniques to control SA; and the epilogue was supposed to provide some strategies for practicing the techniques and preventing the relapse of SA.

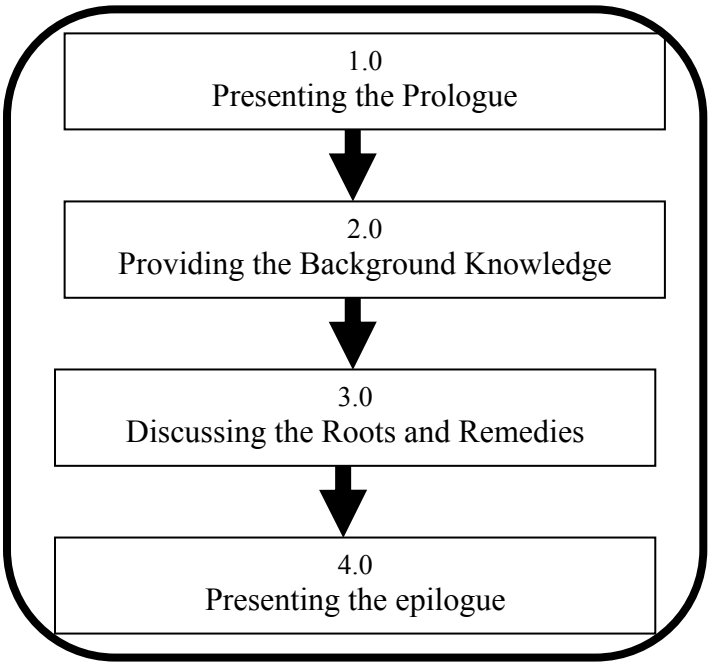


Figure 5.2 Logical Steps of the Wang SAR Model

In the following, each component of the Wang SAR Model is provided, following the logical steps. Each component begins with a brief introduction which is succeeded by a detailed script. The figures mentioned in the script are employed for producing the PowerPoint file accompanying the lecture (omitted in the thesis), and are collectively put in Appendix G for reference.

5.2.1 Prologue

This section provides a contrast of some anecdotes calling for attention: sharply different consequences resulted from extremely similar events. Succeeding the anecdotes is a brief revelation of the deep root— it was the perspective that people took that mattered. Moreover, the relationship of the events with anxiety is pointed out. The prologue ends with a short list of topics to be covered in the whole lecture. The script is:

> Hello everyone. Welcome to the lecture. The topic for today is the roots and remedies of speaking anxiety. The purpose of the lecture is to foster the development of second language skills. First let's examine some anecdotes or facts which call for deep thought.
>
> On March 19, 2008，a 22-year-old graduate in Wuhan, China was found committed suicide in a lake, just because of having been suspected of pirating in his bachelor thesis. Was it worth it? We may feel confused, but it was a logical result for the concerned. Just a few years ago, a professor in Guizhou Normal University discovered his paper being pirated by another professor in Chongqing and prosecuted him, demanding 10 Fen to be paid for the pirating. A great disturb was caused in the academic circle in China. The prosecuted, however, did not commit suicide. Being unable to continue his career in the old place, he came to work in a new university. Why？It was a logical choice for the concerned. There was a high school student, who failed to be admitted by a first level university in 2006, missing only a few points of test score. To realize his dream of entering a first level university, he prepared for another year. In stead of getting any improvement, he did much worse the second time, missing tens of points on the test. The unexpected consequence was to a great extent due to the fact that: during the 3 days of admitting tests in the 2nd year, the student was sleepless every night, feeling too much pressure. Was it necessary to feel so? According to the logic of the student, the high pressure was unavoidable. There are many other students who are not

excellent in the class, but they never feel so much pressure on important tests，and can always show their best. Why? Their behavior is also logic.

According to Epictetus, a stoic philosopher, what troubles people is not an event but the perspective people take to it. We may add another statement: what frees people from troubles is also the perspective people take to an event.

All the anecdotes or facts discussed above are related to the presence or absence of anxiety, which has been triggered by the perspectives taken by the concerned. Today we will talk about the anxiety related to speaking performance, the concept framework of which is applicable to all the above mentioned events. The lecture covers:

- the concept of speaking anxiety;
- the relationships of speaking anxiety to speaking performance;
- the roots and remedies of speaking anxiety.

The principles to be introduced by the lecture can help you to overcome your psychological problems not only related to your speaking performance, but also related to other aspects of your life.

5.2.2 Background Knowledge

1. Concept of SA

To help the audience to recognize SA, this section presents the concept of SA.

The script is:

Now I would like to ask you to introduce yourself to the whole class. Volunteers, please put up your hands. (Wait for a minute). Those who dare not put up their hands are likely to be experiencing anxiety. Anxiety is the apprehension indirectly connected with an object or objective. The anxiety involved in speaking performance is speaking anxiety. The following statements are all symptoms of speaking anxiety (see Figure 1 in Appendix G):

- I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in my English class.
- I start to panic when I have to speak English.
- I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.
- I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.
- I am afraid that I will make grammar mistakes in my speaking.

All those statements signify the presence of speaking anxiety (see Horwitz et al., 1991, p. 32-33).

2. Relationships of SA to Speaking Performance

This section primarily discusses the influences of SA on speaking performance. The pervasiveness of SA and the incompatibility between SA and the College English Objective in China are also tapped. The script is:

Speaking anxiety affects oral communication. It has been discovered that (Djigunović, 2006):

- Anxious students tend to speak with frequent pauses and breaks;
- Anxious students tend to use unnecessary repetitions in their speech;
- Anxious students tend to have many fault starts in their speech;
- With similar proficiency, anxious students achieve lower than non-anxious ones on oral tests.

The influence of speaking anxiety on speaking performance can be demonstrated by a story. The first time being in Moscow, a Russian learner always felt that his Russian was inadequate until one day he unexpectedly found that his Russian was surprisingly fluent. A clerk annoyed him and he quarreled with the clerk. The angrier he was, the more violently he quarreled, and the more fluently he spoke Russian.

The reason was simple. The Russian learner was not worried about the grammar, the pronunciation, the words, and so on in the quarrel. With a freer mind, he could thus speak better.

Anxious individuals divide their attention between task relevant thinking (the thinking indispensable for performing a task, for example, processing the language information in communication) and task irrelevant thinking (the thinking which contributes little to performing the task, for example, the worry about the accent in communication). The efficiency of behavior is reduced as a result of the decreased cognitive resources. Moreover, anxious language learners are less likely to participate in speaking practice, which may result in poor speaking skills, leading to a higher anxiety and a vicious circle (see Figure 2 in Appendix G).

Speaking anxiety is a pervasive phenomenon. In Beijing, more than one-third of university students were discovered experiencing speaking anxiety. In Jiangsu, middle school students were found showing serious speaking anxiety. In Taibei, school pupils were noticed to have speaking anxiety. The newest College English Objective in China is to develop the integrated competency, with particular stresses on speaking and listening skills. Speaking anxiety

thus hinders the realization of the essential section of the College English Objective (see Figure 3 in Appendix G).

5.2.3 Roots and Remedies of SA

This section discusses the two types of roots of SA, as well as the corresponding remedies. Though both types of roots originate from dysfunctional beliefs, they differ in nature: with one stressing the inappropriateness or unfeasibility, while the other the rigidity or extremity.

1. SA Rooted in Unfeasible Goals and Its Remedy

The goal to speak perfectly (perfectionism) is unfeasible, which could easily result in frustration and anxiety. To persuade learners to adapt the unfeasible goals, the step-by-step nature (gradual approximation) of learning a language is explained. The script is:

(1) Goals Are Related to Anxiety：An Analogy

Now let's suppose your goal is to pick peaches. There are peaches at various heights, and the higher ones are the better ones. You are likely to experience anxiety if you force yourself to pick the better ones which are beyond your reach. One of the solutions to the problem is to change your goals, selecting those obtainable. Your best goals are those which are reachable with an effort (see Figure 4 in Appendix G).

(2) Language Is Learnt Step-by-Step

Now let's come to the stages of learning a language. Every language is learnt step by step. Let's take the learning of Chinese as a first language for an instance. "我吃饭" （I have meal）is a simple sentence. But no one is born to speak it. At the early stage of speaking, a normal infant can only pronounce a single word, for example, "饭" (meal). Months later, it can say a two-word sentence, such as "吃饭"(have meal). It cannot say the multiple-word sentence "我吃饭" (I have meal) until much later (see Figure 5 in Appendix G). It is therefore unfeasible to demand a newly-born infant to say "我吃饭" (I have meal).

The learning of English follows a similar sequence. You may begin with the simplest utterance, say, “Hello”. Then you learn something more difficult, such as “Nice to meet you”. Later you learn to use something more complicated, for example, “It is so nice for me to see you” (see Figure 6 in Appendix G).

(3) Anxious Learners’ Goals are Unfeasible

Anxious learners believe that only the perfect or most complicated forms can be used. They force themselves to speak the complex forms, say, “It is so nice for me to see you”, when it is not yet the corresponding stage to do so, similar to the case that a newly-born infant demands itself to say “我吃饭” (I have meal), or an individual demands him-/herself to pick the peaches which are beyond the reach. The unfeasible goals may cause anxiety.

(4) Do Not Despise Simple Forms

By no means should we despise the simple forms of speech. An isolated word may form a sentence, which can be very communicative. Once you are abroad, you would find how useful isolated words are. In the dining hall, if you are thirsty, simply look at the waiter and utter one word “water” and you will be satisfied; if you are hungry, utter the word “rice” and you will get it; if you want to go to the toilet, say the word “W.C”, and you will be guided to it. There is no need to always use standard tenses, moods, or voices in routine communications.

(5) Adapt Your Goals and Have Confidence

To overcome anxiety, please adapt your goals to your present levels. If you can use isolated words, speak them; if you can use phrases, speak them; if you can use complicated structures, speak them. At different levels and stages of development, let’s cherish the same courage and self-confidence (Figure 7 in Appendix G), and we will succeed in grasping the second language sooner or later.

2. SA Rooted in Irrational Beliefs and Its Remedy

Similar to the unfeasibility of goals, irrational beliefs are also responsible for SA. This part first discusses the relationships of beliefs to emotional/behavioral reactions through the A—B—C personality theory. Following it is a case analysis to give the audience a preliminary understanding of irrational beliefs and their substitutes. Subsequently, the discussion is narrowed down to the irrational and

rational beliefs related to classroom language learning. The script is:

> Now let's discuss the second category of causes of anxiety, irrational beliefs. To achieve a better understanding of the relationships between irrational beliefs and anxiety, we have to look at a basic theory which explains the roles of beliefs in our emotional and behavioral reactions to events in our life.
>
> **(1) A—B—C Personality Theory**
>
> Let's suppose you are required by your English teacher to give an oral presentation, and you have the following beliefs:
>
> *I extremely wish to give an excellent oral presentation, but this is not an absolute "must" for me. If I fail to do an excellent job, it is certainly bad, but not the end of the world.*
>
> When you have such beliefs, you are unlikely to experience unduly high anxiety.
>
> Now let's suppose again that you are required by your English teacher to give an oral presentation, and you have the following beliefs:
>
> *I must give an excellent oral presentation. If I fail to do an excellent job, it will be extremely terrible.*
>
> When you have such beliefs, you may have unduly high anxiety, which, in return, are likely to worsen your presentation. The key point here is: when you are faced with the same event, different beliefs result in different emotional and behavioral consequences, as is what the "A—B--C personality theory" is all about.
>
> A-----the activating event, fact, or behavior experienced by an individual;
>
> B----the belief cherished by an individual for "A";
>
> C----the emotional/behavioral consequence.
>
> Usually, people tend to consider that "A" causes "C". Ellis, however, did not think in this way. He insisted that, in most cases, it is the "B" that directly causes the "C" (see Figure 8 in Appendix G).
>
> **(2) Beliefs and Anxiety: A Case Analysis**
>
> What beliefs cause anxiety? According to experts, the stiff, rigid and extreme beliefs, or irrational beliefs are responsible for most of our anxiety (see Figure 9 in Appendix G). The following case analysis can help us get to know how irrational beliefs lead to anxiety.
>
> **a. The case**
>
> A foreign student was studying for a PhD degree in English in America. He felt anxious every time he had a conference with his

supervisor, because he thought that he mustn't make mistakes when speaking English with his supervisor. He thought that mistakes would prove him a stupid person. The more he thought in these ways, the more anxious he felt, and the more mistakes he tended to make (see Figure 10 in Appendix G).

b. What Could Be the Roots of His Troubles?

According to the A—B—C personality theory, irrational beliefs could be the roots. The first belief held by the student was that he mustn't make mistakes when speaking English with his supervisor. This was irrational. Mistakes are unavoidable for anyone speaking any language. Here is a story. A Chinese learner of English ever met an American on an airplane and had a chat with him.

"What's your wife?" asked the Chinese.

"She do not work." answered the American.

"She *do* not work?" repeated the Chinese in surprise.

"No, she do not." answered the American indifferently.

The correct use is "does not", rather than "do not". The Chinese learner had expected native speakers of English to speak perfect English and was surprised at the grammar mistake, while the American was indifferent about it due to its commonness. To further convince yourself, you can make a recording of the speech of your friend in the mother tongue and submit it to language experts for analysis, and you will find how frequent mistakes are. They are so common that we have got used and lost sensitivity to them.

In the above mentioned case, the student's demand that he mustn't make language mistakes was therefore irrational, and caused his anxiety (see Figure 11 in Appendix G).

The second belief held by the student was that making mistakes would prove him a stupid person, which was irrational, too. The intelligence of a person includes many different dimensions. According to Gardner's (1983), there are 7 types of intelligence (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Types of Intelligence

Intelligence type	Capability and perception
Linguistic	words and language
Logical-Mathematical	logic and numbers
Musical	music, sound, rhythm
Bodily-Kinesthetic	body movement control
Spatial-Visual	images and space
Interpersonal	other people's feelings
Intrapersonal	self-awareness

The student in the case selected only speaking performance to depreciate the whole self, having committed the fallacy of judging the whole from a part. This irrational idea was another root of his problem (see Figure 12 in Appendix G).

c. What Could Be the Remedy for His Troubles?

Since anxiety originates from irrational beliefs, substituting rational beliefs for irrational ones can be expected to control or reduce anxiety. Suppose the student's beliefs were changed as: "I prefer not to make mistakes when speaking English with my supervisor, but this is not a 'must'. Mistakes would not prove me a stupid person. It just proves that I am a person capable of making mistakes, and it is on this specific occasion that mistakes have occurred." Would his high anxiety continue to exist? Unlikely (see Figure 13 in Appendix G).

(3) Irrational vs. Rational Beliefs Related to Classroom Speaking Performance

In the second language classroom situations, 4 types of irrational beliefs could exist, according to the REBT theory by Dryden (2001): demands, awfulizing beliefs, low frustration tolerance beliefs, and self-depreciation beliefs, with demands being the cores. Corresponding to the irrational beliefs, there are 4 types of rational substitutes: full preferences, anti-awfulizing beliefs, high frustration tolerance beliefs, and self-acceptance beliefs, with full preferences being the cores (see Figure 14 in Appendix G). The irrational and rational beliefs are to be discussed in pairs.

A. Demands versus Full Preferences

a) Concepts and Rationalities

"Demands are rigid ideas that people hold about how things absolutely must or must not be" (Dryden, 2001, p. 4). For example:

- "I must follow the rules when I speak English";
- "I must speak with standard pronunciation";

● “I must answer the English questions perfectly”;
● “My language teacher must give me positive evaluations”;
● “My friends mustn’t scorn me for my speaking performance”.

Demands like these are irrational and at the very cores of most of our speaking anxiety. According to Dryden (2001), demands can lead to three other types of irrational beliefs, as to be discussed later.

“Full preferences are flexible ideas that people hold about how they would like things to be without demanding that they have to be that way” (Dryden, 2001, p. 4). For example:

● “I want to follow the rules when I speak English, but I don’t have to do so”;
● “I want to speak with standard pronunciation, but it is not a must”;
● “I want to answer the English questions perfectly, but I can answer them imperfectly”;
● “I want my language teacher to give me positive evaluations, but unfortunately he doesn’t have to do so”;
● “I want my friends not to scorn me for my speaking performance, but unfortunately they can scorn me”.

Full preferences like these are rational and at the very cores of most of our healthy psychological responses to events related to speaking performance. According to Dryden (2001), full preferences can lead to three other types of rational beliefs, as to be discussed later.

Why Irrational or Rational: Demands and Full Preferences?

According to Dryden (2001), a full preference has two obvious parts: the “partial preference” (“PP”), and the “denial of demand” (“DD”), both being flexible. For example:

I want to speak correctly (“PP”: flexible), but it is not a must (“DD”: flexible).

A full preference is rational because the flexible “PP” can logically lead to the flexible “DD”

A demand seems to have only one part, but actually it also has two parts, with one logically implied. For example, when you say you must have lunch immediately, others can logically infer that you want to have lunch immediately. The two parts of a demand are: the “implied partial preference” (“IPP”), and “demand” (“D”), with the former being flexible, and the latter inflexible. For example:

(I want to speak correctly (“IPP”: flexible)), so I must speak correctly (“D”).

A demand is irrational because the flexible “IPP” can not logically lead to the inflexible “D”. The discussion can be demonstrated by Figure 15 (see Appendix G).

b) Impacts on Learning

Which are beneficial, and which are detrimental, demands and full preferences?

Demands are *detrimental*. They are unfeasible. Learners holding demands will experience unduly high anxiety in the language classroom, since they are aware of the possible frustrations. To avoid the occurrences of frustrations, they will try all means to avoid speaking in the group, such as escaping the classes, or refusing to volunteer answers. The ultimate result is a failure in learning a language. Full preferences are *beneficial*. On the one hand, full preferences can provide learners with enough motivation to work for the desired result; on the other hand preferences are unlikely to threaten learners with frustrations. Preferences bring about comfortable mind, active class participation, risk-taking in speaking, and ultimate success in learning.

B. Awfulizing Beliefs versus Anti-Awfulizing Beliefs

a) Concepts and Rationalities

"Awfulizing beliefs are extreme ideas that people hold as derivatives from their demands when these demands aren't met" (Dryden, 2001, p. 5). They are irrational. For example:

● "I must follow the rules when I speak English *and it's terrible if I don't"*;

● "I must speak with standard pronunciation *and it's awful if I don't"*;

● "I must answer the English questions perfectly *and it's the end of the world if I don't*";

● "My language teacher must give me positive evaluations *and it's dreadful when he doesn't"*;

● "My friends mustn't scorn me for my speaking performance *and it's fearful when they do*".

Why Are Awfulizing Beliefs Irrational?

An awfulizing belief is extreme. The person believes at the time one or both of the following:

"nothing could be worse" (Dryden, 2001, p. 5);

"no good could possibly come from this bad event"(Dryden, 2001, p. 5).

Both of the ideas are irrational. Robinson's mother ever told her son that from the moment he was born, till he lied in the coffin, nothing in life was not possible to become worse (Nie, 2009, p. 73). Learners with awfulizing beliefs tend to enlarge the seriousness of common things: whatever is unwelcome (undesirable, unsatisfactory, unpleasant, imperfect…) is awful (fearful, dreadful, terrible,

disastrous…). The absolute view of badness is also irrational, according to dialectics. In language learning, we can benefit from our imperfect performance. Experts regard the imperfect second language as an intermediate language, which is different from either the native or the target language (see Figure 16 in Appendix G). Normally, a second language learner will improve his/her intermediate language gradually until it is the same as the target language. The fact that you are speaking imperfectly reflects the truth that you are making progress normally. Even negative reactions from others are beneficial, because they can help you to become aware of the imperfect aspects of your speaking performance.

The healthy substitute for an awfulizing belief is an anti-awfulizing belief.

"Anti-awfulizing beliefs are non-extreme ideas that people hold as derivatives from their full preferences when these full preferences aren't met" (Dryden, 2001, p. 5). They are rational. For example:

● "I want to follow the rules when I speak English, but I don't have to do so, *it's imperfect if I don't follow the rules but not terrible*";

● "I want to speak with standard pronunciation, but it is not a must, *if my pronunciation is not so standard it's undesirable but not awful*";

● "I want to answer the English questions perfectly, but I can answer them imperfectly, *it is unsatisfactory when my answer isn't perfect but not the end of the world*";

● "I want my language teacher to give me positive evaluations, but unfortunately she/he doesn't have to do so, *when my language teacher doesn't give me positive evaluation it's really unfortunate but not dreadful*";

● "I want my friends not to scorn me for my speaking performance, but unfortunately they can scorn me, *it's uncomfortable when they scorn me but not fearful*".

Why are anti-awfulizing beliefs rational?

An anti-awfulizing belief is non-extreme. The person believes at the time one or more of the following :

"things could always be worse" (Dryden, 2001, p. 5);

"good could come from this bad event" (Dryden, 2001, p. 5).

Both of the ideas are rational, because they are in sharp contrast with the irrational ideas cherished by learners with awfulizing beliefs.

b) Impacts on Learning

Which are beneficial, and which are detrimental, awfulizing beliefs and anti-awfulizing beliefs?

In the language classroom, awfulizing beliefs are detrimental. Learners with such beliefs will experience unduly high anxiety because

they can perceive the existence of various "disasters". To avoid the occurrences of the "disasters", the learners with awfulizing beliefs will try all means to avoid speaking in the group, which ultimately will result in failure in learning. Anti-awfulizing beliefs are beneficial. Learners with such beliefs perceive no "disasters" and are free from the corresponding anxiety. They are likely to participate in class interaction, taking risks in speaking, and achieve success in the end.

C. Low Frustration Tolerance Beliefs versus High Frustration Tolerance Beliefs

a) Concepts and Rationalities

"Low frustration tolerance beliefs are extreme ideas that people hold as derivatives from their demands when these demands aren't met" (Dryden, 2001, p. 6). They are irrational. For example:

● "I must follow the rules when I speak English *and I can't bear it if I don't"*;

● "I must speak with standard pronunciation *and it's intolerable if I don't"*;

● "I must answer the English questions perfectly *and I can't stand it if I don't*";

● "My language teacher must give me positive evaluations *and it's unbearable when she/he doesn't"*;

● "My friends mustn't scorn me for my speaking performance *and I can't tolerate it when they do*".

Why are low frustration tolerance beliefs irrational?

A low frustration tolerance belief is extreme. The person believes at the time one or both of the following:

"I will die or disintegrate if the frustration or discomfort continues to exist" (Dryden, 2001, p. 6);

"I will lose the capacity to experience happiness if the frustration or discomfort continues to exist" (Dryden, 2001, p. 6).

Both ideas are irrational. In the learning of a second language, rarely have any cases been reported that a learner died, became spiritually disintegrated, or lost the capacity to experience happiness merely due to an imperfect speaking performance or the negative reactions from others to the imperfect speaking performance. Even an individual claims he/she cannot tolerate a certain event, he/she is actually tolerating it when the event has occurred. Learners with low frustration tolerance beliefs tend to consider whatever hard/unpleasant/uncomfortable to tolerate to be intolerable.

The healthy substitute for a low frustration tolerance belief is a high frustration tolerance belief.

"High frustration tolerance beliefs are non-extreme ideas that people hold as derivatives from their full preferences when these full preference aren't met" (Dryden, 2001, p. 6). They are rational. For example:

● "I want to follow the rules when I speak English, but I don't have to do so, *when I don't follow the rules it's uncomfortable to bear but I can bear it and it's worth bearing*";

● "I want to speak with standard pronunciation, but it is not a must, *when my pronunciation is not so standard it's really unpleasant to tolerate but I can tolerate it and it's worth it to me to do so*";

● "I want to answer the English questions perfectly, but I can answer them imperfectly, *it is not nice to stand when my answer isn't perfect but I can stand it and it's to my best interests to do so*";

● "I want my language teacher to give me positive evaluations, but unfortunately she/he doesn't have to do so, *when my language teacher doesn't give me positive evaluations it's really disagreeable to bear but I can bear it and I can benefit from bearing it*";

● "I want my friends not to scorn me for my speaking performance, but unfortunately they can scorn me, *it's indeed hard to tolerate when they scorn me but I can tolerate it and it does me good to tolerate it*".

Why are high frustration tolerance beliefs rational?

A high frustration tolerance is non-extreme. The person believes at the time one or more of the following:

"I will struggle if the frustration or discomfort continues to exist, but I will neither die nor disintegrate" (Dryden, 2001, p. 6);

"I will not lose the capacity to experience happiness if the frustration or discomfort continues to exist, although this capacity will be temporarily diminished" (Dryden, 2001, p. 6);

"the frustration or discomfort is worth tolerating" (Dryden, 2001, p. 6).

All those ideas are rational，because they are in sharp contrast with the irrational ideas cherished by learners with low frustration tolerance beliefs. High tolerance does not mean without attempt to change the situation. On the contrary, it suggests that a learner will improve his /her performance gradually without being annoyed by temporary imperfection. Moreover, the imperfection is worth tolerating, because the learner can benefit from it in one way or another.

b) Impacts on Learning

Which are beneficial, and which are detrimental, low frustration tolerance beliefs and high frustration tolerance beliefs?

Low frustration tolerance beliefs are detrimental. When learners believe that they can not tolerate the imperfect speaking

performances or the possible negative reactions to their performances from others (some of which may only be their personal illusions), they will experience unduly high anxiety because those events are unavoidable in language classes. To prevent the occurrences of those events, they may try various means such as escaping language classes, refusing to participate in interactions or volunteer speaking, which may ultimately result in failure in learning a language. High frustration tolerance beliefs result in a peaceful mind, active class participation, and risk-taking in using the unfamiliar target language. Just as a driver can keep going in the right direction with reference to the outside world, learners who are tolerant of negative feedbacks as well as positive ones can achieve a better understanding of their weakness and strength so as to adapt their learning behaviors timely and avoid going in the wrong direction. High frustration tolerance beliefs may bring about a high efficiency of learning and the ultimate success in grasping the new language.

D. Self-Depreciation Beliefs versus Self-Acceptance Beliefs

a) Concepts and Rationalities

Self-depreciation beliefs are extreme ideas about oneself that people hold as derivatives from their demands when these demands aren't met. They are irrational (Dryden, 2001). For example:

● "I must follow the rules when I speak English *and it proves me a stupid learner if I don't"*;

● "I must speak with standard pronunciation *and it suggests my language aptitude being low if I don't"*;

● "I must answer the English questions perfectly *and it means I'm a poor student if I don't*";

● "I must get positive evaluations from my language teacher *and it indicates that I'm valueless when I don't"*;

● "I mustn't be scorned by my friends for my speaking performance *and it proves me a fool when I am scorned*".

Why are self-depreciation beliefs irrational?

A self-depreciation belief is extreme. The person believes at the time one or more of the following:

"a person can legitimately be given a single global rating that defines their essence and one's *worth is dependent upon conditions that change*" (Dryden, 2001, p. 7) (For example: My worth goes up when I perform well, and goes down when I don't);

"you can legitimately rate a person on the basis of his or her discrete aspects"(Dryden, 2001, p. 7).

A self-depreciation belief is irrational. Firstly, an individual is a complicated whole, possessing many different aspects. If we use the lower case "i " for part of the self , and the upper case "I " for the whole self, then the upper case "I" contains many lower case "i", but

the lower "i" does not equal the upper "I". The upper "I" can not be judged from a lower "i" (see Figure 17 in Appendix G). Secondly, one's performance is dependent on conditions, but one's worth is stable. The stable worth cannot be evaluated by the changing performance. Self-depreciating beliefs are fallible because they define the whole self by part of the self, and evaluate the stable essence of a person by the changing conditions.

The healthy substitute for a self-depreciation belief is a self-acceptance belief.

Self-acceptance beliefs are non-extreme ideas that people hold about themselves as derivatives from their full preferences when these full preferences aren't met (Dryden, 2001). They are rational. For example:

● "I want to follow the rules when I speak English, but I don't have to do so, *if I don't follow the rules it doesn't prove me a stupid learner and I'm only a person, like everyone else, possible to fail to follow the rules in speaking performance*";

● "I want to speak with standard pronunciation, but it is not a must, *if my pronunciation is not so standard it doesn't suggest my language aptitude being low and it just means that my pronunciation is not perfect in the present stage of my learning*";

● "I want to answer the English questions perfectly, but I can answer them imperfectly, *when my answer isn't perfect it does mean I'm a poor student and I am just a person, like everyone else, is possible to fail to answer questions perfectly*";

● "I want to get positive evaluations from my language teacher but it's not a must, *when I don't it doesn't indicate that I'm valueless since I can get positive evaluations on other occasions*";

● "I want my friends not to scorn me for my speaking performance but unfortunately they can scorn me, *it doesn't prove me a fool when I'm scorned and I can be admired on other occasions*".

Why are self-acceptance beliefs rational?

A self-acceptance belief is non-extreme. The person believes at the time one or more of the following:

"a person cannot legitimately be given a single global rating that defines one's essence". "One's worth is not dependent upon conditions that change" (Dryden, 2001, p. 7) (For example: My value remains the same however I perform);

it makes sense to rate discrete aspects of a person, but it does not make sense to rate a person on the basis of these discrete aspects (Dryden, 2001) .

The self-acceptance beliefs are rational due to the sharp contrast with the self-depreciating beliefs.

b) Impacts on Learning

Which are beneficial, and which are detrimental, self depreciation beliefs and self-acceptance?

Self-depreciation beliefs are detrimental. In the language classroom speaking performance is seldom perfect, and negative reactions to the performance from others may exist (some of which are only one's illusions). Learners with such beliefs will experience unduly high anxiety because their personal values are always likely to be threatened in their perception. To protect their personal values, those learners will try all means to avoid classroom interactions, which ultimately leads to a failure in learning a language. Self-acceptance beliefs, on the contrary, will bring about a peaceful mind, active participation and success in learning.

5.2.4 Epilogue

This is the last section of the Wang SAR Model. It provides some strategies to help learners to modify their dysfunctional beliefs. The script is:

Now that you have got a full understanding of the issue of speaking anxiety, the next step is to control it and change your destructive behavior in the language class. You have to select appropriate goals or criteria for your performance. If you can use isolated words, speak them. If you can use phrases, speak them. If you can use simple sentences, speak them. If you can use complicated structures, speak them. You can benefit from whatever you speak. It is reasonable for you to prefer the excellent performances, but never rigidly demand them. There is no need to worry about imperfect performances. Tell yourself to tolerate temporary defects, and do not depreciate yourself for the imperfect performances.

In the English class, set your emotional goals, such as: "I will feel relaxed, free, comfortable, and happy", etc. Then set your behavioral goals, such as: "I will make full use of the chances to speak English, I will volunteer answering questions", etc. Your behavioral goals should gradually become greater and more ambitious. For example, you can ask yourself to volunteer English answers in the class once in the first week, twice in the second week, and so on. At the beginning, you may try to answer questions with preparation, later without preparation, and still later in front of the whole class. When you can speak comfortably in the class, try to speak on other unfamiliar, formal occasions, such as oral English contests. Regularly, you should reflect your progress. When you are satisfied with it, give yourself reinforcement, such as treating yourself with a fine dinner, having a relaxation in a park, going sight-seeing, etc. You will be greatly rewarded from you attempt in the long run.

That's the end of the lecture. Thank you.

5.3 Summary

The Wang SAR Model was developed from the REBT, a typical type of CR. The development was based on basic learning theories. In the model, two types of roots of SA were introduced: one was related to unfeasible goals, and the other to irrational beliefs. Four classes of irrational beliefs were discussed: demands, awfulizing beliefs, low frustration tolerance beliefs and self-depreciation beliefs. Corresponding to the roots of SA, feasible goals were suggested, and four classes of rational beliefs were presented, including full preferences, anti-awfulizing beliefs, high frustration tolerance beliefs, and self-acceptance beliefs. Strategies for overcoming the emotional and behavioral reactions related to SA were recommended.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This is the last chapter, which primarily presents the conclusion and pedagogical implications of the study. The conclusion centers on the answers to the research questions. The pedagogical implications indicate the inferences drawn from the study which may benefit second language teaching and learning. In addition, recommendations for future studies are also briefly listed at the end of the chapter.

6.1 Conclusion of the Study

The present study investigated the extent of SA experienced by the research population. The relationships of SA to the TA, UTC (UTCA, UTCR), LA, SSE, LCR, as well as LCS were examined from various perspectives. For the control of SA, the Wang SAR Model was developed on the basis of the REBT and tested in an experiment. A survey of 240 participants was involved in the investigation of the extent of SA, 103 in the exploration of the relationships of the SA to other relevant variables, and an experiment with 32 participants was conducted for the test of the effects of the Wang SAR Model. The instruments employed included a series of rating scales and the criteria for assessing the speaking performance (including the total number of words in CUs, the number of dependent clauses, and the percent of total number of words in mazes). The scales and criteria could be accepted as valid

because they were all adapted or adopted from instruments employed by researchers in situations similar to the present one, and were approved by Chinese experts after examination. They could be considered as reliable due to the satisfactory or acceptable values of the coefficient Alpha, and inter-rater correlations. The data were submitted to descriptive as well as inferential statistical analyses. The results support the following conclusion:

(1) The SA experienced by the learners was alarming, as can be seen by the mean and the distribution. The mean yielded in the present study suggested a moderate level of SA. Approximately half of the learners' levels of SA fell in the moderate or high interval. In terms of gender, neither the mean nor the distribution of the levels of SA differed significantly.

(2) Complicated relationships existed between SA and the other variables. In terms of correlation, SA was positively correlated with TA, UTC, UTCA, as well as UTCR, and negatively with the LA, SSE, LCR, as well as LCS. In terms of prediction, The SA could be significantly predicted by the UTCA, LCR, and the LA. In terms of causal relationships, the SA seemed to be influenced by the TA as well as UTCA, and it could further influence LCR as well as LCS. The LA and SA had mutual influences.

(3) The Wang SAR Model, developed on the REBT, was capable of reducing SA/SAstate and improving speaking performance (increasing the total number of words in CUs). The effects of the Wang SAR Model on SA/SAstate and speaking performance did not differ significantly in terms of gender.

6.2 Pedagogical Implications

The levels of SA experienced by the learners were relatively high and deserved the attention of language teachers. Since SA has negative effects on speaking performance, it is urgent to control the levels of SA. The following strategies can be tried by language teachers:

(1) Identify and predict individuals who have or are liable to have a high level of SA based on the correlates and predictors, the best of which are the UTCA, LCR, and LA. Those constructs could be gradually discerned by the language teacher as he/she get familiar with the learners. With the help of the information on those constructs, the teacher can well identify and predict learners suffering from SA.

(2) Create a cheering atmosphere in the language classroom, because the mood dimension of trait anxiety (TA) was found to have an indirect influence on the SA (see Figure 4.4, 4.5). If the learners feel happy, pleasant, secure, satisfied, and contented (low TA), they are likely to experience low SA in the language classroom. Happy learners seem to be comfortable learners. Crookall & Oxford (1991, p. 142) suggested that teachers can “improve the classroom climate through the use of pair work, small-group work, games, simulations, and structured exercises that alter the communication pattern of the classroom”. The teacher can also make the language learning an interesting and enjoyable experience by skillful uses of information technology such as the internet or multimedia techniques.

(3) Control or reduce the UTCA. The UTCA was discovered to have a direct and most important effect on the SA of all the variables involved in the present study (see Figure 4.4, 4.5). The UTCA signifies the degree to which learners experience communication apprehension (CA), which may have its root in beliefs (see Figure

4.7), history of reinforcement or punishment, skill acquisition, and situation factors (Daly, 1991). The following precautions can be taken to weaken the UTCA (the changing of beliefs is discussed in “4.”):

Firstly, give learners consistent reward or positive reinforcement for their speaking performance. According to the S—R learning theories (Brahmawong, 2006), positive reinforcement following responses can promote behavior. If an individual’s attempt to communicate is repeatedly greeted with positive reinforcement/reward, he/she is less likely to feel anxious about communication. In other words, positive reinforcement/reward could bring down UTCA and consequently reduce SA.

Secondly, provide learners sufficient chances for speaking, especially in formal, new or conspicuous situations, which are likely to cause higher apprehension of speaking. Practice serves two purposes: developing the speaking skill, and helping learners to become desensitized to those situations, both of which are likely to reduce the UTCA and consequently lessen the SA.

(4) Help learners to improve their language achievement (LA). Poor learning is a source of language anxiety, because it is directly related to the high probability of failure in performance, which may further cause negative evaluations from others or oneself. Fear of negative evaluation is one of the three components of language anxiety suggested by Horwitz et al. (1991). Whatever approaches effective for improving language achievement are beneficial for reducing SA. Strategies such as strengthening the learners’ motivation, increasing their self confidence, improving the efficiency of teaching and learning, taking good care of individual differences, etc., are all likely to improve the language achievement, and consequently reduce the SA. According to the field theory (Brahmawong, 2006), language teachers can enhance

learning by creating a need for the learners, engaging them in active learning, involving them in appropriate environment.

(5) Help learners to modify their inappropriate beliefs, because beliefs are related to UTCA or SA. The modification of beliefs involves transformative or deep learning (see Section 2.7.1). The learners' existing assumptions and meaning schemes, if inappropriate or irrational, need to be criticized and challenged so as to bring about a reframing of their meaning perspective. Perfectionism (the unfeasibility of goals), and the rigid demands about perfectionism (irrational beliefs) are the two types of roots of psychological problems related to speaking performance. Rigid demands may lead to a series of other irrational beliefs and problems. To overcome those problems, language teachers can follow the concept framework of REBT and develop their own versions of speaking anxiety reduction models. Educationists can publish standardized models in the form of CD (Compact Disk) to save the work of language teachers.

6.3 Recommendations

The present study focused on the anxiety related to speaking performance. There could be anxiety related to other language skills, such as listening, reading, or writing, which is in need of exploration by future studies. Moreover, the language anxiety experienced by different populations, such as primary school learners, middle school learners, high school students, undergraduates, postgraduates, etc, may differ greatly. Future research with different populations could be expected to yield new findings about language anxiety. Except the variables tapped in the present study, language anxiety could be related to many other variables involved in the process of learning and teaching, which deserve the attention of researchers. For the specific

remedies of language anxiety, the present study only tested a model developed from the REBT. Other techniques, such as SD, modeling, and RE are still in need of adaptation and empirical study.

6.4 Summary

The present study touched various aspects of speaking related anxiety, and the effects of a remedy developed on the REBT. The extent of SA seemed to be worth the concern of language teachers. To control or reduce SA, the influencing factors such as TA, UTCA, LA, as well as the problematic beliefs need to be taken into consideration. Due to the limited financial and economic resources, the study had its limitations with regard to the validity and reliability. It is expected that future investigations could probe wider and deeper on the topic related to language anxiety.

REFERENCES

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *Modern Language Journal*. 78: 155-168.

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

Arnold, N. (2007). Reducing foreign language communication apprehension with computer-mediated communication: A preliminary study. *System*. 35: 469-486.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Razavieh, A., & Sorensen, C. (2006). *Introduction to research in education (7th. ed.).* California: Thomson Wadsworth.

Bailey, K. M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Ed.), *Classroom oriented research* (pp. 67-103). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Bedford, R. (2006). *How to get rid of emotional problems, phobias, nervous disorders and social anxieties forever*. [On Line] Available: www.rebeccabedford.com/AnalyticalHypnotherapy.html.

Burgoon, J. K. (1976). The unwillingness-to-communicate scale: Development and validation. *Communication Monographs*. 43: 60–69.

Brahmawong, C. (2006). VEBA: A virtual experience-based approach for graduate study in eLearning. *Special Issue of the International Journal of the Computer, the Internet and Management*. 14 No.SP1.

Chan, Y., & Wu, G. (2004). A study of foreign language anxiety of EFL elementary school students in Taipei County. *Journal of National Taipei Teachers College*. 17 (1): 287-320.

Chang, G. B. Y. (1996). A study of anxiety in Chinese EFL learners. *Teaching & Research*. 18: 67-90.

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

Chen, Q. & Liu, D. (1997). *Contemporary educational psychology*. Beijing: Beijing Normal University Press.

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

Clément, R. (1980). Ethnicity, contact, and communication competence in a second language. In H. Giles, W. P. Robinson & P. M. Smith (Ed.), *Language: Social psychological perspectives: Selected papers from the first international conference on social psychology and language held at the University of Bristol, England*, *July 1979* (pp. 147–154). New York: Pergamon Press.

Crookall, D., & Oxford, R. (1991). Dealing with anxiety: Some practical activities for language learners and teacher trainees. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp.141-150). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Daly, J. (1991). Understanding communication apprehension: an introduction for language educators. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 3-13). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Djigunović, J. M. (2006). Language anxiety and language processing. *EUROSLA Yearbook.* 6: 191-212.

Dryden, W. (2001). *Reason to change: A rational emotive behaviour therapy (REBT) workbook*. Hove: Brunner/Routledge.

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

Ely, C. M. (1986). An analysis of discomfort, risk-taking, sociability, and motivation in the L2 classroom. *Language Learning*. 36: 1–25.

Foss, K. A., & Reitzel, A. C. (1991). A relational model for managing second language anxiety. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety*: *From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 129–140). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Frankfort-Nachmias, C., & Nachmias, D. (1996). *Research methods in social science*. London: Arnold.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basik Books

Gardner，R. C., Tremblay，P. F., & Masgoret, A. (1997). Towards a full model of second language learning: an empirical investigation. *Modern Language Journal*. 81: 344–362.

Horwitz E. (1991). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety Scale. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 37-40). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Horwitz, E. K. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. 21: 112–126.

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

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope J. A. (1991). Foreign language classroom anxiety. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 27-36). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hou, Y. (2004). The causes of communication apprehension and the ways to tackle them. *Journal of Baoding Teacher's College*. 17 (1): 106-108.

Jones, J. F. (2004). A cultural context for language anxiety. *English Australia Journal.* 21(2): 30-39.

Jones, S. M. (2002). *The influence of native language on the treatment of language anxiety among an English-as-a-second-language-speaking population*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Wisconsin – Milwaukee. Available from: UMI ProQuest Digital Dissertation. Publication Number: AAT 3062755.

Kitano, K. (2001). Anxiety in the college Japanese language classroom. *Modern Language Journal*. 85: 549–566.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon.

Lewin, K. (1951) *Field theory in social science: Selected theoretical papers*. D. Cartwright. New York: Harper & Row.

Liu, M. (2006). Anxiety in Chinese EFL students at different proficiency levels. *System*. 34(3): 301-316.

Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal.* 92(1): 71-86.

Machida, S. (2001). Test anxiety in Japanese-language class oral examinations. *Sekai no Nihongo Kyoiku*. 11: 115–138.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1995). How does anxiety affect second language learning? A reply to Sparks and Ganshow. *The Modern Language Journal*. 79(1): 90-99.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In: D. Y. 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., Baker S. C., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2002). Sex and age effects on willingness to communicate, anxiety, perceived competence, and L2 motivation among junior high school French immersion students. *Language Learning*. 52(3): 537–564.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*. 15: 3-26.

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

MacIntyre, P. D & Gardner, R. C (1991a). Anxiety and Second Language Learning: Toward a Theoretical Clarification. In E. K. Horwitz, & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 41-53). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (l99lb). Language anxiety: Its relation to other anxieties and to processing in native and second languages. *Language Learning*. 41: 513-534.

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

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

MacIntyre, P. D., Noels K. A., & Clément, R. (1997). Biases in self-ratings of second language proficiency: the role of language anxiety. *Language Learning*. 47: 265–287.

Madsen, H. S., Brown, B. L., & Jones, R. L. (1991). Evaluating student attitudes toward second-language tests. In E. K. Horwitz, & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 65-86). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Matsuda, S., & Gobel, P. (2004). Anxiety and predictors of performance in the foreign language classroom. *System*. 32(1): 21-36.

Mejías, H., Applebaum, R. L., Applebaum S. J., & Trotter, R. T. (1991). Oral communication apprehension and Hispanics: an exploration of oral communication apprehension among Mexican American students in Texas. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 87–97). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Mercer, S. (2008). Learner self-beliefs. *ELT Journal*. 62(2): 182-183.

Mertens, D. M. (1998). *Research methods in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with qualitative and quantitative approaches*. California: Sage Publications.

Mezirow, J. (1975). *Education for perspective transformation: Women's re-entry programs in community colleges*. New York: Centre for Adult Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Mezirow, J. (1991). *Transformative dimensions of adult learning*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J. (2000). Learning to think like an adult: Core concepts of transformation theory. In J. Mezirow & Associates(Ed.), *Learning as transformation* (pp. 3-33). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Nei, J. (2009). *Reason to change: A rational emotive behavioral therapy [REBT] workbook*. Beijing: China Light Industry Press.

Ohata, K. (2005). Potential sources of anxiety for Japanese learners of English: Preliminary case interviews with five Japanese college students in the U.S. *TESL-EJ*. 9(3): 1–21.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Bailey, P., & Daley, C. E. (2001). Cognitive, affective, personality, and demographic predictors of foreign language achievement. *Journal of Educational Research*. 94: 3-15.

Peng, D. (2001). *General psychology*. Beijing: Beiing Normal University Press.

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

Price, M. L. (1991). The subjective experiences of foreign language anxiety: Interviews with anxious students. In E. K. Horwitz & D, J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 101-108). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Rasid, Z., & Parish, T. S. (1998). The effects of two types of relaxation training on students' levels of anxiety. *Adolescence*. 33: 99-101.

Schwarz, R. L. (1997). *Learning disabilities and foreign language learning*. [On Line] Available: www.ldonline.org/article/6065.

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

Scovel, T. (1991). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. In E. K. Horwitz, & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 15-23). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Snyder, C. R., & Ray, W. J. (1971). Observed body movement in the college test-taking situation and the Scholastic Aptitude Test. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*. 32: 265-266.

Sparks, R. L., & Ganschow, L. (2007). Is the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale Measuring Anxiety or Language Skills? *Foreign Language Annals*. 40 (2): 260-287.

Spielberger, C. D. (1983). *Manual for the state-trait anxiety inventory (STAI-Form Y)*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Steinberg, F. S., & Horwitz, E. K. (1986). The effect of induced anxiety on the denotative and interpretive content of second language speech. *TESOL Quarterly*. 20: 131–136.

Swain, M., & Burnaby, B. (1976). Personality characteristics and second language learning in young children: A pilot study. *Working Papers in Bilingualism*. 11: 115-128.

Tang, Z., & Li, M. (2008). *Theories of counseling and psychotherapy: A multicultural perspective*. Beijing: Beijing World publishing Corporation.

Tian, B., (2001). *A study on the pattern of effects of anxiety on test achievement of high school students and the coping strategies*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Capital Normal University. Available from: China National Knowledge Infrastructure. Publication Number: CDMD:1.2001.001531.

Tiono, N. I., & Sylvia, A. (2004). *The types of communication strategies used by speaking class students with different communication apprehension levels in English department of Petra Christian University, Surabaya*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Petra Christian University. Available from: ProQuest Humanities Module database. Document ID: 967699201).

Tucker, R., Hamayan, E., & Genesee, F. H. (1976). Affective, cognitive, and social factors in second language aquisition. *Canadian Modern Language Review*. 32: 214-226.

Wei, M. (2007). The interrelatedness of affective factors in EFL learning: An examination of motivational patterns in relation to anxiety in China. *TESL-EJ*. 11(1): 1-23.

Wilson, J. S. (2006). *Anxiety in learning English as a foreign language: its associations with student variables, with overall proficiency, and with performance on an oral test*. **[On Line] Available:** http://hera.ugr.es/tesisugr/16235290.pdf.

Woodrow, L. J. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *Regional Language Centre Journal*. 37(3): 308-328.

Wright, J. H. (2006). Cognitive behavior therapy: Basic principles and recent advances. *Focus*. 4(2): 173-178.

Xing, J. (2007). Language anxiety and corresponding strategies in college English class. *Journal of Lishui University*. 29(6): 118-120.

Young, D. J. (1986). The relationship between anxiety and foreign language oral proficiency ratings. *Foreign Language Annals*. 19: 439-45

Young, D. J. (1991a). The relationship between anxiety and foreign language oral proficiency ratings. In E. K. Horwitz, & D. J. Young (Ed.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 57-64). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Young, D. J. (1991b). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does the language anxiety research suggest? *Modern Language Journal*. 75: 425-439.

Zhang, X., Yang, L., Liang, B., Wang, Z., & Shao X. (2008). Self-esteem as a mediator of the link between perfectionism and depression. *Studies of Psychology and Behavior*. 6(3): 217-222.

Zheng, Y. (2008). Anxiety and second/foreign language learning revisited. *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*. 1(1): 1-12.

APPENDIX A

Speaking Anxiety Scale (English and Chinese)

（For research only. Please provide all the required information, including name）

Name_____ Gender (male, female) Age___

Directions: The statements listed below are frequently employed by English learners to describe themselves. Please read each sentence and select the choices according to your usual feelings. There are no right or wrong answers. Don't spend too much time on one item, your first impression is enough to help you to make the best choice (selecting with √).

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

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

2. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

3. I do not worry about making mistakes in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

4. I start to panic when I have to speak English without preparation in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

5. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in English in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

6. I feel confident when I speak English in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

7. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

8. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

9. I feel relaxed when I am speaking English in the class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

10. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

11. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

12. I feel relaxed when the English teacher asks questions that I have not prepared for in advance.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

13. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

14. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

15. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

口语焦虑量表

（仅供研究，请如实填写各项，包括姓名）

姓名_____ 性别（男，女） 年龄____

指导语：下面列出的是一些英语学习者常常用来描述自己的句子，请阅读每一个句子，根据自己通常的感觉进行选择。回答没有优劣或对错之分，关键是符合实际。对每一陈述，无需反复思考，请凭第一印象作答。每个题都要做出选择（画勾“√”）。

1．英语课上说英语时，我从来**没有**信心十足的感觉。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

2．英语课上，当我知道自己要被老师提问时感到发抖。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

3．我**不**担忧英语课上犯错误。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

4．英语课上，在毫无准备的情况下需要说英语时，我开始感到惊慌。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

5．英语课上，主动举手发言我觉得不好意思。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

6．我在英语课上说英语时，感到自信。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

7．英语课上，当我自己要被老师提问时，我感到心在怦怦直跳。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

8. 我总是觉得其他同学英语说得比我好。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

9. 在班上说英语时，我感觉很轻松。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

10. 说英语要遵循那么多规则，真是压倒人。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

11．在其他同学面前说英语，我觉得害羞、不自然。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

12. 在毫无准备情况下被英语老师提问，我感到自然、放松。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

13. 说英语时，我总害怕别的同学嘲笑我。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

14. 我担心老师时刻都会纠正我的各种口语错误。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

15．与英语为母语的人交谈时，我不会感到紧张。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire on Disposition and Learning

(English and Chinese)

（For research only. Please provide all the required information, including name）

Name_____ Gender：male, female （select √） Age___

Directions: The statements listed below are frequently employed by students to describe themselves. Please read each sentence and select the choices according to your usual feelings. There are no right or wrong answers. Don't spend too much time on one item, but your choices should best match your usual feelings. Do not miss any items (select with √).

Part 1 General Disposition

(I)

1. I feel pleasant……... (Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)
2. I feel satisfied with myself…. …..(Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)
3. I feel rested……(Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)
4. I am "calm, cool, and collected."……(Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)
5. I am happy…….……(Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)
6. I lack self-confidence……(Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)
7. I feel secure……...(Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)
8. I make decisions easily……..(Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)
9. I am content……...(Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)
10. I am a steady person……(Not at all, Somewhat, Moderately, Very Much)

(II)

1. I'm afraid to speak up in conversations.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

2. I talk less because I'm shy.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

3. I talk a lot because I am not shy.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

4. I like to get involved in group discussions.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

5. I feel nervous when I have to speak to others.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

6. I have no fears about expressing myself in a group.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

7. I am afraid to express myself in a group.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

8. I avoid group discussions.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

9. During a conversation, I prefer to talk rather than listen.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

10. I find it easy to make conversation with strangers.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

11. I don't think my friends are honest in their communication with me.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

12. My friends and family don't listen to my ideas and suggestions.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

13. I think my friends are truthful with me.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

14. I don't ask for advice from family or friends when I have to make decisions.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

15. I believe my friends and family understand my feelings.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

16. My family doesn't enjoy discussing my interests and activities with me.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

17. My friends and family listen to my ideas and suggestions.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

18. My friends seek my opinions and advice.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

19. Other people are friendly only because they want something out of me.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

20. Talking to other people is just a waste of time.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

Part 2 English Learning Disposition

(I)

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

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

2. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

3. I do not worry about making mistakes in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

4. I start to panic when I have to speak English without preparation in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

5. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in English in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

6. I feel confident when I speak English in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

7. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in my English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

8. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

9. I feel relaxed when I am speaking English in the class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

10. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

11. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

12. I feel relaxed when the English teacher asks questions that I have not prepared for in advance.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

13. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

14. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

15. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

(II)

1. I like to wait until I know exactly how to use an English word before using it.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

2. I don't like trying out a difficult sentence in class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

3. At this point, I don't like trying to express complicated ideas in English in class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

4. I prefer to say what I want in English without worrying about the small details of grammar.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

5. In class, I prefer to say a sentence to myself before I speak it.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

6. I prefer to follow basic sentence models rather than risk misusing the language.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

7. I think learning English in a group is more fun than learning on my own.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

8. I enjoy talking with the teacher and other students in English.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

9. I enjoy interacting with the other students in the English class.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

10. I think it's important to have a strong group spirit in the English classroom.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

11. I'd like more class activities where students use English to get to know each other better.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

12. My English score on college entrance test was___.

Part 3 Speaking Self-Efficacy

(Here are some statements for self-evaluation of English skills, with "1" for the lowest rating, "5" for the highest. Please select the rating best match your real level on each dimension described by the statements.)

Statement	Self-rating (√)
1. I can answer class questions, and use common words/structures to discuss given topics in English.	1，2，3，4，5
2. I can introduce myself/classmates/friends, and response to the introduction of others in English.	1，2，3，4，5
3. I can show others the way/do shopping/ writing messages/applications in English.	1，2，3，4，5
4. I can report time/asking prices/answering phone numbers in English.	1，2，3，4，5
5. I can have simple conversations on routine topics with native speakers of English.	1，2，3，4，5
6. I can use basic strategies of conversation, such as beginning/ continuing/ending a talk, and requesting repetitions/slowing down.	1，2，3，4，5
7. The integrated level of my speaking skill is:	1，2，3，4，5

心理与学习调查问卷

（请如实填写各项，包括姓名）

姓名_____；性别：男 女（√选）；年龄____

指导语：下面列出的是一些同学们常常用来描述自己的句子，请阅读每一个句子，然后根据自己通常的感觉进行选择。回答没有对、错、优、劣之分，不要对任何一个句子花太多的时间去考虑，但做出的选择，应最符合你通常的感觉。注意每个题都要做出选择（画勾"√"）。

第一部分 普通心理

（一）

1. 我通常感到愉快。----------(没有， 有点， 中度，非常)
2. 我通常感到自我满意。----------(没有， 有点， 中度，非常)
3. 我感到精力充沛。----------(没有， 有点， 中度，非常)
4. 我通常是冷静、镇定和泰然的。----------(没有， 有点， 中度，非常)
5. 我通常是高兴的。---------- (没有， 有点， 中度，非常)
6. 我缺乏自信心。---------- (没有， 有点， 中度，非常)
7. 我感到安全。---------- (没有， 有点， 中度，非常)
8. 我容易做出决断。----------(没有， 有点， 中度，非常)
9. 我通常感到心满意足。----------(没有， 有点， 中度，非常)
10. 我是一个稳重的人。----------(没有， 有点， 中度，非常)

（二）

1. 在交谈中，我不敢畅说欲言。

   (A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

2. 我不爱说话，因为我害羞。

   (A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

3. 我爱说话，因为我不害羞。

   (A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

4. 我喜欢卷入集体讨论。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

5. 当我需要和别人说话时，我感到紧张。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

6. 在群体中表达个人观点，我不害怕。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

7. 在群体中表达个人观点，我感到害怕。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

8. 我回避群体讨论。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

9. 在会话过程中，我喜欢说，而不是喜欢听。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

10. 和陌生人讲话，我觉得轻松。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

11. 在和我沟通时，我认为我的朋友缺乏真诚性。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

12. 我的朋友和家人不听我的主意和建议。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

13. 我认为我的朋友对我真诚。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

14. 需要做出决定时，我不向家人或朋友征求意见。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

15. 我相信，我的家人和朋友理解我的情感。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

16. 我的家人不喜欢和我一起讨论我的兴趣和活动。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

17. 我的朋友和家人能够听进我的主意和建议。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

18. 我的朋友征求我的意见和建议。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

19. 别人对我友好，只是因为他们想从我这里得到什么。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

20. 和别人谈话浪费时间，没有什么意义。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

第二部分 英语学习心理

（一）

1．英语课上说英语时，我从来没有信心十足的感觉。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

2．英语课上，当我知道自己要被老师提问时感到发抖。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

3．我不担忧英语课上犯错误。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

4．英语课上，在毫无准备的情况下需要说英语时，我开始感到惊慌。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

5．英语课上，主动举手发言我觉得不好意思。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

6．我在英语课上说英语时，感到自信。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

7．英语课上，当我自己要被老师提问时，我感到心在怦怦直跳。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

8. 我总是觉得其他同学英语说得比我好。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

9. 在班上说英语时，我感觉很轻松。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

10. 说英语要遵循那么多规则，真是压倒人。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

11．在其他同学面前说英语，我觉得害羞、不自然。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

12. 在毫无准备情况下被英语老师提问，我感到自然、放松。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

13. 说英语时，我总害怕别的同学嘲笑我。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

14. 我担心老师时刻都会纠正我的各种口语错误。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

15．与英语为母语的人交谈时，我不会感到紧张。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

（二）

1. 我喜欢等到自己知道一个单词的精确用法时，才开始用它。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

2. 我不喜欢在课堂上尝试使用较难的英语句子。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

3. 目前，我不喜欢在课堂上试图用英语表达复杂的思想。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

4. 我倾向于用英语表达自己想说的东西，而不担忧语法细节。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

5. 英语课上，开口说一个句子之前，我倾向于自我默念一边。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

6. 我倾向于模仿使用基本的句子结构模式，而不喜欢去冒错用之险

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意。

7. 我认为在集体中学英语比单独自学更有乐趣。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

8. 我喜欢用英语和老师及同学交谈。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

9. 在英语课上，我喜欢和其他同学交流。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

10. 我认为，在英语课堂中，一种强烈的集体精神非常重要。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

11．我希望课堂活动丰富一点，以便同学们使用英语更好地相互了解。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

12.我的**高考英语成绩**是___分。

第三部分 英语口语技能等级自评

(下面是一些英语技能自评的陈述。“1”表示最低自评级别，“5”表示最高自评级别。请根据自己实际选择。)

陈　述	自评级别（√）
1.我能用英语回答课堂提问，能用通俗词汇和句型与同学进行主题式讨论。	1，2，3，4，5
2.我能用英语介绍自己、同学、朋友等，并能对他人的介绍做出回应。	1，2，3，4，5
3.我能用简单英语及手势为人指路、购物、留言、提出申请等。	1，2，3，4，5
4.我能用英语数字报告时间、询问价格、回答电话号码等。	1，2，3，4，5
5.我能与英语国家人士就日常话题进行简单交谈。	1，2，3，4，5
陈　述	自评级别（√）
6.我掌握了基本英语会话策略，如开始、继续或结束会话，让人重复所说内容或放慢语速等等。	1，2，3，4，5

7．我的英语口语技能综合水平属于：	1，2，3，4，5

APPENDIX C

Speaking State Anxiety Scale (English and Chinese)

（For research only. Please provide all the required information, including name）

Name_____ (; English score on college entrance test___)*

(* This was present on the posttest of the scale)

Directions: The following statements attempt to describe how you feel right now. Please select the choices that suit you. There are no right or wrong choices, but they should match your present state. Do not spend too much time on any one item, and try to react on your first impression. Do not miss any item (select with √)

1. I'm afraid I won't remember all the words I will need.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

2. I'm afraid it'll be difficult for me to form correct sentences.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

3. I'm afraid I'll sound funny.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

4. I'm afraid that I'll use wrong articles.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

5. I'm afraid I'll stop and not know what to say next.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

6. I'm afraid I'll make grammatical errors.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

7. I'm afraid my pronunciation will be wrong.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

8. I'm afraid I'll not be able to speak fluently enough.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Agree (C) Undecided (D) Disagree (E) Strongly Disagree

口语状态焦虑量表

（仅供研究，请如实填写各项，包括姓名）

姓名_____ (; 高考英语成绩___)*

(* 该项仅在量表后测时出现)

指导语：如下句子试图描述你现在的感觉。请根据真实情况进行选择。回答没有优劣或对错之分，关键是符合实际。对每一陈述，无需反复思考，请凭第一印象作答。每个题都要做出选择（画勾“√”）。

1. 我担心会想不起来需要的词语。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

2. 我担心会说出错误的句子。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

3. 我担心自己的发音会引人发笑。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

4. 我担心会用错冠词。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

5. 我担心表达中断，说不下去。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

6. 我担心犯语法错误。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

7. 我担心发音出错。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

8. 我担心表达不够流利。

(A) 完全同意 (B) 同意 (C) 不确定 (D) 不同意 (E) 完全不同意

APPENDIX D

Speaking Performance Assessment Criteria

1. The criteria

The speaking performance is judged by:

1) The number of total words in all the Communication Units (CUs);

2) The percent of words in mazes: number of words in mazes / (number of words in mazes + number of words in CUs) × 100%;

3) The number of dependent clauses.

2. Definitions and Explanations of key Terms

1) Communication Unites (CU)

They are independent clauses in English with all their modifiers, which may be correct or incorrect.

(1) A CU must be a unit of comprehensible speech.

(2) A simple sentence is a CU.

e.g. I have a pen. (1 CU)

(3) A complex sentence is a CU.

e.g. I have a pen which was given to me by my friend. (1 CU)

(4) A compound sentence includes 2 or more CUs, according to the number of independent clauses joined by coordinators, and the coordinators belong to the succeeding clauses.

e.g. I have a pen, but I have no pencil. (2 CUs)

(5) An incomplete sentence (word, or phrase) that attempts to express a complete thought is also a CU.

eg. About ten o’clock. (1 CU)

2) Mazes

A maze refers to everything that does not belong to a CU. A maze is a series of words (or initial parts of words), or unattached fragments which do not constitute a CU and are not necessary to a CU.

(1) Stuttering and repetitions are mazes.

e.g. *The teacher* the teacher *is is very nice* is very nice. (2 mazes)

(2) Message abandonment belongs to a maze.

e.g. Don't worry about me. *And don't worry*… (1 maze)

(3) Words in L1 not essential to a CU belong to a maze.

e.g The SHU is very interesting. (0 maze: SHU (book) is a Chinese word but essential to the CU, so it is not a maze.)

3) Dependent Clauses

Clauses which can not stand alone.

3. Rating Procedure

(1) Transcribe the speech recording verbatim.

(2) Ask a peer researcher to check the transcription and improve it until it is satisfactory.

(3) Following the Speaking Performance Assessment Criteria, different peer raters rate the transcribed speech separately and repeat the work (when necessary) until the inter-rater reliability is satisfactory (Pearson correlation coefficient $r > .70$).

(4) Compare the results and improve the ratings where inconsistencies exist until agreements are reached on all the ratings.

APPENDIX E

Invitation Letter

Dear students,

I am seeking your participation in a research concerning a technique on speaking related anxiety, which is hoped to benefit second or foreign language learners. The research is part of the requirement of my study for a PhD. degree in Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. The research involves pre- / posttest tests of the speaking related anxiety, and speaking performance, or may further involve listening to a lecture. No danger will be involved, though you might experience minutes of nervousness during the test of your speaking performance. All the data collected will only be used by the researcher for the study, and your personal information will be kept confidential.

Participation is voluntary, and withdrawal from the study at any time during the course is at your own choice.

Do you agree to participate? If yes, please put up your hand and let me have your name and means of communication.

Yours truly,

Tianjian Wang

APPENDIX F

Pictures for Oral Description

(A) Picture for Pretest of Speaking Performance

(B) Picture for Posttest of Speaking Performance

APPENDIX G

Figures Accompanying the Wang SAR Model Script

Figure 1
Symptoms of SA

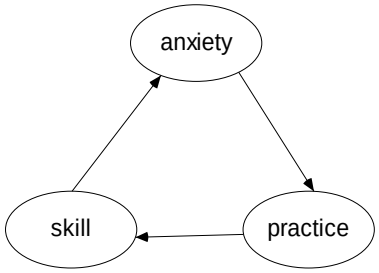


Figure 2
Recycling Effects of SA

Figure 3
SA Hinders the Realization of College English Objective

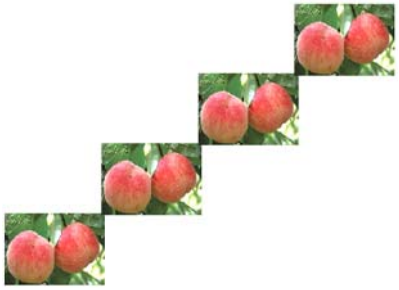


Figure 4
Goals Should Be Reachable

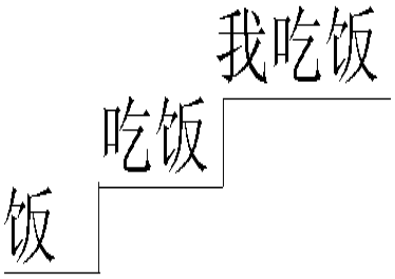


Figure 5
Step-by-Step Learning of Chinese

It is so nice for me to see you

Nice to see you

Hello

Figure 6
Step-by-Step Learning of English

Figure 7
Confidence Leads to Success

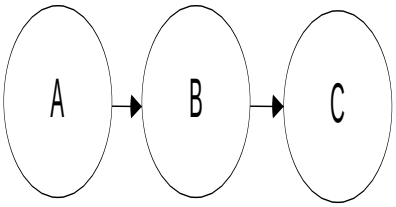


Figure 8
A→B→C Personality Theory

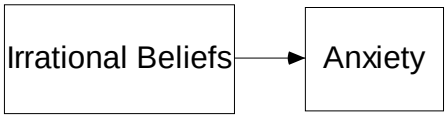


Figure 9
Irrational Beliefs and Anxiety

Figure 10
The Anxiety of A Ph.D. Student

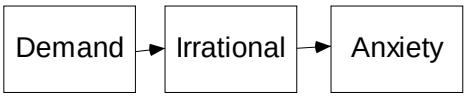


Figure 11
Demand Caused Anxiety

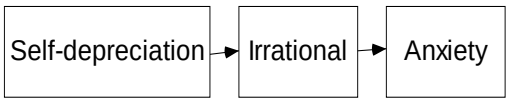


Figure 12
Self-Depreciation Caused Anxiety

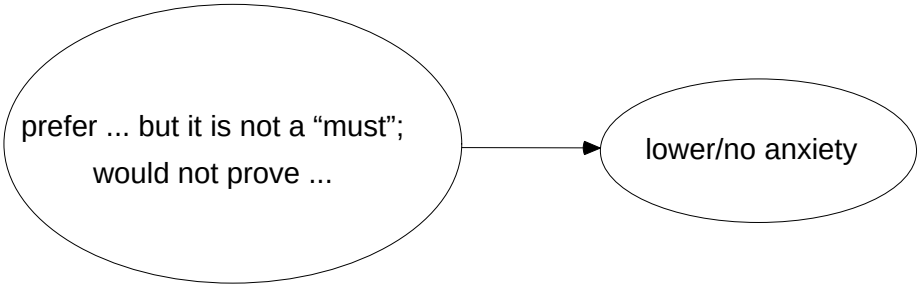


Figure 13
Replacing Beliefs May Lead to the Control of Anxiety

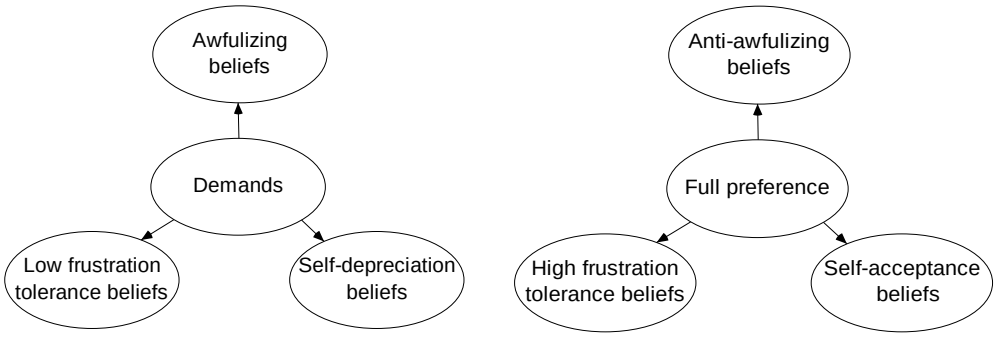


Figure 14
Contrast of Irrational and Rational Beliefs

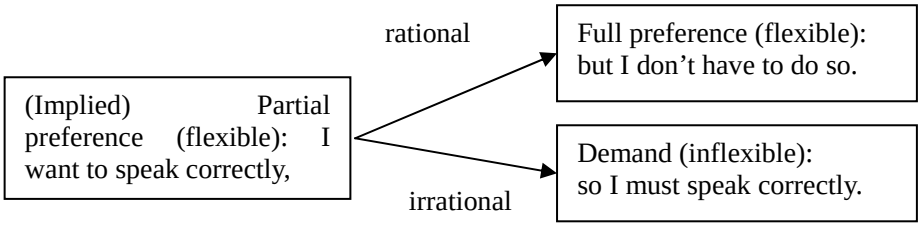


Figure 15
Logics of Demands and Full preferences

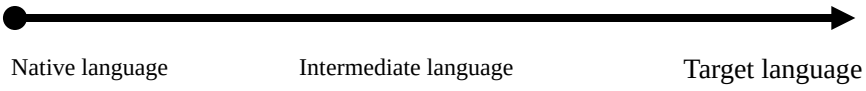


Figure 16
Intermediate Language

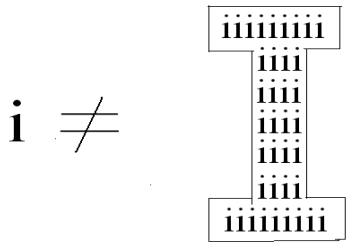


Figure 17
Part Does Not Equal the Whole

APPENDIX H

Chinese Version of the Wang SAR Model Script

1 开场白

大家好，欢迎参加演讲。今天演讲的主题是焦虑的根源及其疗法。演讲的目的是促进外语技能发展。首先让我们回顾几件发人深省的事实。

2008 年 3 月 19 日，武汉某高校 22 岁的一位研究生，被发现跳湖自杀，仅仅因为本科毕业论文涉嫌抄袭。值得吗？为什么会出现如此悲剧？我们可能难以理解，但对于当事人这是符合逻辑的行为。就在几年前，贵州师范大学某教授发现论文被重庆某高校另一教授抄袭，并起诉该抄袭者赔钱一毛，一时引起轩然大波。但是，这位被指控教授，没有自杀，无法在原单位工作，就调动到另一单位继续作教授。为什么？对当事人这是符合逻辑的行为。我有一位侄子，2006 年高考差几分不够上重点，为了实现重点梦想，复读了一年，第二年离重点相差几十分。导致这一不可思议结果的主要原因是，第二年高考期间他连续三天反常性失眠。心理压力太大了。有必要么？按照我侄子的逻辑，强大的压力是无法消除的。另外却有很多学生，平时成绩不怎么样。但是遇到重要考试能够泰然自若，正常发挥。为什么？他们的行为也是符合逻辑的。

Epictetus, 一位 Stoic 学派哲学家的著名格言：困扰人们的并不是事物本身，而是他们看待事物的方法。我们可以加上一句，使人们免除苦恼的也是人们看待事物的方法。

以上讨论的所有逸闻和实施，都与焦虑的存在或不存在有关。这与当事人看待事物的方式有关。今天我们将讨论与口语相关的的焦虑，其基本概念框架适用于一上列举的所有事实。演讲的话题主要包括：

•焦虑及口语焦虑的概念；

•口语焦虑与口语的关系；

•口语焦虑的原因与疗法。

演讲设计的原理不仅有助于你们克服口语焦虑有关的心理问题，也有助于克服生活中其他方面的心理问题。

2 背景知识

2.1 口语焦虑的概念

现在我想请各位面对全班作自我介绍。敢说的举手（等候一分钟）。不敢举手得很可能是由于焦虑。焦虑是与目标间接相连的恐惧。与口语相关的焦虑系口语焦虑。如下陈述均为焦虑症状(见 Appendix G 图 1)：

•英语课上，当我知道自己要被老师提问时感到发抖。

•需要说英语时，我开始感到惊慌。

•我总觉得其他同学英语说得比我好。

•在其他同学面前说英语，我觉得害羞、不自然。

•说英语时我怕违反语法错误。

所有这些陈述均为焦虑的症状(see Horwitz et al., 1991, p. 32-33).。

2.2 口语焦虑与口语表达的关系

口语焦虑影响口语表达。研究发现：

•焦虑者口语表达断断续续，缺乏连贯性；

•焦虑者口语表达使用过多重复；

•焦虑者口语表达有大量的句子开头错误；

•在能力保持一致的情况下，焦虑者口试平均成绩显著低于非焦虑者。

焦虑影响行为的原理可以通过事例说明。

一位学俄语的泰国朋友说，第一次到莫斯科，总觉得自己的俄语技能欠缺。终于有一天他意外地发现，自己的俄语竟然流利得出乎意料：一位职员惹他生气了，他和职员大吵起来。气得越狠，吵得越凶，吵得越凶，俄语说得越流利。原因很简单，他没有关注自己的语言形式是否合乎语法，词语搭配是否准确，语音语调是否标准，减少了思想包袱，因此实际上说得更好了。

原因很简单，争吵中他没有担忧语法、语音、词汇等细节，减少了思想包袱，因此说得更流利了。

焦虑这将注意力分配到与任务有关的思想上（完成任务不可缺少的思维过程，例如沟通中对语言信息的处理），同时也分配到与任务无关的思想上（对完成任务无助的思维，例如沟通中对口音不标准的担忧），认知资源的减少导致了行为效率的下降。另为,焦虑者倾向于回避课堂交谈，这会导致口语技能滞后，引起更高焦虑,并形成恶性循环(见 Appendix G 图 2)。

口语焦虑具有普遍性。在北京三分之一以上大学生被发现具有口语焦虑，在江苏 研究发现中学生口语焦虑严重，在台北，调查发现小学生口语焦虑显著。中国颁布的最新大学英语教学目标是发展学生的综合能力，尤其是听说技能。可见口语焦虑直接影响大学英语教学目标核心部分的实现(见 Appendix G 图 3)。

3 口语焦虑的根源和疗法

3.1 与目标相关的焦虑及其疗法

1) 目标与焦虑相关：类比

现在假设，你的目标是摘桃子，桃子高度不一，越高越好。如果你强迫自己摘取距离太远的好桃子，你很可能经历焦虑。解决问题的办法之一是改变目标，选择力所能及的对象。跳一跳摘到的桃子是你的最佳选择(见 Appendix G 图 4)。

2) 语言学习要循序渐进

现在我们讨论一下语言学习的阶段性。每种语言的学习都是循序渐进的。以母语汉语为例。“我吃饭”是一个简单句子，但是没有人生下来就会说它。在咿呀学语的早期，正常婴儿只能说单词句。例如“饭”。 几个月后，方可以说双词句 如“吃饭”。只有到更晚的时候方可以说多词句如“我吃饭”(见 Appendix G 图 5)。强迫新生婴儿说 “我吃饭”是脱离实际的。

英语学习遵循同样的顺序。开始你只能说最简单的话，如“hello”. 然后你可以说稍难的话，如“nice to meet you” . 随后你可以学习更复杂的句子，“It is so nice for me to see you” (见 Appendix G 图 6)。

3）焦虑者目标脱离实际

焦虑者相信，只有完美的，或者最复杂的结构可以使用。他们提前强迫自己去说那些到一定阶段后方可使用的结构,例如“it is nice for me to see you”.如同一个新生婴儿要求自己说“我吃饭”， 或者一个人强迫自己摘取过高的桃子。不切实际的目标会导致焦虑。

4）别小看简单结构

决不要小看简单结构。一个孤立的词可以组成一个句子，别具有很强的交际作用。你到国外后会发现这些孤立单词多么有用。在餐厅里，如果你口渴了，只用看着服务员，说一个词，“water”，水就来了，如果你饿了，说“rice”就能得到饭。如果要去厕所，说“WC”就有人为你指路。日常交际中，不必总是使用标准的时态，语态和语气。

5）调整目标，满怀信心

为了克服焦虑，请调整你的目标，以适应你目前的水平。能说独词句，就说独词句；能说短语，就说短语；能用复杂结构就用复杂结构。在不同的发展水平和阶段上，让我们充满同样的信心和勇气（见 Appendix G 图 7）。迟早我们会成功掌握一门外语。

3.2 与非理性信念有关的焦虑及其疗法

现在我们讨论第二类导致焦虑的因素：“非理性信念”。为了更好理解非理性信念和焦虑的关系，我们需要了解一个基本理论，认识信念是如何影响情绪和行为反映的。

1）A—B—C 人格理论

现在假设，老师要求你做一次口语演讲。你的信念是：

我非常希望自己的演讲精彩，但这不是必需的。如果演讲不精彩，这当然不是好事，但是天也塌不下来。

如果你又如此信念，你就不会过度焦虑。

现在我们重新假设，老师要求你做一次演讲，你持有如下信念：

我的演讲必须精彩，如果演讲不精彩，那将糟糕至极。

如果你有如此信念，你将经受较高的焦虑。这种焦虑会影响你的演讲。这里的关键之处在于：面对同样的事件，不同的信念导致不同的情绪和行为后果。这就是 A—B—C 人格理论的内涵。

A:事件

B: 信念

C: 情绪和行为后果

通常人们倾向于认为，A 导致了 C， Ellis 不这样认为，他指出，很多情况下，B 直接导致了 C(见 Appendix G 图 8)。

2) 信念与焦虑：案例分析

何种信念导致焦虑？专家指出，我们的大部分焦虑源于僵化极端的信念，或者非理性信念（见 Appendix G 图 9）。如下案例分析有助于我们理解非理性信念是如何导致焦虑的。

案例

一位留学生在美国攻读英语博士学位。每次与博导见面时总感到焦虑，因为他认为，与博导说英语时决不能犯错误。他认为犯错误会证明自己是笨蛋。他越这样想，越焦虑，越容易犯错误(见 Appendix G 图 10)。

让他困扰的问题根源是什么？

根据 ABC 人格理论，非理性信念可能是问题的根源。这位学生的第一条信念是，和博导说英语时决不能犯错误。这是非理性的。任何人说任何语言都不能避免语误。这儿有一个故事。一位中国的英语学习者曾经在飞机上与一个美国人进行了一次交谈。

“What’s your wife？”中国人问。

“She do not work.” 美国人回答。

“She do not work?”中国人吃惊地重复。

“No, she do not”美国人漫不经心地回答。

正确的说法是“does not”,而不是”do not ”。这位中国人原以为本族人的英语完美无缺，因此对其语法错误感到惊讶。而这位美国人毫不在乎，因为这是正常现象。不信么？你可以对朋友的母语谈话进行录音，然后交给语言

专家分析，你就会发现语误多么频繁。语误是如此频繁，以至于我们已经对其失去了敏感性。

在上述的案例中，那位学生僵化地要求自己决不能犯语言错误是非理性的，这导致了他的焦虑(见 Appendix G 图 11)。

这位学生的第二条信念是，犯错误会证明他笨蛋，这也是非理性的。一个人的智力包括很多方面。根据 Gardner（1983）的理论，人有 7 种智力(见表 1)。

智力类型	功能
Linguistic	words and language
Logical-Mathematical	logic and numbers
Musical	music, sound, rhythm
Bodily-Kinesthetic	body movement control
Spatial-Visual	images and space
Interpersonal	other people's feelings
Intrapersonal	self-awareness

案例中的学生仅仅抽取口语表达贬低整个自我，翻了以偏概全的逻辑错误。这一非理性信念是他焦虑的另一根源(见 Appendix G 图 12)。

如何治疗他的烦恼？

由于焦虑源于非理性信念，使用理性信念替换非理性信念有望控制或降低焦虑。如果这位学生的信念替换为："与导师说英语时，我希望不犯错误。但这不是必须达到的。语误不会证明我笨蛋。它只能证明我是一个会犯错误的人，而且是这一次犯了语误。"他还会有高焦虑吗？不大可能(见 Appendix G 图 13)。

3）课堂口语表达相关的非理性与理性信念

根据 Dryden(2001)的理性情绪疗法理论，在第二语言教室中，有四类非理性信念：僵化的要求、灾难化信念，挫折低容忍信念，自我贬低的信念，其中讲话的要求是核心成分。与非理性信念对应，也有 4 类理性信念：热切的希望，反灾难化信念，挫折高容忍信念和自我接纳的信念，其中热切的希望是核心成分(见 Appendix G 图 14)。如下部分将成对讨论非理性与理性信念。

A. 僵化的要求与热切的希望

a）概念与合理性

“僵化的要求是一种认为事情必须如何或者决不能如何的僵化信念”(Dryden, 2001, p. 4)。例如：

- “我说英语时必须遵守语法规则”；
- “我的发音必须准确”；
- “我必须完美地回答问题”；
- “我的英语老师必须给我肯定性评价”；
- “决不能让朋友嘲笑我的口语”。

根据 Dryden （2001），诸如此类的僵化要求都是非理性的，是我们许多口语焦虑的核心。

“热切的希望是一种希望事情如何而不强求其必须如何的灵活信念”(Dryden, 2001, p. 4)。例如：

- “我希望说英语时遵守语法规则，但这不是必须的”；
- “我希望自己的发音准确，但这不是必须的”；
- “我希望完美地回答问题，但回答也可以是不完美的”；
- “我希望英语老师给我肯定性评价，但不幸的是，他未必这样”；
- “我希望朋友不嘲笑我的口语， 不幸的是,他们也可以嘲笑我”。

根据 Dryden （2001），诸如此类的热切的希望是理性的，是对口语行为产生健康心理反应的核心。

僵化的要求与热切的希望：为何非理性，为何理性？

根据 Dryden （2001），热切的希望具有两个外显成分：“希望”以及“对僵化要求的否定”，两部分均具有灵活性。例如：

我希望表达正确（“希望”：灵活）， 但这不是必须的（“对僵化要求的否定”的否定：灵活）。

之所以说热切的希望是理性的，是因为灵活的“希望”成分可以合理地推导出灵活的“对僵化要求的否定”

僵化的要求似乎只有一个成分，但事实上它也有两个成分，一个被暗含其中。例如，当你说你必须立即吃午饭，别人可以合理地推导出你希望立即吃午饭。僵化的要求的两个成分分别为“希望”和“僵化的要求”，前者灵活，后者不灵活。例如：

（我希望表达正确（“希望”：灵活）），所以我必须表达正确（“僵化的要求”：不灵活）。

僵化的要求之所以是非理性的，是因为灵活的 “希望”不能够合理地推导出不灵活的“僵化的要求”。图 15 展示了讨论内容。

b）对学习的影响

僵化的要求有害。这些信念脱离实际。这种信念持有者课堂上会经历较高焦虑，因为他们能够意识到可能出现的挫折。为了避免挫折发生，他们会通过逃课、拒绝主动发言等方式，设法避免在群体中讲话。最终结果是外语学习的失败。热切的希望有益。一方面，热切的希望能够为学习者提供足够的动力向着追求的目标迈进，另一方面，学习者不会遭受挫折的威胁。热切的希望可以导致心平气和、大胆参与、积极尝试，最终结果是学习成功。

B. 灾难化信念与反灾难化信念

a) 概念与合理性

“灾难化信念是僵化的要求得不到满足时的衍生物之一。 这些信念是非理性的” (Dryden, 2001, p. 5)。例如：

- “我说英语时必须遵守语法规则，否则糟糕至极”；
- “我的发音必须准确，否则太可怕了”；
- “我必须完美地回答问题，否则简直是世界末日”；

•“我的英语老师必须给我肯定性评价，否则后果不堪设想”；

•“决不能让朋友嘲笑我的口语，否则太骇人了”。

为什么灾难化信念是非理性的？

灾难化信念具有极端性。这种信念持有者当时具有如下一种或两种看法：

“没有比此事更糟糕的了” (Dryden, 2001, p. 5)；

“从这件坏事中得不到任何益处” (Dryden, 2001, p. 5)。

两种看法都是非理性的。Robinson 的妈妈曾经告诉儿子：从他出生的那一刻起，到他躺到灵柩内为止，世界上不存在任何事情不能变得更坏 （Nie,2009, p73）。持有灾难化信念的的学习者倾向于夸张后果的严重性：一切不受欢迎的（不可取的，不合意的，不愉快的，不完美的…）都是可怕的（骇人的，糟糕的，灾难化的…）。按照，辩证法，对待坏事的绝对化看法也是非理性的。在外语学习中，我们能够从不完美的表达行为中受益。专家们把不完美的第二语言称之为中介语，它既不同于沐浴，也不同于目标语(见 Appendix G 图 16)。正常情况下，第二语言学习者会逐渐完善中介语，知道它与目标语一样。你在表达中不完美的行为反映了你正在正常发展。就连别人对你产生的否定性反应对你也有益处，因为这可以帮你意识到自己的欠缺之处。

灾难化信念健康替代物为反灾难化信念。

“反灾难化信念是非极端化的信念，它是热切的希望得不到满足时的衍生物之一”（Dryden, 2001, p.5）。它是理性的。例如：

•“我希望说英语时遵守语法规则，但这不是必须的。犯语法错误虽然有失完美，但也并不可怕”；

•“我希望自己的发音准确，但这不是必须的，发音不标准虽然不可取，但也没什么大不了的”；

•“我希望完美地回答问题，但回答也可以是不完美的，不完美的回答不理想，但也不是世界末日”；

•“我希望英语老师给我肯定性评价，但不幸的是，他未必这样。如果他没有给我肯定性评价，的确让人遗憾，但这并不可怕”；

•“我希望朋友不嘲笑我的口语， 不幸的是,他们也可以嘲笑我，如果他们嘲笑了，的确让人遗憾，但这没有什么大不了的”。

为什么反灾难化信念是理性的？

反灾难化信念是非极端的。信念持有者当时怀有如下一种或多种看法：

□这并不是极端糟糕的事 （Dryden, 2001, p. 5）

□这件坏事也可以让人受益（Dryden, 2001, p. 5）

者两种看法均属于理性看法，因为它们与灾难化信念持有者的非理性观点形成鲜明对比。

b）对学习的影响

在语言教室中，灾难化信念有害。持有这种信念的学习者会经历过高焦虑,因为他们会感觉到种种“灾难”的存在。为了避免“灾难”的发生，这些学习者会想方设法回避在群体中开口，这最终会导致学习的失败。反灾难化信难有益，这种信念持有者眼中没有什么“灾难”，因此没有相应的焦虑。他们更有可能参与课堂互动，大胆进行口语尝试，最终取得学习成功。

C. 挫折低容忍信念和挫折高容忍信念

a. 概念与合理性

“挫折低容忍信念是极端化的信念，是僵化的要求得不到满足时的衍生物之一”（Dryden, 2001, p.6）。这种信念是非理性的。例如：

•“我说英语时必须遵守语法规则，否则我将无法忍受”；

•“我的发音必须准确，否则令人难受”；

•“我必须完美地回答问题，否则我自己都无法忍耐”；

•“我的英语老师必须给我肯定性评价，否则我承受不了”；

•“决不能让朋友嘲笑我的口语，否则我接受不了”。

为什么挫折低容忍信念是非理性的？

挫折低容忍信念具有极端性。信念持有者当时相信如下一种或多种看法：

“如果这种挫折或者不舒服的现象继续存在，我将死亡或者崩溃”（Dryden, 2001, p. 6）；

“如果这种挫折或者不舒服的现象继续存在，我将失去体验幸福和快乐的能力” （Dryden, 2001, p. 6）。

两种观念都是非理性的。在第二语言学习中，很少有过报道，某位学生因为不完美的表达，或者别人对其不完美的表达产生的否定性反应，而死亡，精神崩溃，或者失去体验幸福的能力。既是一个人声称他/她不能忍受某件事，他/她事实上已经在忍受着这件事一旦事情发生了。挫折低容忍信念持有者倾向于认为一切难以忍受的、一切不舒服不愉快的现象都属于不能够忍受的。

挫折低容忍信念的健康替代物是挫折高容忍信念

“挫折高容忍信念是非极端的信念，是热切的希望得不到满足时产生的衍生物之一” (Dryden, 2001, p. 6)。他们是理性的。例如：

- “我希望说英语时遵守语法规则，但这不是必须的。犯语法错误让人忍受起来不舒服，但我能够忍受，并且它值得我忍受”；
- “我希望自己的发音准确，但这不是必须的，发音不标准让人忍受起来虽然别扭，但我能够忍受，我这样做也是值得的”；
- “我希望完美地回答问题，但回答也可以是不完美的，不完美的回答让人不太好受，但我能够忍受，我可以从容忍中受益”；
- “我希望英语老师给我肯定性评价，但不幸的是，他未必这样。如果他没有给我肯定性评价，的确让人不好接受，但我可以接受它，而且接受对我有益”；
- “我希望朋友不嘲笑我的口语， 不幸的是,他们也可以嘲笑我，如果他们嘲笑了，的确让人不好忍受，但我能够忍受，忍一忍对我有好处”。

为什么挫折高容忍信念是理性的？

挫折高容忍信念是非极端的。信念持有者当时怀有如下一种或多种看法：

“如果这种挫折或者不舒服的现象继续存在，我将继续努力，但我既不会死亡也不会崩溃”（Dryden, 2001, p. 6）；

“如果这种挫折或者不舒服的现象继续存在，我将不会失去体验幸福和快乐的能力，尽管我暂时体验不到幸福和快乐” （Dryden, 2001, p. 6）。

“这种挫折或者不舒服的现象值得忍受” （Dryden, 2001, p. 6）

所有这些观念都是理性的，因为他们与挫折低容忍信念持有者的非理性观念形成鲜明的对比。挫折高容忍信念并不意味着不去尝试改变现实。相反，它意味着学习者将逐渐完善个人的行为，同时又不受暂时非完美行为的困扰。另外，不完美的行为也值得忍受，因为学习者可以从中获得某中益处。

b）对学习的影响

挫折低容忍信念有害。如果学习者认为他们不能够容忍不完美的口语表达或者别人对他们表达的否定性评价(其中某些可能只是个人错觉)，他们会经历较高的焦虑，因为这些事件在语言课堂上难以避免。为了避免这些事件的发生，学习者会通过各种办法，如逃课，拒绝参与课堂互动，或者举手发言。这些行为最终会导致语言学习的失败。挫折高容忍信念会带来心平气和，积极的课堂参与，和最终的学习成功。如同一个驾驶员通过参照外部环境能够保持正确的驶向，来自别人的反馈，不管是肯定性的还是否定性的，都有助于个人更加有效地掌握语言。

D. 自我贬低的信念与自我接纳的信念

a）概念与合理性

自我贬低的信念是关于个人的极端化观念，是僵化的要求不能得到满足时的衍生物之一 （Dryden, 2001）。例如：

- “我说英语时必须遵守语法规则，否则会证明我是一个笨蛋”；
- “我的发音必须准确，否则将意味着我的语言天赋低”；
- “我必须完美地回答问题，否则将意味着我是一个很差劲的学生”；
- “我必须得到英语老师的肯定性评价，否则就意味着我没有价值”；
- “决不能让朋友嘲笑我的口语，否则会证明我是一个傻瓜”。

为什么自我贬低的信念是非理性的？

自我贬低的信念具有极端性。信念持有者当时怀有如下一种或者几种看法：

“给一个人贴上一个单独的标签，以界定一个人的本质是合理的，并且个人的价值取决于变化不定的情景”（Dryden, 2001, p. 7）（例如：表现好的时候我的价值上升，表现差的时候我的价值下降）；

“根据个人的孤立的方面来评价整个人是合理的”(Dryden, 2001, p. 7)。

自我贬低的信念是非理性的。首先，每个人都是一个复杂的整体，包含方方面的特征。如果我们用小些字母“i”代表自我的一部分，大写“I”代表整个自我，那么大些“I”包含许多小写“i”,但任何一个小写“i”都不等于大写“I”。大写“I”不能通过某个小写“i”来鉴定（见 Appendix G 图 17)。其二，个人的表现行为受到许多情景因素的影响，但是一个人的价值是稳定的。稳定的价值不能通过变化必定的行为来评价。自我贬低的信念是荒谬的，因为它依据部分自我界定整个自我，依据变化不定的情景评价稳定的个人本质。例如，“如果我在一件事情上表现不好，我将在所有事情上表现不好”，或者说“如果我这一次表现不完美，我将永远表现不完美”。

自我贬低信念的健康替代物为自我接纳的信念。

自我接纳的信念是关于个人的非极端的信念，是热切的希望得不到满足时的衍生物之一。他们是理性的(Dryden, 2001)。例如：

- “我希望说英语时遵守语法规则，但这不是必须的。如果没有遵循语法规则，这并不能证明我是一个笨蛋，我只是一个和别人一样的人，在口语表达中有时会犯语法错误”;
- “我希望自己的发音准确，但这不是必须的，如果我的发音不标准，这并不意味着我的语言天赋低，它仅仅意味着在目前的发展阶段，我的语音还没有达到尽善尽美的程度”；
- “我希望完美地回答问题，但回答也可以是不完美的，回答不完美并不能说明我就是一个很差劲的学生，我只不过和别人一样，有时候回答问题是不完美的”；
- “我希望得到英语老师的肯定性评价，但这不是必须的。如果他没有给我肯定性评价，这并不意味着我没有价值可言，因为我也有受到老师肯定性评价的时候”;
- “我希望朋友不嘲笑我的口语，不幸的是, 他们也可以嘲笑我，如果他们嘲笑了，这并不表明我是一个傻瓜，因为我也有受到他们钦佩的时候”。

为什么自我接纳的信念是理性的？

自我接纳的信念是非极端的。信念持有者当时怀有如下一种或者多种看法：

“不能给一个人贴上一个单独的标签，以界定一个人的本质，并且个人的价值并不取决于变化不定的情景”（Dryden, 2001, p. 7）（例如：不管我表现如何，我的个人价值保持不变）；

平价个人的孤立方面未尝不可，但根据个人的孤立的方面来评价整个人就没有意义了（Dryden, 2001）。

自我接纳的信念是理性的，因为它与自我贬低信念持有者的非理性观点正好相反。

b）对学习的影响

自我贬低信念有害，在语言教室里，口语表达很少是至善至美的，来自别人的消极反应也可能存在（其中某些属于个人错觉）。自我贬低信念持有者将经历过高焦虑，因为在他们的知觉中，个人价值随时有可能受到威胁。为了保护个人价值，这些学习者会采取各种方法回避课堂交流，这最终会导致语言学习的失败。自我接纳的信念，正好与此相反，可以带来心平气和情绪，积极参与课堂互动，以及最终的学习成功。

4 收场白

既然对口语焦虑有了完整的理解，下一步就是要控制口语焦虑，改变破坏性的课堂行为。你需要为自己的表达选择适当的目标或者标准：如果你能够使用孤立的单词，就说这些单词；如果你能够使用短语，就说短语；如果你能够使用简单句子，就说简单句子，如果你能够使用复杂句子，就说复杂句子。开口有益。理智的选择是：希望自己的表达完美，但不要僵化地自我要求。不要担忧不完美的表达，告诉自己要容忍暂时的美中不足。不要因为不完美的表达行为自我贬低。

在外语课堂上，设立你的情绪目标,诸如： “我将放松、舒服、愉快”，等；设定你的行为目标，诸如：“我将充分利用机会说英语，我将举手发言”，等等。你的行为目标应该逐渐变大。例如，第一周，你可以让自己在课堂上举

手发言一次，第二周两次，以此类推。最初，你可以在有准备的情况下试图回答问题，随后在毫无准备的情况下尝试。再后来，面对全班。当你能够在班上舒服地表达的时候，尝试在其他陌生、正是的场合，诸如口语赛上等等。定期反思个人的进步。如果你对个人进步自我满意，自我强化，可以试美食品尝，公园漫步，景点观光等等。长期下去，你会从这些尝试中受益匪浅。

演讲到此结束！谢谢大家！

APPENDIX I

Distribution of Selections on the Likert Scales

(The selection (%) refers to: of all the participants responding to the scale, the percentage of selections on a choice following an item, or the percentage of missing cases on an item; see Section 3.4 for the discussion of the scales)

Part 1 The Distribution of Selections on the Speaking Anxiety Scale Employed for Answering Research Question 1

item	**Selection (%)**					
	strongly agree	**agree**	**undecided**	**disagree**	**strongly disagree**	**missing**
1	10.8	26.7	17.9	36.3	8.3	
2	3.8	25.0	23.8	39.2	8.3	
3	10.8	33.8	18.3	35.0	2.1	
4	12.9	48.8	17.1	16.7	4.6	
5	8.8	34.6	20.4	29.6	6.7	
6	3.8	22.1	35.4	31.3	7.5	
7	8.8	42.9	20.0	26.3	2.1	
8	9.2	30.0	16.3	40.0	4.6	
9	1.7	20.8	31.3	37.9	8.3	
10	8.8	28.3	15.0	42.1	5.8	
11	1.7	27.5	21.3	42.1	7.5	
12	1.3	11.3	29.2	47.9	10.4	
13	4.2	19.6	16.3	49.6	10.4	
14	2.1	20.0	14.6	52.1	11.3	
15	2.9	14.6	33.3	37.9	11.3	

Part 2 The Distribution of Selections on Trait Anxiety Scale (TA), the Unwillingness to Communicate Scale (UTC), Speaking Anxiety Scale (SA), Language Class Risk-Taking Scale (LCR), Language Class Sociability Scale (LCS), and Speaking Self-Efficacy Scale (SSE) Employed for Answering Research Question 2

	item	Selection (%)				
		Not At All	**Somewhat**	**Moderately So**	**Very Much So**	**missing**
TA	**1**	1.9	16.5	60.2	21.4	
	2	16.5	32.0	46.6	4.9	
	3	7.8	17.5	61.2	13.6	
	4	3.9	24.3	53.4	18.4	
	5	2.9	18.4	49.5	29.1	
	6	23.3	52.4	18.4	5.8	
	7	6.8	23.3	49.5	20.4	
	8	11.7	32.0	42.7	13.6	
	9	13.6	38.8	38.8	8.7	
	10	5.8	30.1	49.5	14.6	

	Item	Selection (%)					
		strongly agree	**agree**	**undecided**	**disagree**	**strongly disagree**	**missing**
UTC	**1**	3.9	19.4	**32.0**	**37.9**	6.8	
	2	1.0	7.8	**25.2**	**43.7**	22.3	
	3	4.9	25.2	25.2	39.8	4.9	
	4	9.7	35.0	40.8	13.6	1.0	
	5	1.0	25.2	**19.4**	**42.7**	11.7	
	6	10.7	35.9	34.0	19.4		
	7		23.3	**23.3**	**40.8**	12.6	
	8		7.8	**21.4**	**57.3**	13.6	
	9	1.0	7.8	22.3	63.1	5.8	
	10	5.8	26.2	33.0	30.1	4.9	
	11		4.9	21.4	63.1	10.7	
	12		4.9	21.4	55.3	18.4	
	13	10.7	64.1	22.3	2.9		
	14	1.0	9.7	18.4	56.3	14.6	
	15	12.6	43.7	32.0	11.7		
	16		18.4	18.4	47.6	15.5	
	17	6.8	61.2	28.2	3.9		
	18	8.7	74.8	13.6	2.9		
	19		1.0	19.4	59.2	20.4	
	20		1.0	3.9	51.5	43.7	

	Item	Selection (%)					
		strongly agree	**agree**	**undecided**	**disagree**	**strongly disagree**	**missing**
SA	**1**	4.9	24.3	15.5	45.6	9.7	
	2	1.0	22.3	20.4	45.6	10.7	
	3	11.7	35.0	17.5	35.9		
	4	7.8	49.5	21.4	14.6	6.8	
	5	6.8	35.9	18.4	33.0	5.8	
	6	3.9	26.2	37.9	30.1	1.9	
	7	6.8	44.7	18.4	27.2	2.9	
	8	6.8	30.1	13.6	44.7	4.9	
	9	1.0	24.3	36.9	36.9	1.0	
	10	2.9	22.3	10.7	57.3	6.8	
	11		24.3	22.3	46.6	6.8	
	12	2.9	13.6	33.0	44.7	5.8	
	13	2.9	19.4	11.7	56.3	9.7	
	14	2.9	17.5	16.5	54.4	8.7	
	15	1.0	19.4	35.9	35.9	7.8	
LCR (1-6) and LCS (7-11)	**1**	6.8	23.3	12.6	*44.7*	12.6	
	2	6.8	40.8	18.4	28.2	5.8	
	3	8.7	54.4	14.6	19.4	2.9	
	4	*6.8*	*43.7*	17.5	29.1	2.9	
	5	13.6	63.1	11.7	11.7		
	6	5.8	46.6	16.5	30.1	1.0	
	7	13.6	44.7	29.1	11.7	1.0	
	8	1.9	14.6	44.7	36.9	1.9	
	9	2.9	29.1	35.9	31.1	1.0	
	10	24.3	56.3	15.5	3.9		
	11	43.7	47.6	7.8	1.0		

	Item	Selection (%)					
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**missing**
SSE	**1**	5.8	21.4	48.5	22.3	1.9	
	2	3.9	13.6	39.8	34.0	8.7	
	3	7.8	21.4	48.5	17.5	3.9	1.0
	4	2.9	9.7	35.0	35.9	15.5	1.0
	5	18.4	35.9	36.9	7.8		1.0
	6	8.7	27.2	29.1	24.3	9.7	1.0
	7	3.9	35.9	48.5	11.7		

Part 3 The Distribution of Selections on the Speaking Anxiety Scale (SA), and Speaking State Anxiety Scale (SAstate) for Both the Pre- and Posttest Employed for Answering Research Question 3-4.

	item	test	Selection (%)					
			strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree	missing
SA	1	pre	6.3	12.5	12.5	59.4	9.4	
		post	3.1	18.8	12.5	59.4	6.3	
	2	pre	3.1	25.0	21.9	43.8	6.3	
		post		15.6	18.8	56.3	9.4	
	3	pre	6.3	34.4	9.4	43.8	6.3	
		post	3.1	43.8	21.9	31.3		
	4	pre	6.3	40.6	21.9	25.0	6.3	
		post		37.5	21.9	40.6		
	5	pre	6.3	31.3	15.6	40.6	6.3	
		post	3.1	18.8	21.9	50.0	6.3	
	6	pre		43.8	25.0	25.0	6.3	
		post		25.0	53.1	15.6	6.3	
	7	pre	9.4	21.9	31.3	34.4	3.1	
		post	3.1	21.9	25.0	43.8	6.3	
	8	pre	3.1	25.0	18.8	50.0	3.1	
		post		21.9	15.6	56.3	6.3	
	9	pre	3.1	37.5	31.3	21.9	6.3	
		post		31.3	46.9	18.8	3.1	
	10	pre	3.1	25.0	6.3	53.1	12.5	
		post		28.1	6.3	56.3	9.4	
	11	pre	9.4	15.6	18.8	46.9	9.4	
		post		21.9	15.6	53.1	9.4	
	12	pre		34.4	18.8	40.6	6.3	
		post		25.0	34.4	37.5	3.1	
	13	pre		25.0	9.4	59.4	6.3	
		post		21.9	9.4	62.5	6.3	
	14	pre		15.6	12.5	59.4	12.5	
		post		15.6	21.9	62.5		
	15	pre	12.5	12.5	31.3	34.4	9.4	
		post	3.1	12.5	46.9	34.4	3.1	

	item	test	Selection (%)					
			strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree	missing
		post	3.1	12.5	46.9	34.4	3.1	
SAstate	1	pre	6.3	62.5	25.0	6.3		
		post	6.3	56.3	18.8	18.8		
	2	pre	3.1	59.4	6.3	31.3		
		post	3.1	46.9	9.4	40.6		
	3	pre	3.1	18.8	15.6	56.3	6.3	
		post		12.5	25.0	59.4	3.1	
	4	pre		40.6	15.6	40.6	3.1	
		post		31.3	15.6	50.0	3.1	
	5	pre	3.1	68.8	15.6	12.5		
		post	6.3	62.5	12.5	18.8		
	6	pre		50.0	9.4	40.6		
		post		34.4	31.3	34.4		
	7	pre		34.4	18.8	46.9		
		post		28.1	18.8	53.1		
	8	pre	9.4	62.5	12.5	15.6		
		post	3.1	56.3	21.9	18.8		

CURRICULUM VITAE

Tianjian Wang was born in Henan, the People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1968. He graduated from Henan College of Education and obtained his B. A. in English in 1992. In 2001, he received his M. Ed from Guizhou Normal University, PRC. He studied in Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhorn Ratchasima, Thailand for a Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Studies during 2007 to 2010.

He was employed by Guizhou College of Finance and Economics in 2001, and has worked there since then. His interests were in the field of applied linguistics. He has chaired a research project in Guizhou Province and was awarded a Third Prize in Humanism and Social Science Studies by the Education Committee of Guizhou Province in 2005. In the past few years, he has published over 10 papers in the field of applied linguistics.