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COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION OF CHINESE ESL STUDENTS

A thesis completed in fulfilment of the requirements for the
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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the communication apprehension (CA) as defined by Horwitz et al (1986) of a group of Chinese ESL secondary students in New Zealand. The relative importance of a number of sources (educational, social, and cultural) of CA which have been identified for Chinese students of English is considered. The relationship between CA, wait time and certain in-class practices such as questioning and voluntary speaking is examined. A further aspect of the study explores the ways in which students can articulate suggestions for coping with CA.

The relative importance of sources of CA is investigated by means of interviews, a ranking exercise and verbal reports. A questionnaire and "classroom" session further corroborate the sources of CA in relation to certain in-class practices and wait-time. Scenarios (hypothetical situations) are used to examine the strategies which these students considered effective for coping with CA.

Results indicated that language distance between Chinese and English contributed strongly to CA among Chinese ESL students because the two languages are substantially different in terms of language structure and use. Culture also emerged as an important dimension in CA in the present study

and that the students' cultural background affected their learning style, attitudes towards certain in-class practices and expectations in school. It was also found that speaking in front of the class and insufficient preparation were important sources of CA within the classroom. Students reported on both the affective and practical ways in which they attempted to cope with CA.

The thesis concludes with an examination of the methodological and theoretical implications of the study. The present research has highlighted the importance of applying the case study approach to further CA studies. It has also demonstrated that language distance, preparation time and affective variables are among some of the important elements which have been neglected by previous anxiety research. A number of tentative and practical recommendations from the study are proposed together with suggestions for further research.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

In recent years, the number of Chinese students using English as a second language (ESL) in New Zealand secondary schools has increased. For the purposes of this study, ESL students are defined as students who speak English as a second language and have another first language. According to the information released by the Ministry of Education (1994), there was a four-fold increase in the number of ESL students in New Zealand in 1993 when compared with the number in 1989. The recent arrival of large numbers of Chinese ESL students from a range of Asian countries including Hong Kong, Taiwan, the People's Republic of China has led to sudden pressure in many schools to provide facilities to assist students to cope with the demands of the academic curriculum. In addition, the arrival has created a concern on the part of teachers that among these students, there are a sizeable proportion who have limited proficiency in English and are not accustomed to the norms of a New Zealand classroom (Syme, 1995).

In 1993, about 2500 migrants arrived in New Zealand from the People's Republic of China, 3000 from Hong Kong and 2800 from Taiwan (Ministry of Education, 1994). These migrants have Chinese as their first language. However, a number of differences emerge among the groups in terms of their motives in choosing New Zealand as their new home and also in terms of their previous knowledge of English and their level of language proficiency. In general, one could say that those who come from the People's Republic of China want to have more freedom and better lives. The primary motivation of many migrants from Hong Kong is to obtain a second passport since they are not sure of the political situation after Hong Kong is returned to China in 1997. Migrants from Taiwan would be seen as coming to New Zealand to improve their English and for business opportunities (Chung, 1988; Lai, 1994; Liang, 1990, Xie, 1991).

The motivation of the secondary school-age children of these migrants to learn English is generally high when they first start school in New Zealand. They recognise the advantages that come with acquiring a good command of English, particularly in relation to academic success, and adjustment to the new society (Chung, 1988; Lai, 1994). English is in fact perceived as the gateway to academic success and to a professional life in the new society. Thus, for such students, motivation for learning the language can be equated with their motivation for success in school work generally; that is, in their belief that, the sooner they obtain proficiency in English, the better the

academic results they can achieve. To put it another way, their motivation to excel in other subjects can only be sustained, in their view, once they have overcome their language problem.

Research (Chung, 1988; Lai, 1994; Melton, 1990; Xie, 1991) has also shown that many Chinese ESL students experience severe stress due to the constant pressure to succeed. These pressures may be related to the expectations of their parents and may also be linked to their cultural and educational backgrounds. The outcome of their stereotype as "model students" is that expectations are high among teachers, peers and the society in which they exist.

Thus, it is possible to characterise Chinese ESL students as highly motivated students who are under pressure to succeed. Once they enter New Zealand society and the New Zealand educational system, they are required to develop and use oral English language skills in learning and interacting with teachers and peers.

The ESL context places more language requirements on them than the EFL context in which they learnt English previously. For example, they need the language for daily survival; all instructions in a New Zealand classroom are mediated through English; learning is based on the assumption that talking and display of knowledge are important in language acquisition. The alien

classroom situation and unfamiliar classroom practices impose extra pressures on these Chinese students of English and can arouse anxiety, particularly when students are asked to speak in front of the class (Martini et al, 1992).

Interaction is an important part of the assessment and curriculum in New Zealand schools. Some students, particularly ESL students may suffer from anxiety or apprehension about interacting and speaking in class. This is called communication apprehension (Horwitz et al, 1986), which will be referred to as CA. Furthermore, the effects of CA can extend beyond the classroom. It may play a role in students' selections of courses, majors in universities and ultimately careers. Syme (1995:7) found that 50% of her Asian subjects, who were NESB (non-English speaking background) secondary school students in Auckland "described their first few months in a New Zealand school as an unpleasant, at times a miserable, and sometimes traumatic experience".

1.2 LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY AND COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION (CA)

Research carried out in the 1960s and 1970s (Backman, 1976; Kleinmann, 1977; Pimsleur et al, 1962; Tucker et al, 1976;) on language learning anxiety focused primarily on the effect of anxiety on overall proficiency in

a second language. It did not explore the relationship between anxiety and particular language skills such as listening and speaking. Language learning anxiety was identified as having important consequences for instruction, testing, and curriculum development. However, such studies did not identify sources of anxiety.

It was not until the 1980s that research was directed towards the speaking anxiety of language students. Horwitz et al (1986) called this performance anxiety "communication apprehension" (CA). Fayer (1986), in a study of the language apprehension of native Spanish Puerto Rican university students learning English, found that the levels of CA were highest for speaking compared to other language skills. In terms of the relationship between ethnicity and anxiety, Martini et al (1992) pointed out that Asian speakers have more speech anxiety than American speakers due to their cultural background, previous educational practices and attitudes towards speaking.

A further dimension of anxiety research involved the examination of language learning anxiety in relation to in-class activities and instructor behaviour (Horwitz et al, 1986; Lucas, 1984; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a, 1991b; Young, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1992). One of the main aims of this part of the research was to provide recommendations for language teachers which, it was hoped, would help to reduce CA among second language students in the classroom.

1.3 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Most of the research on CA and language learning anxiety has been carried out with American students of foreign languages such as Japanese, Spanish and French (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al, 1986; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992; Young, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1992). The causes and extent of CA among other ethnic groups such as Chinese students have been recognised as a potentially rich area of research (e.g. Chung, 1988; Young 1987; Young, 1994) but little research has been carried out. In other areas of applied linguistics research, the relationship between ethnicity and learning styles has been the subject of study (e.g. Brown 1987; Chung, 1988; Gudykunst and Kim, 1984; Lai, 1994; Reid, 1987; Young, 1994). In such work, there is the recognition that different ethnic groups have varying cultural and educational backgrounds which influence the way they approach the learning of a target language. The investigation of CA among Chinese students extends this research by considering their response to the requirements of speaking and learning a second language.

This in-depth study of CA draws on the work carried out by Horwitz et al (1986) and Young (1990) on language learning anxiety and CA (see section 2.5.3 for review of this research). Two practical outcomes are envisaged for this research. It is hoped that a detailed study of the behaviour of Chinese students of English in the classroom will provide insights which will help

ESL professionals to interpret such behaviour appropriately. In addition, it is hoped that the results of the study will be used to facilitate the development of appropriate mechanisms, either internal or external to the students in order to reduce language learning anxiety in the classroom.

1.4 THE ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

There are eight chapters in the present thesis. The introductory chapter presents the background for the present study and highlights the research problem to be investigated. Chapter Two provides the reader with the conceptual background to the study by reviewing the related literature on the following concepts: language learning anxiety, CA, Chinese learning style, wait time and questioning. Chapter Three discusses the methodology. It describes the population and setting and gives a detailed profile for each subject. The research design, the research questions, data collection techniques and the limitations of the present study are also presented.

The three middle sections of the thesis (Chapters Four to Six) report on the data collected in relation to the three research questions. Chapter Four discusses the findings about the relative importance of the sources of CA (educational, social and cultural) identified for Chinese students of English. Chapters Five and Six examine the sources of CA in relation to certain in-class practices and wait time as well as the means developed by Chinese

students of English to cope with CA. All three chapters concluded with a summary of the chief findings.

Chapter Seven presents the three main areas (language distance, the cultural dimension of second language learning anxiety research and classroom practices) identified by the present study which warrant further discussion. The final chapter examines the theoretical, methodological and practical implications of the present study and suggests directions for future second language learning anxiety research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will define the essential characteristics of anxiety and describe different types of anxiety and approaches used in the study of anxiety. Next, it will investigate concepts related to second language learning anxiety, second language speaking anxiety and communication apprehension (CA). It will then discuss the educational, cultural and social characteristics of the learning style of the Chinese. Finally, the two related concepts of wait time and questioning techniques in the classroom will be examined.

2.2 ANXIETY

It is generally agreed that students' feelings about learning affect their ability to learn. One important affective variable in the learning process is anxiety (Bassano, 1983; Brown, 1987; Chastain, 1976; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a, 1991b; Scovel, 1978). Anxiety is a state of being uneasy,

apprehensive, or worried about what may happen. Scovel (1978:134) has defined it as " a state of apprehension, a vague fear".

Until the 1970s, research efforts had not been directed towards the investigation of the role of anxiety in language learning. The studies which were carried out on anxiety in the 1970s were difficult to interpret because of contradictory results which probably resulted from the use of what were only very general measures of anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989; Scovel, 1978). The marked increase in recent research on language learning anxiety (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al, 1986, 1988; Lucas, 1984; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1988, 1989, 1991a, 1991b, 1993; Phillips, 1992; Proulx, 1991; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992; Williams, 1991; Young, 1986, 1990, 1991) demonstrates the significance of this area in applied linguistics. In particular, a recent volume by Horwitz and Young (1991) provides an overview of the theory and research and attempts to link these to classroom practice.

2.2.1 Main Types of Anxiety

Anxiety is generally conceptualised in terms of either trait anxiety, state anxiety or situation specific anxiety. Each of these will be considered briefly in turn.

Trait Anxiety

Traits are a permanent personality characteristic (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992; Wildemuth, 1977). Trait anxiety may be defined as an individual's likelihood of becoming anxious in any situation (Spielberger, 1983). A person with high trait anxiety would be highly likely to become apprehensive in a number of different situations. Trait anxiety has been shown to have such effects as the impairment of cognitive functioning, memory disruption, and avoidance behaviours (Eysenck, 1979).

State Anxiety

State anxiety refers to an unpleasant emotional condition or temporary state. It is a combination of trait and situational anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a). It has a strong correlation with trait anxiety which suggests that increased levels of trait anxiety are associated with higher state anxiety.

A person suffering from state anxiety manifests a stable tendency to exhibit anxiety. Test anxiety is one common kind of state anxiety (Phillips, 1992) and consists of two types. The "good" kind of test anxiety is called *facilitating anxiety* since it helps motivate students' learning (Brown, 1987; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992, Scovel, 1978). The "bad" kind of test anxiety is termed *debilitating anxiety* since it harms students' performance indirectly

through worry and self-doubt and directly by reducing participation and creating overt avoidance in learning. The construct of a facilitating and debilitating dichotomy for the description of anxiety was first theorized by Alpert and Haber (1960).

Situation Specific Anxiety

Situation specific anxiety consists of anxiety which is aroused by a specific type of situation or event. The situation under consideration can be defined very broadly (for example, anxiety), more narrowly (for example, communication apprehension), or quite specifically (for example, stage fight). It is important that the researcher makes sure that the situation is defined specifically but not so specifically that it does not permit generalizations.

As situation specific anxiety is the focus of this research, specifically through CA, it is important to look briefly at the ways in which it has been tested. This approach involves trait measures limited to a given context. Subjects are tested for their anxiety reaction in a well-defined situation such as public speaking, class participation or role play.

In investigating situation specific anxiety, various aspects of the context are considered. Respondents are asked to make attributions of anxiety to

particular sources. By testing more detailed hypotheses, the process by which a given situation generates anxiety can be examined (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a and 1991b). This may be done through item content analysis of brief scales (such as Gardner's French Use Anxiety Scale, 1985) and factor analysis of larger scales (such as Horwitz et al's Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, 1986).

2.3 EARLY LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY STUDIES

Research carried out in the 1970s (Backman, 1976; Chastain, 1977; Gardner and Glikzman, 1976; Gardner et al, 1977; Kleinmann, 1977, Swain and Burnaby, 1976) investigated the role of language learning anxiety. However, as Scovel (1978) suggested in his review of the relevant literature, this research suffered several ambiguities because scholars were unable to establish a clear-cut relationship between anxiety and overall language learning achievement. He believes that it is partly due to the inconsistency of anxiety measures used and concludes that "it is perhaps premature to relate it (anxiety) to the global and comprehensive task of language acquisition" (Scovel, 1978:132).

Previous research on anxiety and second language learning has more successfully focused on the effects of anxiety on overall proficiency in a second language. Some of this research suggests that a negative relationship

exists between anxiety and second language performance (e.g. Chastain, 1976; Gardner et al, 1977; Gardner and Glikman, 1976; Kleinmann, 1977; Tucker et al, 1976). Other studies, however, state that anxiety may be positively or negatively related to particular language skills (Chastain, 1976; Tucker et al, 1976; Wittenborn et al, 1945). Still other findings suggest that there is no relationship between anxiety and performance (Backman, 1976; Pimsleur et al, 1962).

The concept of language learning anxiety has also been investigated in the context of attitudes and motivation and their relationship to proficiency (Chastain, 1976; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner et al, 1976). It was in one of these studies that Gardner et al (1976) developed the first specially designed instrument to measure foreign language anxiety. They developed a five-item instrument to measure French class anxiety as part of their test battery on attitudes and motivation and found small negative correlations between this scale and four measures of achievement. A shortcoming of the instrument was that it was restricted to French classroom anxiety. The Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) developed subsequently, contains the French Class Anxiety Scale (Gardner, 1985). Studies that have used the AMTB are generally more concerned with motivation and attitudes than with the more specific role of any single variant such as anxiety.

2.4 LANGUAGE SPEAKING ANXIETY

Research findings concerning students' anxiety in relation to speaking in a second language are relatively scarce (Young, 1990) although difficulty in speaking in class is probably the most frequently cited concern of anxious second language students (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al, 1986; McCroskey, 1984; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992; Scovel, 1978; Young, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1992; Young, 1994). This is not surprising, as most people readily acknowledge becoming anxious at times when asked to speak in public, even in their native language. Horwitz et al (1986) called this performance anxiety "communication apprehension" (CA).

Kleinmann (1977) was one of the first to examine the effect of anxiety on speaking performance. She administered a modified version of the Achievement Anxiety Test (Alpert and Haber, 1960) which was designed to measure the facilitating and debilitating effects of anxiety as discussed and related to state anxiety (see section 2.2.1) on the academic performance of her Spanish and Arabic students who were learning English. She found that her subjects' oral performance was positively affected by facilitating anxiety.

Bailey (1983) analysed some adult second language students' diary entries and concluded that competitiveness can lead to anxiety when language students compare themselves to others, or to an idealised self-image. Bailey

(1983:27) noted that "the stressful, competitive nature of oral public performance" was cited by her subjects in their diary entries as the main source of anxiety in a second language classroom.

Similarly, Koch and Terrell (1991) reported that students found oral presentations, role plays and charades to be the most anxiety-provoking language activities since they involve speaking in the second language in class. However, "working in small groups, discussing relevant topics, and relating grammar and vocabulary to their personal interests will make students feel comfortable" (Koch and Terrell, 1991:120). Their subjects were students in the first two years of Spanish class in the University of California, Irvine, and the information was obtained through interviews.

Price (1991) also used interviews to examine the question of foreign language anxiety from the perspective of anxious English-speaking students of French at the University of Texas at Austin. They told her that speaking in the foreign language was the greatest source of anxiety when she interviewed them. One subject said,

" French classes were very, very stressful for me, because I didn't speak well... everything came out in a Texas accent, which was horrible, because the professor would stop me and make me go over and over it and I still couldn't get it right. The more they make me do it, the more frightened I became" (p.104).

Samimy and Tabuse (1992) explored the possible influence of affective variables on the acquisition of Japanese. The subjects for this study were American university students who were beginning students of Japanese. It was found that anxiety was one of the important factors in determining the students' oral performance in Japanese.

From these studies, it is obvious that students often associate anxiety with speaking in class although the effects of anxiety on speech are often not clearly observable. Horwitz et al (1986) was the first to carry out a detailed examination of the dynamics of foreign language anxiety by using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). Based upon the work of Horwitz, in particular the FLCAS, Young (1990) developed a questionnaire to examine more systematically the types of in-class, speaking-oriented practices that evoke anxiety from the language student's perspective. Both Horwitz et al (1986) and Young (1990) employed a situation specific approach in their studies of second language anxiety. The FLCAS and Young's questionnaire will be reviewed in greater detail in the latter part of this chapter (section 2.5.3).

2.5 COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION (CA)

As CA is closely related to language learning anxiety and speaking anxiety (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al, 1986; McCroskey, 1984; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992; Scovel, 1978; Young, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1992; Young, 1994), in this section, CA is defined in more detail. The general research findings and measures used to investigate CA in foreign language learning situations are examined.

2.5.1 Definition

Research in the speech communication area (Daly, 1991; McCroskey, 1984) suggests that anxiety can affect an individual's performance. According to McCroskey (1984) and Mejias et al (1991), CA is defined as a person's level of fear associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons. In the field of applied linguistics, Horwitz et al (1986) define CA as a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people. In their studies, CA, together with fear of negative social evaluation and test anxiety, are the three components of foreign language learning anxiety.

CA causes people to worry when they have to perform in unfamiliar situations where they are the objects of attention and are being critically

evaluated by others whom they perceive to be dominating or demanding (Zimbardo, 1981). It is possible that teachers and other students are perceived by second language learners to be evaluators of their performance. Communicatively apprehensive people show avoidance and withdrawal in communication, and are more reluctant to get involved in conversations and to seek social interactions than others.

2.5.2 General Research Findings

To date, concepts relating to anxiety have been discussed. Specific forms of anxiety, namely trait, state and situation specific anxiety have been identified (see section 2.2.1 for details). It is important to reinforce the fact that CA can be experienced in situations other than language learning.

General CA, and CA associated with language learning, have certain characteristics in common. These include feelings of self-consciousness, fear of making mistakes, and a desire to be perfect when speaking (Friedman, 1980; Horwitz et al, 1986). CA sufferers of both groups perceive their communication to be less effective than that of their peers, and expect continued failure no matter what feedback they actually receive (McCroskey, 1977).

However, CA for language learners is different. CA in language learning is different from general CA in that it seems to be a "distinct complex of self-perception, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours... arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz et al, 1986:128). Second language students have the dual task not only of learning a second language but of performing in it, whereas anxious native speakers in a communication classroom generally have only performance concerns. In addition, second language students may have difficulty understanding others (Foss and Reitzel, 1988). Second language learning requires speakers to take risks because they know that it is difficult, if not impossible, to express themselves fully or "perfectly" in the new language. As Horwitz et al (1986) point out, second language learners "in presenting themselves to others may be threatened by the limited range of meaning and affect that can be deliberately communicated... Probably no other field of study implicates self-concept and self-expression to the degree that language study does" (Horwitz et al, 1986:130). CA has also been found to be closely related to self-esteem and risk-taking. The silent student in the classroom may also be unwilling to take risks and make mistakes in front of the others (Brown, 1987; Young, 1990).

2.5.3 Important Instruments in Foreign Language Anxiety Research

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz et al, 1986) and the questionnaire used in Young (1990) are reviewed in detail here as they are two important instruments used in the studies of second language speaking anxiety. They have also been adopted in the development of instruments for the present study since they have employed the situation specific approach, an approach which has yielded more meaningful and consistent results than other approaches in second language speaking anxiety studies (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a and 1991b).

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

An article published by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope in 1986, eight years after Scovel's review of language anxiety, entitled "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety" could be considered the single most important contribution to the recent literature on anxiety and is cited in most published articles on language learning anxiety. The FLCAS, a 33-item questionnaire described in the article, was designed to measure foreign language anxiety. It was based on an analysis of three potential sources of anxiety, namely CA, negative evaluation of performance and test anxiety. Later, it will be seen that in this study, negative evaluation of performance is actually investigated as a source of CA.

In the study reported by Horwitz et al (1986), the FLCAS was administered to seventy-five university students (thirty-nine males and thirty-six females ranging in age from eighteen to twenty-seven) from four intact introductory Spanish classes during the third week of their semester in the University of Texas during the summer of 1983. Speaking and listening were cited as the main sources of anxiety by the subjects.

Horwitz et al 's (1986) study suggests that language anxiety can be discriminated reliably from other types of anxiety. In an attempt to evaluate the theoretical framework of Horwitz et al (1986), MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) designed a three-phrase study. The results support two of Horwitz et al's (1986) hypotheses that CA and social evaluation are part of the elements of foreign language classroom anxiety but test anxiety is a general problem and not one that is specific to the language classroom. Further validating evidence for the theories of Horwitz et al is accumulating (for example, MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a, 1991b; Young, 1990).

An Investigation of Students' Perspectives on Anxiety and Speaking

In Young's (1990) study, a questionnaire designed to identify sources of anxiety related to speaking in a foreign language was administered to 135 university-level beginning Spanish students and 109 high school students in America. The questionnaire had three sections. The first section asked

students to agree or disagree with twenty-four items related to language anxiety. The aim of this section was to expand on findings on CA found in FLCAS (Horwitz et al, 1986). The second section asked students to indicate their level of anxiety regarding certain in-class practices and the third section asked students to identify instructor characteristics and instructor practices that helped reduce language anxiety.

The research findings suggested, among other things, that speaking in the foreign language is not the exclusive source of CA, and that speaking in front of the class is an important contributing factor. On the basis of the results, Young concluded that the instructor's relaxed and positive attitude in relation to error correction helped to reduce language anxiety.

Researchers in language learning acquisition and culture have pointed out that cultural differences and different cultures of classroom practice are also related to second language anxiety (Brown, 1987; Gudykunst and Kim, 1984; Harvey, 1985; Wette and Lee, 1991; Young, 1987; Young, 1994). The next section in this literature review will look at issues related to the learning style of Chinese students.

2.6 CHINESE LEARNING STYLE

The examination of Chinese learning style is central to the thesis and it is discussed in terms of three sets of characteristics: educational, social and cultural. The discussion foreshadows the investigation of the three categories as possible sources for CA. While each of these will be considered in turn, they are not discrete categories and in reality they overlap and intersect.

2.6.1 Educational Characteristics

Chinese learning methods have been discussed in detail in fields such as psychology, education and applied linguistics (Anderson, 1993; Au, 1980; Burnaby and Sun, 1989; Chung, 1988; Erbaugh, 1990; Gudykunst and Kim, 1984; Henderson, 1988; Jones, 1979; Lai, 1994; Martini et al, 1992; Melton, 1990; Young, 1987; Young, 1994). Within these articles, a number of common themes emerge relating to the preferred learning styles of the Chinese. In a review article of research into Chinese classrooms, Young (1987) concludes:

From the microethnographic and social-psychological data reviewed here, it is legitimate to conclude that there exist identifiable learning and teaching styles for Chinese students and teachers, and that these differ in significant ways from which the learning and teaching styles of other ethnic groups (1987:27).

Memory is fundamental to Chinese teaching methods. Chinese students are used to remembering details, and in particular elegant language, which they use as a model for their speech as they grow older (Chung, 1988; Hill, 1991; Wette and Lee, 1991). Chinese students feel that they will learn better if they are good at rote memorization, grammar rules, and sentence construction. Conversation presents a number of difficulties in that it requires students to make up or create exchanges appropriate to the context instead of according to a model (Anderson, 1993). Thus, it is not uncommon to come across a Chinese student who is very good at writing but who sounds less natural in an ordinary conversation.

Chinese students believe that the written word carries power, and that passing examinations leads to social and financial success. Civil Service examinations, introduced by the Chinese in 196 B.C., were not abolished until 1905. In China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Japan, examination scores, not preference, determine the college attended and major subject taken. Students expect teachers to lecture and to provide models which will yield notes on which examinations will be based. In general, they regard process-oriented teaching which uses such techniques as role-play and brainstorming, as a waste of time and so do not want to spend time on speaking tasks (Erbaugh, 1990). Similarly, some Chinese teachers feel that the use of such activities does not constitute "real teaching". Chinese students find it difficult to convince their parents or even themselves that they have learned or

achieved something through speaking tasks. To the Chinese, marks and grades are important. Assessments have to be carried out by recognised authorities such as teachers and examiners. They also think that self-assessment is not appropriate because it seems to relay unreliable and inaccurate data (Harvey, 1985). An important issue raised by Bassano (1983) and Thorp (1991) is the preference by Chinese students to have mistakes corrected immediately. Chinese students expect to be corrected once they have made a mistake. They want to know the exact and correct answers. Assessments on oral work are not as important as those on written work because it is the written work that carries more weight in the examination.

Chinese teachers are very sensitive to the status of their profession. In Asian countries, teachers are regarded as the "kings or queens" of the classrooms and no student is to challenge their authority (Burnaby and Sun, 1989). As a result, the classroom is teacher-centred with the teacher doing most of the talking. Students have to listen quietly and speak only when they are called upon. It is rude to ask the teacher a question because the teacher may not know the answer and it can be viewed as an indirect criticism of the way the teacher explains things (Thorp, 1991). Chinese students pay greater attention to the teacher and to other adults than children from other ethnic groups do (Young, 1987). Confucian ethics of respect for adults and teachers may reinforce this attitude.

Although a more student-centred approach has been introduced and encouraged recently, Chinese students are still more reluctant to speak than their European counterparts. They have been characterised as exhibiting relatively low verbal output, cautious and indirect speech, periods of silence, low expressiveness, and lack of eye contact (Harvey, 1985; Martini et al, 1992; Sato, 1990; Young, 1987).

2.6.2 Cultural Characteristics

Because each culture places emphasis on different types of communicative skills and strategies, it is necessary to look at the role culture plays in language use in the examination of communication apprehension of Chinese ESL students.

People differ from one another in their construction of events and in the different approaches they take to the anticipation of the same event. When there is a large cultural gap in the classroom, between the teacher and the students, misunderstandings and confusion can occur. It is particularly the case when there are basic cross-cultural differences in patterns of message decoding in interpersonal communication (Gudykunst and Kim, 1984).

In Western society, according to Gudykunst and Kim, the tradition of rhetoric since the time of Plato and Aristotle explicitly demonstrates the

crucial importance given to verbal messages. A primary function of speech in Western tradition is to express one's ideas and thoughts as clearly, logically, and persuasively as possible, so that the speaker can be fully recognised for his or her individuality in influencing others.

In Chinese culture, however, verbal messages primarily serve the function of enhancing social integration and harmony rather than promoting the speaker's individuality or self-motivated purposes. Therefore, Chinese are more concerned with the overall emotional quality of the interaction rather than with the meaning of particular words or sentences. This explains the use of subdued and ambiguous verbal expressions by Chinese students. To Westerners, their answers in the verbal exchanges may sound very vague. However, hesitancy and indirectness are commonly preferred in the Chinese culture. The Chinese ideal traditionally is a non-assertive and restrained communication style. Elaborate care may be taken not to be straightforward when communicating.

An important issue raised by Bannai (1981) and Jones (1979) is that Confucianism and Buddhism also place a high value on silence and nonverbal communication of feelings. Chinese students may then appear to be reluctant to answer and ask questions. They believe strongly in the proverb "Speech is silver, silence is golden". Silent Chinese students may appear to be anxious or uncommunicative in the eyes of a European teacher

whereas in fact they are enjoying their silence in the classroom, something which is totally acceptable in the Chinese contexts.

The concept of "face" is very important in Chinese culture, with a strong concern for the establishment and maintenance of a positive image for the individual. This in turn affects their willingness to express their opinions freely in public (Hendon, 1980; Hill, 1991; Xie, 1991). Chinese students are less likely to respond in situations when they are singled out before the group, and when their answers are subject to public evaluation by the teacher or the class. They prefer to speak only when they are sure of the answers.

For Chinese, the process of speaking displays a continual tension between two general communicative needs - the need to communicate as efficiently as possible and the need to be polite. Gudykunst and Kim (1984) and Sato (1990) have noted that in order to have a balance between these needs, Chinese students usually speak less than their European counterparts in the classroom. In Chinese culture, in order to be polite and to be perceived as being polite, it is better not to speak too much.

As Chinese cultural values are different from Western cultural values in relation to speaking and the use of language, Chinese students will confront new norms about language use when they learn English and have to use

English in the Western classrooms (Jones, 1979; Harvey, 1985; Hill, 1991; Young, 1987; Young, 1994).

An individual's behaviour is greatly affected by the society or community he/she relates to, it is thus important to examine the characteristics of Chinese society in relation to communication apprehension.

2.6.3 Social Characteristics

In Chinese society, close friends and family members always share their private lives. Such intense commitment between intimates is the source of an emotionally stable and secure community (Gudykunst and Kim, 1984; Young, 1994). Because of this, Chinese always strive to live up to the expectations of their intimates. They do not want to make mistakes as this brings shame to the whole group.

The traditional Chinese love of learning and hard working means that Chinese tend to achieve academic and professional success very rapidly (Chung, 1988; Lai, 1994 Young, 1994). Chinese students are always stereotyped as "good students" and "achievers". They are under constant pressure to succeed, imposed on them not only by their parents, but also their teachers, peers and to a certain extent society. As a result, some Chinese students prefer to remain silent in the classroom to listen and

attempt to absorb the material instead of actively participating in verbal communication. The classroom, for some Chinese students, is an environment where they can relax at times while at home they have to work very hard in order to please their parents.

In Chinese society, people take speaking very seriously and wrong speaking can bring social censure. People are to be held responsible for what they say. They seldom speak in public as they have to be careful about the results.

Gudykunst and Kim (1984) use the terms "restricted code" and "elaborated codes" not in the sense employed by Bernstein (1970) but to distinguish between different uses of verbal and non-verbal channels. The restricted code involves message transmission through verbal (word transmission) and nonverbal (intonation, facial features, gestures) channels. Restricted codes rely heavily on the hidden, implicit cues of the social context (such as interpersonal relationships, the physical and psychological environment, and other contextual cues). The elaborated codes, on the other hand, place little reliance on nonverbal and other contextual cues.

Chinese is a highly restricted language (Gudykunst and Kim, 1984). To be literate in Chinese, one must understand the meaning and the social context related to each character. The speaker has to know the culture, history, and

specific social context of the communication transaction involved. Because of this, it is possible that Chinese ESL students feel anxious about speaking when they are not sure that they have used the correct communication transaction in a new social context. In such a situation, silence may be the safest option.

It is also necessary to consider the importance attached to relationships in the Chinese context, which are based on social harmony. The roles for men and women are very clearly defined in a Chinese society. Chinese also show great respect to their elders. Thus, Chinese students may feel uncomfortable and inhibited when asked to work with people from a different age group or people of the opposite sex (Gudykunst and Kim, 1984).

Chinese submerge their personal interests and desires in favour of those of the total group. They have a greater degree of submission of individual identity, individualism, and self-expression than Westerners. Whatever an individual does is strongly related to the group that individual belongs to. This explains why Chinese students do not want to be singled out and be praised for their success (Lai, 1994; Young, 1994). In addition, Chinese students think that it is rude when students are permitted to call out their answers at will (Young, 1994).

After this examination of the Chinese educational, cultural and social characteristics, it seems that the preferred Chinese learning styles which place a great emphasis on writing instead of speaking will create more CA on the part of Chinese ESL learners because learning a second language also involves speaking.

In the next section, the concept of wait time will be examined in relation to communication apprehension and certain in-class practices.

2.7 WAIT TIME

In the previous section, aspects of Chinese learning style that may be potential sources of CA were discussed. This section discusses a potential source of CA that lies beyond the students, that is, the concept of wait time.

All verbal interactions require time. Time between teacher/student interactions can be used for "retrieval and translation of information, to reflect upon previous statements, to frame or complete a response, to complete a task, and to think" (Stahl, 1976). During wait time, cognitive processing occurs. Wait time, which is related to the duration of certain pauses between speakers, has been shown to have a consistent effect on the quality of verbal interaction in classrooms (Tobin, 1983).

In a series of studies of wait time in classrooms, Rowe (1974a, 1974b, 1986) found that, on average, teachers waited less than one second before calling on a student to respond, and that only a further second was allowed for the student to answer before the teachers intervened, either supplying the required response themselves, rephrasing the question, or calling on some other students to respond. This short wait time, usually one second or even less on the average, means that an adequate exchange of ideas and the nurturing of new ideas cannot take place. Rowe suggested that teachers could markedly improve the quality of discourse by increasing the wait time to three seconds or longer after a pause or a response in a wide range of instructional situations and levels ranging from primary to university level.

White and Lightbown (1984) found that in the second language classes, teachers asked almost all the questions and students were rarely given sufficient time to formulate their answers before the teacher repeated, rephrased, or went on to ask another student the question. The average wait time for the combined samples was only 2.1 seconds (based on total wait time divided by total number of questions) but 41% of these questions were unanswered. The average wait time decreased with the number of repetitions. In the 4th repetition, teachers were waiting an average of only 1.6 seconds. The shorter the wait time, the shorter the responses were and in some cases, there were no response at all.

Shrum (1985) found that in second language classes, wait time occurred after 94% of the solicitations. Although wait time in second language classes was found to be longer than that in science classes, it was still too short to allow thoughtful cognitive processing.

A substantial body of research findings (Altiere and Duell, 1991; Rowe, 1974a, 1974b, 1986; Sato, 1990; Shrum, 1986; Tobin, 1980, 1983, 1984, 1987; White and Lightbown, 1984) supports the notion that a longer wait time helps students to respond. Wait time is important because the language acquisition process requires students to attempt to say something and to make guesses about how the target language words have to be put together to express that meaning. Languages are learned, not through memorization of their rules and structures, but through internalizing these rules from input made comprehensible within a context of social interaction (Pica, 1987).

Thus, results suggest that in the second language classroom, if teachers want answers, they have to wait longer. It seems that five to ten seconds might be a reasonable wait time, considering the needs of both teachers and students (Rowe, 1974a, 1974b, 1986; Shrum, 1986; Tobin, 1987; White and Lightbown, 1984).

Wait time is also an important cultural dimension related to speaking anxiety. Sato (1990) pointed out that Chinese students needed longer wait

time than their European counterparts in a second language classroom because they were more reluctant to speak and did not want to make any mistakes in front of the class.

2.8 QUESTIONING

It is appropriate to examine the concept of questioning in the classroom as it is closely related to speaking, CA and wait time. Questioning plays an important part in all in-class practices. For example, through the use of appropriate questions, teachers provide students with a cognitive focus on the instructional objectives. Similarly, a clear explanation in response to students' questions can clarify misunderstanding that might otherwise inhibit learning (Chamot and O'Malley, 1990; Gall, 1970; Lynch, 1991; Pica, 1994). Aschner (1961:45) highlighted the importance of questioning in the learning process when he called the teacher "a professional question maker" and claimed that the asking of questions is "one of the basic ways by which the teacher stimulates student thinking and learning."

2.8.1 Types of Questions

According to Winne (1979), there are two kinds of questions, higher cognitive or divergent questions and lower cognitive or convergent questions. Winne (1979) defined higher cognitive or divergent questions as those requiring students to mentally manipulate bits of information previously learned to create or support an answer with logically reasoned evidence. Operations presumed to underline responses to higher cognitive questions most closely correspond to application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation in Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956). Lower cognitive or convergent questions are those calling for verbatim recall or recognition of factual information previously read or presented by a teacher. These questions correspond most closely to the levels of knowledge and comprehension in Bloom's taxonomy.

Redfield and Rousseau (1981) reviewed Winne's (1979) research data and concluded that "regardless of type of study or degree of experimental validity, teachers' predominant use of higher cognitive questions has positive effect on students' achievement" as students tend to give good answers after careful thinking and analysis. In investigating the cognitive complexity of the written production of ESL learners, Zhang (1987) also found that students produced more in response to higher level questions than lower level ones.

2.8.2 Questioning in the Classroom

Asking and answering questions is part of almost any conversation exchange but it is particularly characteristic of classroom interaction. It is thus appropriate to examine questioning techniques in the classroom.

Ralph (1982) argued that second language teachers should not always ask questions at the level of proficiency of the students. Instead, they should ask questions at a higher level of difficulty in order to stimulate thinking. Teachers should, however, ask fairly easy questions at first, to help build up confidence. Teachers should also require students to ask pertinent questions as well. His research indicated that two issues are involved with questions: cognitive complexity and linguistic complexity.

Long and Sato (1983) noted that the classroom speech of second language teachers is affected by at least two kinds of constraints. These constraints are the classroom as the setting for conversation, including the patterns of speech associated with the role of teacher, and those constraints arising from the limited linguistic proficiency of the students.

An important issue raised by Wu (1993) is that most studies on teacher questions have so far been carried out in classrooms in the West. Relatively little research has been conducted in the East where cultural values and

classroom settings are different. He also pointed out that previous research had tended to neglect factors such as students' attitudes and interpersonal variables on questioning and answering behaviour in the classroom.

The present study, will try to fill this gap as it investigates CA from the students' perspective. In addition, the subjects are Chinese ESL students whose Asian background will, hopefully, yield a new dimension in the results.

2.9 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have examined the concepts related to anxiety, language learning anxiety, language learning speaking anxiety, and CA as well as the two main instruments developed to investigate CA. The areas of Chinese learning style, wait time and questioning have also been explored.

In the next chapter, we will look at the methodology employed in the present study to collect data on CA and issues related to CA.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methods employed in this study in investigating communication apprehension among Chinese ESL students. The case study approach adopted in the present study has a focus "on a single entity, usually as it exists in its naturally occurring environment" (Johnson, 1992:75). This method can also provide rich information about an individual learner and "inform us about the processes and strategies that individual L2 learners use to communicate and learn, how their personalities, attitudes, and goals interact with the learning environment" (Johnson, 1992:76) and hence is appropriate for this research.

Examples of applied linguistics research that have employed the case study approach are Schmidt and Frota's (1986) study which investigated how an adult learner of Portuguese developed the basic conversational ability and Hawkins' (1988) study as to how fourth grade ESL students cope with academic content and language demands. The case study approach has also been widely used to examine writing processes in L1 (Lauer and Asher, 1988) and L2 (Urzua, 1987) research.

The first half of this chapter is devoted to a discussion of the population and setting as well as the characteristics of subjects. The second half describes in detail the research design and the instruments which are used in this study.

3.1 POPULATION AND SETTING

The school chosen as the context for this study is a girls' high school in New Zealand, which offers a wide range of academic subjects. According to the Education Review Office Report (1994), the students are well presented, polite, enthusiastic, motivated to succeed, self confident, and self assured with high levels of achievement while the teachers are caring, professional and tolerant towards ESL students.

There are about 1200 students from Form 3 to Form 7 including 100 ESL students of whom 65 are Chinese. Thus approximately 5% of the students in this school are Chinese. Thirty of the Chinese students have ESL language support in periods which do not conflict with core subjects such as English, Mathematics, and Science. Each ESL student has a Form 7 peer support tutor whose role is to provide care and guidance. The tutor and the ESL student meet once a week. In general, such ESL students are mainstreamed.

The researcher is an ESL teacher in the school and has observed that the staff members are supportive of Chinese ESL students. At the same time, however, they express concern that while Chinese ESL students achieve well academically, they are usually quiet in class and show reluctance to speak.

Approval to carry out the present study was granted by the school after consultation with the principal (Appendix A).

3.2 SUBJECTS

3.2.1 Selection

The two groups of subjects who took part in the study will be described: the pilot group and the main group. The pilot group were adult Chinese ESL students in the same school. The instruments were piloted with this group of adult students to gauge their feasibility and to trial the length of time required for each procedure. The second group of students were the senior secondary Chinese ESL students who were the subjects in the main study.

The Pilot Study

The twelve adult Chinese ESL students were chosen as subjects for the pilot study because they formed an intact group of ESL students who had the same ethnic background as the subjects in the main study. Besides, the researcher had taught these adult students and rapport had already been established within a similar teaching context.

The Main Study

Six students were invited to participate in the study. They were chosen out of the 65 Chinese ESL students, two from each senior form (Form 5 - Form 7). These six students were given the option to participate in the study or not and they all agreed to be the subjects. The students were chosen from the senior part of the school because they had been in New Zealand for a longer period of time and it was hoped that they could provide more information in respect to research question three when asked how they coped with CA. Another reason for selecting these students was that they had acquired quite high levels of English proficiency after their years of study in New Zealand. In that sense, their language learning experience would be valuable when investigating the relationship between proficiency and CA in this study because previous research (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al, 1986; McCroskey,

1984; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992; Young, 1990, 1991, 1992) has indicated that CA affects learners' proficiency performance.

3.2.2 Characteristics of Subjects

The information in this section relating to the characteristics of subjects is based on preliminary interviews (see section 3.3.2) with the subjects and teachers.

Although all subjects are Chinese, they are from different parts of the Chinese-speaking world and have different motivations for coming to New Zealand. For example, the two girls from Taiwan (students A and B) reported that they were sent to New Zealand principally to learn better English. Student C, on the other hand, came from Hong Kong because of political uncertainty in her own country as well as to meet parental expectations (for example, acquiring a good command of English to help in the family business). Students D, E and F who are from the People's Republic of China came to New Zealand for a better life.

Profiles of the six subjects are summarised in Table 3.1 below, followed by detailed descriptions:

TABLE 3.1
PROFILES OF SUBJECTS

| STUDENT | AGE | COUNTRY OF ORIGIN | LENGTH OF TIME IN N.Z. | CLASS | SUBJECTS TAKEN | ESL SUPPORT PER WEEK | LANGUAGE(S) USED AT HOME |
|---------|-----|-------------------|------------------------|--------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| A | 15 | Taiwan | one year | Form 5 | ESL English Science Maths Art Transition to work | four hours | Chinese |
| B | 17 | Taiwan | three years | Form 7 | Calculus Biology Chemistry Physics Statistics | nil | Chinese |
| C | 16 | Hong Kong | five years | Form 6 | Maths English Physics Biology Chemistry | nil | Chinese English |
| D | 15 | China | four years | Form 5 | English Maths Biological Science Geography Transition to work | nil | Chinese |
| E | 17 | China | five years | Form 7 | Calculus Physics Chemistry Statistics Accounting | one hour | Chinese |
| F | 16 | China | five years | Form 6 | Maths Physics Biology Chemistry Computer Studies | nil | Chinese |

Student A

Student A is fifteen. This Taiwanese student came to New Zealand on her own in 1994 to study in Form 5 since her parents believe that the increased exposure to English would help her in acquiring the language. She started learning English in Taiwan when she was five but did not need to use English for daily communicative purposes there. She is the only child in her family. Her father is a rich merchant in Taiwan who hopes that she will be able to help him to look after his business when she has completed her studies, particularly in his foreign trade with America where a good command of English is important.

Student A is boarding with a Taiwanese woman who is a lecturer in accounting at a local university and speaks very good English. Student A was introduced to her host as a boarder because they have some mutual friends in Taiwan.

Student A is very shy. She seldom talks in class and has four hours ESL support every week. However, she always tries to use English rather than Chinese in school as she knows that practice is important. For example, in the discussion for the ranking exercise (see section 3.3.2), she tried to use as much English as she could despite difficulties in expressing her views even though using Chinese was permitted. She is mainstreamed, takes

Science, English (ESL), English, Mathematics, Art and Transition to Work and is considered to be a diligent student by her teachers. She is very good at Art and wants to be an artist although her father expects her to be involved in the business field in the future.

After school, she enjoys mixing with other Taiwanese girls and speaks in Mandarin. She has formed a Mathematics tuition group with a Hungarian girl and they stay after school twice a week to help one another in Mathematics. She recognises that speaking with people from other nationalities requires her to speak English. This is linked with the point made earlier about her determination to use English in the discussion related to the ranking exercise.

Student B

Student B is also from Taiwan. She came to New Zealand with her sister in 1992 to study at the Form 5 level. When she first came to the school, her English proficiency was low and she was not mainstreamed. She had eight hours ESL support in the first term when she enrolled and worked very hard resulting in the award of a Form 5 merit prize.

She is now in Form 7 and is aged seventeen. She has made very good progress in learning English and no longer requires any ESL support.

Instead, she has volunteered to be a peer support tutor to help other ESL students. She has been paired up with Student A because of their similar background. She takes Calculus, Statistics, Biology, Chemistry and Physics.

Student B mixes well with other girls and always speaks in English, even when with her own ethnic group. She wants to be a scientist as her father owns a chemical factory in Taiwan. Her family moved to New Zealand in 1994.

Both student A and student B can be viewed as similar to many Chinese ESL students who come to New Zealand because of parental expectations and in order to improve their English.

Student C

Student C arrived in New Zealand about five years ago when she was eleven with her brother and sister while her parents remained in Hong Kong. She came with very little English and needed considerable ESL support when she was in intermediate school but has made very good progress since then.

She is now sixteen and is in Form 6 where she takes English, Chemistry, Mathematics, Physics, Biology and Chemistry. At this stage, she does not need any special language support at school. Her mother moved to New

Zealand in 1994 but her father only comes for a few weeks every year as he still has to look after his business in Hong Kong. Her father speaks good English whereas her mother is less proficient in English but is able to manage on her own in New Zealand. Her mother is an adult ESL student in the same school.

Student C is very out-going and participates readily in class. At school, she mixes well with native English speaking students. Her English is fluent and she only speaks Chinese when her mother cannot express herself in English. At home, English is the main language because all members of the family know that it is important to speak good English. Her ambition is to be a veterinary surgeon.

Subject C's situation is similar to that of those Chinese ESL students who come here under the category of business migration. They come here mostly because of the political uncertainty in Hong Kong after 1997.

Student D

Student D came to New Zealand from the People's Republic of China when she was eleven. She had no English when she first came to intermediate school and was not mainstreamed.

Her father owns a market garden and came here many years ago but went back to see the family every year until 1989 when all family members were allowed to come to New Zealand. He speaks fluent English but has no time to help his children as he is busy with his farm work. Her mother does not speak any English and there is no incentive for her to learn the language since all her friends speak Chinese and her activities are mostly on the farm.

There are five other children in the family. However, unlike student D, they do not receive additional English support at school. At home, Chinese is the language of communication. All children have to help with farm work after school. They also help in the stall in the flea market every Saturday because they can communicate with the customers in English.

Student D is now fifteen and is in Form 5 where she takes English, Geography, Mathematics, Biological Science and Transition to Work. She is very quiet in class although she speaks fluent English. She has once mentioned that she is still a Chinese and never feels at home in New Zealand

although the living standard here is much better than that in China. After her studies, she wants to be an English teacher and to return to teach in China.

Student E

This student is aged seventeen and came to New Zealand from the People's Republic of China five years ago with very little English but she worked hard to improve her English when she was in intermediate school. After attending another high school for four years, she came to the present school in 1994 to attend Form 7 because she believed that the school offered a more varied academic curriculum.

Her parents run a takeaway shop and she has to help them after school. Her father came here on his own as a chef many years ago, leaving his family in China but the rest of the family was allowed to come to New Zealand in 1989. Both parents speak enough English to run the shop. Chinese is the language of communication at home.

Student E works hard at school and takes Statistics, Calculus, Accounting, Physics and Chemistry at seventh form level. At school, she has one hour of ESL support every week as she needs some help with her written English. She performs well in class, but feels uncomfortable with seminars and discussion. Her ambition is to be an accountant.

After school, student E works part-time in a supermarket before helping in the takeaway shop as she wants to save more money for her tertiary education. She mixes well with others although she is seen to be a quiet member of the group.

Student F

Student F is the younger sister of student E. She is sixteen and is in Form 6 where she takes Mathematics, Computer Studies, Physics, Biology and Chemistry. Unlike her sister who is quiet, student F is very talkative. She does not care about making mistakes and believes that it is important to practise when learning a language. Her ambition is to be a computer programmer.

Student F mixes well with others and is the only one among the six subjects who takes part in sports. She is reluctant to help in the takeaway shop as she prefers spending more time on her studies.

To summarise then, the six subjects want to achieve well in school because of their parents' expectations and their goals. All these students were willing to participate in this study.

3.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This section will present the three research questions and examine the data collection techniques employed in the study. Some indication of the way in which data was collected will also be discussed.

3.3.1 Research Questions

The three research questions which are the focus of this study on CA are as follows:

1. What is the relative importance of the three main types of identified sources of CA (educational, social and cultural) for Chinese learners of English?
2. What are the sources of CA in relation to certain in-class practices and wait time?
3. What ways have the students developed to cope with CA?

A number of procedures were used to collect data for the research questions including interviews, discussion, a ranking exercise, a questionnaire, a "classroom" session and scenarios (hypothetical situations). The instruments used in relation to each research question are summarised below:

Research Question 1Methodology

- a. Interviews
- b. Ranking and Grouping
- c. Discussion

Research Question 2Methodology

- a. Questionnaire
- b. "Classroom" Session

Research Question 3Methodology

- a. Scenarios
- b. Discussion

3.3.2 Data Collection Techniques

In order to tap ideas from different sources and perspectives, the data collection techniques used in the present study are a combination of widely used anxiety research methods and new ones. Interviews, questionnaires and discussion have been commonly used in anxiety research (for example, Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al, 1986; Price, 1991; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992; Young, 1990, etc.). However, the present study has also employed such techniques as the ranking exercise, the "classroom" session and the scenarios although they have not been frequently used in anxiety research. These instruments were chosen because of their suitability in terms of the experience of the subjects and practicability. The following session will examine each data collection technique in details.

Preliminary Interview

The preliminary interview was conducted either at lunch time or after school with each subject in an informal and relaxed way. Care was taken to ensure that the atmosphere was as non-threatening as possible. It was explained to each subject that the focus of the study was to find out how they felt about speaking English in different contexts. It was emphasised that this did not involve the assessment of their English skills and that participation was voluntary. Once agreement was obtained to take part in the study, further

details about the profile and characteristics of each subject (see section 3.2.2) were collected in this session.

Interview

Firstly, the aim of the interview was to provide a chance for all subjects to meet one another and to be informed about the procedure for the study. A further aim of the interview was to gauge how readily students would identify with and respond to questions about language learning anxiety. The interview was thus quite general in nature.

The interview was tape-recorded to free the researcher to participate naturally in the discussion and to allow the discussion to be reviewed in detail. It was carried out in a group with the six subjects. No individual interview was arranged because the main objective of this activity was to provide a chance for the six subjects to meet one another so that they would speak more readily and freely in the discussion and other sessions. Although the subjects were allowed to use Chinese, they used English in the interview which lasted forty minutes.

In preparation for the interview, information about sources of CA (educational, cultural and social) was gathered in two ways - from the literature (see sections 2.5.2 and 2.6) and from the researcher's own views

about the likely sources of CA. This formed the basis of the discussion with subjects. Information gathered from the discussion with the students was then used to supplement the pool of materials on sources of CA. The information gained in this way was used as the basis for a ranking exercise (see below).

The Ranking Exercise

A ranking exercise (Appendix B) was constructed in relation to sources of CA. The aim was to find out the most important sources that generate CA from the students' point of view.

Although the ranking exercise format had not been widely used in previous anxiety research, it was chosen because the subjects were familiar with this procedure from other ESL tasks. Another reason for using this format was because the ranking exercise was the first activity in the study that the subjects had to do at home and its simple and straightforward format helped build up their confidence. In addition, it provided a means to build on the information obtained from the interviews. It was also useful in that it led easily on to discussion among subjects as they compared responses.

The ranking exercise is divided into two parts. In Part I, there are three sections or groups listing different sources of CA (educational, social and cultural respectively). Some items (for example, attitudes towards voluntary

speaking, wait time, etc.) are repeated in order to cross check the reliability of the results.

The first group of items (Part I, Group A) in the ranking exercise includes educational sources of CA. This category can be broadly defined as sources of CA relating to educational practices and classroom behaviour as well as to the codes, that is the languages themselves (English and Chinese). This category includes items such as the following:

1. differences between education systems in New Zealand and the subjects' home countries
2. different teaching methods
3. attitudes towards voluntary speaking
4. preparation time given before speaking
5. different emphasis on teaching
6. different speaking practice opportunities
7. subjects' comprehension of English
8. differences between English and Chinese

Also, the ranking exercise includes questions on social sources of CA (Part I, Group B), that is, CA resulting from the social context of the learners. Examples from this section include their self-esteem and feelings towards Western societies. This category includes items such as the following:

1. lack of confidence in speaking
2. social pressure
3. worry about progress
4. attitudes about making mistakes
5. different accents
6. feelings of unease or difference when among native English speakers
7. low self-esteem
8. attitudes towards public speaking.

The last part of the ranking exercise (Part I, Group C) includes cultural sources of CA. This last category comprises CA which results from the particular cultural system and attitudes of Chinese learners. Items included are:

1. attitudes towards voluntary speaking
2. deliberate care given to speaking
3. different teaching styles
4. parental expectations
5. attitudes towards education in Chinese culture
6. attitudes towards wait time
7. differences in culture
8. attitudes towards speaking

Thus, there were three groups of items in all as represented by Part I, Groups A, B and C.

Statements relating to the first group were presented to the students and they were asked to rank (from 1-8) each group according to their order of importance. The students had to put (1) next to the statement that they thought was most important in generating CA and (8) for the least important one. They also completed the ranking exercise for group two, then group three in a similar way.

In Part II, each subject was asked to rank the three groups (educational, social and cultural sources of CA) which were mentioned in Part I according to their overall importance as related to the sources of CA (see Appendix B).

The subjects were asked to complete the ranking exercise at home so that they had sufficient time to work on the task. They were told that their answers would form the basis of a discussion the following day. Students were given the opportunity to ask questions about any items which were less clear to them. The ranking exercise was completed in English.

Discussion

After the subjects had completed the ranking exercise at home, the researcher held a discussion session with them at lunch time the following day. They were allowed to eat their lunch during the discussion as a more informal and relaxing atmosphere seemed conducive to encouraging participation. The aim of the discussion was to clarify the results of the ranking exercise and to give subjects the opportunity to elaborate on their choices. The session was tape recorded.

Each subject was asked to tell others about her rankings and to give the reasons for her choices. Although they were allowed to use their first language, only one subject - Student A who came from Taiwan in 1994 - used some Chinese whenever she was not able to express herself fully. However, she shifted back to English as often as she could. One reason for using English could be that the subjects had acquired quite high levels of English proficiency after their years of study in New Zealand. Another reason could be because they treasured every chance available to them to use English. They all participated readily in the discussion.

Questionnaire

Previous research indicates that different in-class practices appear to cause various degrees of CA (for example, Young, 1990). Based on the FLCAS (Horwitz et al, 1986) and Young (1990), a questionnaire was developed to investigate the effect of in-class practices on CA. This procedure was used to see if previous findings are also applicable to the present study (see section 2.5.3 for details). The questionnaire format was chosen because it had been widely used in anxiety research (for example, Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al, 1986; Young, 1990).

Every item in the questionnaire (Appendix C) is a statement that is intended to gauge the subjects' feelings about certain in-class speaking activities. The subjects were asked to indicate how uncomfortable or nervous they felt about each statement by putting a circle around the number of the words that described how they felt. There are five options to choose from in each statement: "very relaxed", "moderately relaxed", "neither relaxed nor anxious", "moderately anxious" and "very anxious". Subjects were told that there were no right or wrong answers and that they should choose the closest answer to their experience.

There are twenty-five items in the questionnaire. The subjects were asked to complete the questionnaire at home so that they would have as much time as

they needed. Their choices were discussed the following day at lunch time and the discussion was tape recorded. The tape was played to them afterwards.

The twenty-five items can be grouped under twelve categories as follows:

| <u>Category</u> | <u>Item Number</u> |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| a. Preparation in advance | 9,10,11,16,24,25 |
| b. Being singled out in class | 2,8,9,10,11,14,24 |
| c. Voluntary speaking | 3,6,20 |
| d. No preparation in advance | 1,6,22 |
| e. Attitudes towards mistakes | 4,7,13,17 |
| f. Wait time | 5,12 |
| g. Reading in class | 14,18 |
| h. Asking questions in class | 6,11,12 |
| i. Role-play | 15 |
| j. Discussion | 16,20 |
| k. Pair/group work | 23,24 |
| l. Repeating after the teacher | 8,19 |

"Classroom" Session

One of the objectives of this study was to examine the sources of CA in relation to certain in-class practices. In order to investigate whether group work, reading aloud from a seat, and answering unprepared questions in class generate different degree of CA as Horwitz et al (1986) and Young (1990) maintain, these three in-class practices were chosen as the speaking activities in the "classroom" session. This activity also helped cross check the reliability of students' answers given in the questionnaire and the validity of the data collected.

Another purpose of the "classroom" session was to extend the findings of Horwitz et al (1986) and Young (1990) as they did not explore how students felt about taking part in classroom activities without enough preparation in advance. In the "classroom" session, first hand information would be obtained by observation. A further aim of this activity was to gain insights into how the "educational events" of the language classroom are enacted.

Ideally, data could have been gathered from classroom observation, or from sessions held in the subjects' mainstreamed classes. However, this was not feasible since the subjects were in three different forms. Thus, a "classroom" session was conducted. Since all subjects were science students, a science

lesson was arranged at a lunch time. The subjects were informed of the session in advance but without details of the teaching tasks.

A full-time science teacher in the school, Mr X, conducted the session. Mr X is the co-ordinator of the Technology Committee in the school. He is highly respected as a teacher and has acted as the head of the Science department in 1994. Two of the students had already been in his class (Students B and C). He did not know the other four subjects but all subjects knew of him since he often spoke in assemblies on matters relating to Science. He is humorous and well liked by students in the school. The researcher worked with him to design the tasks on the topic of genetics.

For the group work activity in the "classroom" session, each subject was asked to find a partner and complete the work sheet on "dominant and recessive alleles" (Appendix D). They had to report to the class their findings afterwards. For the reading activity, each subject had to read some sections of the handout (Appendix E). Mr X then asked the reader some questions on what she had just read. Other subjects were also asked some unprepared questions. Mr X was requested to make the "classroom" session as authentic as possible. The session was tape recorded and each group had a tape recorder so that dialogues spoken in group work were recorded. In addition, the researcher noted observations which helped to verify results of the questionnaires and comments from the ranking exercise.

Scenarios

In order to examine how subjects attempted to cope with CA, three scenarios (Appendix F) were used. Each scenario depicted a Chinese learner who had anxiety about speaking for different reasons - low self-esteem, lack of confidence in voluntary speaking and finding the Chinese language very different from English. The problems included in the scenarios are typical of the difficulties encountered by Chinese learners in relation to CA. These areas were also rated as the main sources of CA by subjects in the ranking exercise and the questionnaire. The subjects were asked to make suggestions for the situations. The subjects were allowed to complete the task at home so that they had enough time to work on it. A discussion was held the following day and the subjects then explained what they would do to cope with the situation mentioned in the task. Statements from the students' answers formed the basis of the final discussion.

The scenarios were used in the hope that learners would identify themselves with the individuals and become involved in an hypothetical situation. This activity would also stimulate their imagination. This kind of task is a useful and unobtrusive way to probe the possible ways of coping with CA. As with the ranking exercise, scenarios are something the subjects are familiar with and tasks appropriate to the age group and experience of the students. Unlike

role plays and simulation games which normally aim at assessing how the language is used, the suggestions made in response to the scenarios by the subjects were the main concern in this case. The scenario format was particularly useful for the ESL subjects in the present study since the questions acted as naturalistic cues for them to respond to rather than their being asked to make their own suggestions out of context.

3.3.3 Limitations

There are some limitations in the design of the present study. The sample size is small and as a result it is not possible to generalize the results obtained to other groups. However, the small number of subjects does make it possible to carry out an in-depth study of CA in relation to Chinese ESL students and also makes it possible to obtain rich data about them.

Another limitation of the present study is that in two of the instruments, the ranking exercise and the questionnaire, subjects were given options to choose from instead of being asked to give their own ideas freely. To a certain extent, this could affect and limit their expression of ideas. However, it must be borne in mind that these subjects are ESL students who find it easier to state their opinions firstly by choosing from options given, then by clarifying and elaborating on their ideas in discussion. A variety of instruments were

also used to collect data for each research question, some of which were much less structured, in order to provide multiple sources of information.

It would have been more authentic if there had been a real classroom session for the subjects. Once again, the design of the instrument was affected by practicality and availability. It would have been very difficult, if not impossible, to arrange a real classroom situation for all six subjects at the same time as they were in three different forms. Although the purpose of this activity was to verify data collected from the ranking exercise and questionnaire, and to investigate whether group work, reading aloud from a seat, and answering unprepared questions in class generate different degree of CA as Horwitz et al (1986) and Young (1990) maintain, the "classroom" session also allowed the researcher to focus on observation.

It would also have been useful to monitor and examine the interaction in English carried out by the subjects in the general school environment as, for example, in the school office, canteen, playground, library and other informal settings. However, an investigation of all aspects of the communication of ESL students is beyond the scope of the present study.

3.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has explored the population and setting of the present study and the characteristics of the subjects. A detailed description of the research design has been presented which includes the research questions and

CHAPTER FOUR

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE SOURCES OF CA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the first part of the study relating to research question one. The first half of the chapter is devoted to the data collected from the subjects about the relative importance of the sources of CA (educational, social and cultural) which have been identified for Chinese students of English. The second half discusses the significance of the results, followed by a summary of the findings.

4.2 METHOD FOR ANALYSING DATA

The data collected through the ranking exercise was analysed similar to the method described by Youngman (1983) in which points were allocated to each rank so that the addition of the scores produces some indication of the overall order.

In the present ranking exercise, one point was allocated to the most important reason for anxiety when speaking English, two for the second

most important, and so on, giving as many as eight points to the least important reason. In the results, the smaller the point, the more important as a source of CA is the statement. The means and standard deviations for each item are also listed. In interpreting the results, the smaller the mean, the greater the weight attached to that reason.

The verbal report data gathered during the discussion session after the ranking exercise were transcribed. Throughout this chapter, excerpts will be presented from the verbal reports which are related to the findings in the ranking exercise.

4.3 SOURCES OF CA IN RELATION TO EDUCATION

(GROUP A OF THE RANKING EXERCISE)

This section looks at the ranking made by the subjects in relation to the identified educational sources of CA. Aspects that require attention will also be examined.

4.3.1 Subjects' Responses

The subjects' responses in this section of the ranking exercise are summarised in Table 4.1:

TABLE 4.1
Educational Sources of CA (Group A)
Means and Standard Deviations of Ranking

| CAUSES OF ANXIETY | Mean Ranking | S.D. of Ranking |
|---------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| (a) Differences in the education systems | 3.67 | 2.42 |
| (b) Different teaching styles | 4.00 | 2.37 |
| (c) Voluntary speaking | 4.00 | 2.76 |
| (d) Comprehension of English | 5.67 | 2.58 |
| (e) Language distance between Chinese and English | 3.17 | 1.94 |
| (f) Insufficient preparation time given before speaking | 5.00 | 1.41 |
| (g) Different emphasis on speaking | 6.17 | 1.94 |
| (h) Different speaking practice opportunities | 4.33 | 2.50 |

The two most important educational sources of CA ranked by the subjects are the language distance between Chinese and English (item e) and the differences in education systems in New Zealand and the subjects' home countries (item a). The two least important sources of CA ranked are the subjects' comprehension of English (item d) and the different emphasis on

speaking (item g). The four sources of CA ranked by the subjects between the two extremes are different teaching styles (item b), attitudes towards voluntary speaking (item c), different speaking practice opportunities (item h) and insufficient preparation time given before speaking (item f).

4.3.2 Discussion

The discussion will focus on the five educational sources of CA listed below which received prominence in the ranking:

1. The le...

structural differences. In terms of phonology, as pointed out by Chang (1987), some English phonemes do not have Chinese counterparts and therefore are hard for Chinese to distinguish and produce. Stress, intonation and juncture are all areas of difficulty for Chinese ESL students. As a result, they find English hard to pronounce, and have trouble learning to understand the spoken language. Although there are certain similarities between the syntactic structures of English and Chinese, the divergence is vast. For example, Chinese ESL students find English inflection generally confusing and this causes frequent errors. As the writing system of Chinese is non-alphabetic, Chinese ESL students have difficulty in learning English spelling patterns. They also find it difficult to use English idiomatic expressions effectively. The effects of the language distance between Chinese and English in relation to language learning anxiety have not been explored in depth by linguists and researchers apart from through the work of Young (1994) entitled *Crosstalk and Culture in Sino-American Communication*. Young points out that language distance between Chinese and English makes it hard for Chinese to learn English or vice versa and this leads to language learning anxiety. (A fuller description of this will be given in Chapter Seven.)

Differences in Education Systems in New Zealand and the Subjects' Home Countries

Differences in education systems in New Zealand and the subjects' home countries were ranked as the second most important reason for CA. The respondents expressed great concern about the New Zealand education system in the discussion. These concerns ranged from classroom practices to teaching and learning styles. This is discussed more fully in the next section. The different education system in New Zealand was nominated by the Chinese students in this study as a contributing factor to the anxiety related to language use.

Voluntary Speaking and Teaching Styles

The subjects ranked different teaching methods and different in-class practices such as voluntary speaking as the third most important source of CA. Murray (1981:57) pointed out that "There is the traditional Chinese conception of education. This keeps students tight-lipped in class when they should be asking questions and deludes them into thinking that a teacher is to pour out facts, which a student passively receives." Murray's findings appear to correspond with those in this study as Chinese students of English found it hard to speak readily in class. For example, one respondent made the following remarks about voluntary speaking in the discussion:

"I don't like to speak in class because I enjoy listening to others' speaking. I think I learn better this way. Why should we talk all the time in order to learn? "

The student highlighted that it is important for her to listen in the learning process and linked this to her reluctance to talk. This result is different from the findings of Horwitz et al (1986), Young (1990) and Aida (1994). In Horwitz et al's (1986) study, for example, 59% of the American university students learning Spanish disagreed that voluntary speaking was frustrating. None of the subjects found voluntary speaking to be anxiety-provoking. However, speaking in public as opposed to voluntary speaking was cited as the main source of anxiety. Young's (1990) subjects were American university-level students studying Spanish in the first year and high school students. They did not indicate that voluntary speaking was anxiety provoking. For them, voluntary speaking was ranked as neither causing the subjects to feel anxious nor relaxed. In Aida's (1994) study, only 5% of the American university students said voluntary speaking was an embarrassing experience. The majority reported that voluntary speaking in the Japanese class did not cause them frustration. Thus these results relating to voluntary speaking differ significantly from those found in the present study.

The dissimilarity could be seen to be related to the particular situation of Chinese students. The American educational system is reputed to have a strong emphasis on self-expression. By contrast, for Chinese students, the

emphasis is on listening, memorization and paying close attention to teacher instructions. Thus, findings based on American foreign language students should not be expected to automatically equate with those based on Chinese students of English.

Lack of Emphasis on Speaking in the Curriculum in the Subject's Home Countries

Lack of emphasis on speaking in the curriculum in their home countries is the least important source of CA for these Chinese ESL students. As some respondents remarked, speaking should not be regarded as the most important or prestigious skill in learning a second language.

"There isn't a Nobel Prize for the best speaker but there is one for the best writer, I mean the best in literature. This means that written forms carry the same weight as spoken forms, if not more. Why bother about talking all the time in class then?" one respondent said.

Subjects' Comprehension of English

Subjects' comprehension of English was not an important source of CA (ranked second least important). The reasons for this are not entirely clear. It could be that the students' powers of comprehension were adequate for understanding the teacher because they had been in New Zealand for a

period of time and are proficient in English. Thus, it must be noted that this ranking would not necessarily apply to learners of lower English proficiency. A further possibility is that they relied on visual means such as writing on the board, textbooks and notes in order to learn, and did not find the talk in class important in developing an understanding of lesson context.

4.3.3 Summary

The most important educational sources of CA are language differences between Chinese and English, differences in education systems in New Zealand and the subjects' home countries, voluntary speaking and different teaching styles. Social sources of CA will now be considered.

4.4 SOURCES OF CA IN RELATION TO SOCIETY

(GROUP B OF THE RANKING EXERCISE)

This section examines the ranking made by the subjects in relation to social sources of CA. The five distinct social sources will then be discussed.

4.4.1 Subjects' Responses

The respondents' ranking in this section is summarised in Table 4.2:

TABLE 4.2
Social Sources of CA (Group B)
Means and Standard Deviations of Ranking

| CAUSES OF ANXIETY | Mean | S.D. Ranking |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|------|-----------------|
| (a) Lack of confidence | 3.00 | 2.45 |
| (b) Social pressure | 5.00 | 3.10 |
| (c) Worry about progress | 5.50 | 2.51 |
| (d) Attitudes in making mistakes | 3.67 | 1.63 |
| (e) Different accents | 4.00 | 2.76 |
| (f) Feeling different and uneasy among native English speakers | 4.67 | 2.16 |
| (g) Low self-esteem | 4.67 | 1.86 |
| (h) Attitudes towards public speaking | 5.50 | 1.87 |

Lack of confidence (item a) was ranked as the most important reason and this was closely followed by the subjects' attitudes about making mistakes (item d) and the fear that their accents were very different to those of others (item e).

On the other hand, feeling different and uneasy among native English speakers (item f), low self-esteem (item g) and social pressure (item b) did not contribute as much to CA as the above two sources (items a and d).

Worry about progress (item c) and attitudes towards public speaking (item h) were ranked as the two least important sources of CA.

4.4.2 Discussion

This section will focus on the five prominent aspects of social CA listed below:

1. Fear of negative evaluation
2. Low self-esteem
3. Different accents
4. The concept of face
5. The pace of instruction and asking questions
in the class

Fear of Negative Evaluation

The subjects ranked fear of making mistakes as an important source of social CA. This can be related to the fact that the subjects want to be sure that what they say is correct. This behaviour may be closely related to a lack of confidence due to differences in ethnicity and accent as illustrated in the following comment from one of the subjects:

"My colour is different and that makes me stand out in the class. Some Kiwis laugh when I speak so I prefer to be silent. My classmates often correct my mistakes when I am speaking in front of the class and that lets me down."

These results support the FLCAS of Horwitz et al (1986) and the findings of Sanchez-Herrero and Sanchez (1992) and Young (1990) that fear of negative evaluation is an important part of CA.

Low Self-esteem

Many linguists have noted that low self-esteem contributes to CA. Horwitz et al (1986) revealed that foreign language learning could pose a threat to students' self-esteem because it deprives the students of their normal means of communication when they make errors and are afraid of negative evaluation. This kind of debilitating language learning anxiety, in particular

CA, can affect the students' ability to behave freely and naturally (see section 2.2.1).

Krashen suggests that an individual's degree of self-esteem is highly related to language anxiety. Krashen, quoted in Young (1992:158) observes that "... the more I think about self-esteem, the more impressed I am with its impact. This is what causes anxiety in a lot of people. People with low self-esteem worry about what their peers think; they are concerned with pleasing others. And that I think has to do a great degree with anxiety." Price (1991) also reports that the majority of her subjects had low self-esteem and believed that their language skills were weaker than those of others in the class. Her subjects thought that they "weren't doing a good job and that everyone else looked down on them; that if they had only worked a little harder they could have been successful at this task" (1991:106).

Greenberg et al (1986:913) suggest that "people are motivated to maintain a positive self-image because self-esteem protects them from anxiety." People high in self-esteem are likely to be less anxious (Greenberg et al, 1992).

The results in the present study support the views of Greenberg et al (1986 and 1992), Horwitz et al (1986), Price (1991) and Young (1992). Low self-

esteem (item g) and lack of confidence (item a) caused by debilitating anxiety (see section 2.2.1) are important sources of CA.

Different Accents

The subjects ranked different accents (item e) as the third most important source of CA. This supports Gynan's (1989) studies that students who wish to sound like a native speaker regard pronunciation practice as the most important kind of practice activity in language learning and failure in acquiring the "accepted" or "preferred" accents leads to CA. Similarly, in Horwitz's (1988) study, the language students placed considerable stress on learning to speak with "an excellent accent". Both Horwitz (1988) and Gynan (1989) highlighted the perceived importance of a correct accent for language learner.

The Concept of Face

All respondents mentioned in the discussion exercise that they are aware that they are the minority in the class and whatever they say or do can be easily identified. They also believe that in their behaviour they act as representatives of the Chinese community and they thus have to be careful in their speech in order not to bring shame on the Chinese. This behaviour corresponds with the findings of Hendon (1980), Hill (1991), Xie (1991) and

Young (1994) that the concept of "face" is important in Chinese culture. Chinese are concerned about the establishment and maintenance of a positive cultural image. This, in turn, affects their willingness to express their personal ideas and opinions freely in public.

The Pace of Instruction and Asking Questions in the Class

Although most respondents were not worried about the pace of instruction and asking questions in the class (that could be because of their high level of English proficiency since they had been in New Zealand for many years), one respondent found it extremely frustrating:

"No matter how hard I try, I can never catch up. Sometimes I don't feel like going to class because I always look very dumb. I stayed in the sick bay yesterday instead of going to my English class because I felt very bad about myself. I felt sick at heart."

4.4.3 Summary

Fear of negative evaluation, low self-esteem and different accents have been identified in this study as the three most important social sources of CA. The following section will discuss the important cultural sources of CA.

4.5 SOURCES OF CA IN RELATION TO CULTURE

(GROUP C OF THE RANKING EXERCISE)

This section will discuss the ranking made by the subjects in relation to the cultural sources of CA. Those sources that received prominence in the ranking will also be examined in details.

4.5.1 Students' Responses

The subjects' responses in this section are listed in Table 4.3:

TABLE 4.3**Cultural Sources of CA (Group C)****Means and Standard Deviations of Ranking**

| CAUSES OF ANXIETY | Mean Ranking | S.D. of Ranking |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|-----------------|
| (a) Voluntary speaking | 2.17 | 1.17 |
| (b) Deliberate care given to speech | 3.00 | 1.41 |
| (c) Different teaching style | 2.50 | 1.64 |
| (d) Parental expectations | 5.50 | 1.87 |
| (e) Priority given to education | 5.83 | 0.75 |
| (f) Attitudes towards wait time | 6.33 | 2.25 |
| (g) Differences in culture | 5.67 | 2.07 |
| (h) Attitudes towards speaking | 5.00 | 2.76 |

There is consistency within the results of the study because the subjects again ranked voluntary speaking (item a) and different teaching styles (item c) as the two most important sources of CA. Deliberate care given to speech (item b) was the third important source of CA.

On the other hand, attitudes towards wait time (item f), special priority given to education (item e) and differences in culture (item g) were ranked as the three least important sources of CA respectively.

Attitudes towards speaking (item h) and parental expectations (item d) were ranked between the two extremes.

4.5.2 Discussion

This section will discuss the four important cultural sources of CA:

1. Voluntary speaking and different teaching styles
2. Care given to speech
3. Priority given to education
4. Wait time

Voluntary Speaking and Different Teaching Styles

An interesting finding of this section is that two items, voluntary speaking (item a) and different teaching styles (item c), were also ranked as dominant sources of CA as in Group A (educational sources of CA). Thus, the subjects' responses to voluntary speaking and teaching styles were consistent in two contexts: the educational context and the cultural context.

Compare the two following items:

Group A (educational) - item c:

because I wasn't used to volunteering to speak in class before I came to New Zealand

Group C (cultural) - item a:

because I don't feel comfortable volunteering answers in class

Although item c in Group A relates to an educational source of CA and item a in Group C relates to a cultural source of CA, they share the same underlying construct of voluntary speaking.

Similarly, different teaching styles were ranked as important sources of CA in both Group A and Group C. This is shown in a comparison of the items:

Group A (educational) - item b:

because the way the teacher teaches and the way I am expected to learn in New Zealand are different from how things are in my home country and I have to adjust to these new ways

Group C (cultural) - item c:

because in my home country, students only speak when called upon by teachers

Both items share the same underlying construct of different teaching styles although the first one relates to an educational source of CA while the latter one can be considered to be a cultural source of CA. The findings also provide confirmation that the results are consistent within the study.

An earlier section of this chapter (4.3.2) put forward reasons why findings related to voluntary speaking and different teaching styles in this study do not correspond with the results in the work of Horwitz et al (1986), Young (1990) and Aida (1994) which involved American foreign language students. That discussion also applies to the cultural aspects of attitudes to voluntary speaking and teaching styles, which are considered in this section.

Care given to Speech

Care given to speech was ranked as the third main reason for being anxious when speaking in English. The reasons for this could be because Chinese are expected to be careful with their speech, and students, in particular, are not expected to speak during most of the class time (for details, see sections 2.6 and 4.3.2).

Priority given to Education

Not surprisingly, the Chinese subjects in this study ranked priority given to education (item e) as an unimportant source of CA. In the Chinese culture, education is seen as essential for social acceptance and financial security (Chung, 1988). Hence, to the Chinese, priority given to education is not a source of CA, but is accepted as a given within the cultural context.

Wait Time

Wait time was also not considered to be an important source of CA (ranked the least important). The reasons could be that hesitancy and indirectness are commonly preferred in the Chinese culture as Chinese value a non-assertive and restrained communication style. Sato (1990) also noted that Chinese students appear to need longer wait time in speaking than their Western counterparts. Because of these reasons, Chinese students usually do not answer or speak readily. In addition, in the Chinese context, not answering is not considered impolite or shameful. For these students, not being given enough wait time to answer is apparently not threatening. Chinese students did not mind if the teacher moved on to another class member to supply the answer and do not find the silence embarrassing. It is also possible that the students were not called upon to answer often and thus did not experience many verbal questions.

4.5.3 Summary

The most important cultural sources of CA are care given to speech, voluntary speaking and different teaching styles while the latter two are also dominant educational sources of CA.

4.6 THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE SOURCES OF CA

In this final part of the ranking exercise, subjects were asked to indicate the overall importance of the three main groups of sources of CA. The words "educational", "social" and "cultural" were not given to them (for details, see section 3.3.2).

Subjects' Responses and Discussion

The subjects' responses in this section are summarised in Table 4.4:

TABLE 4.4

Relative Importance of the Sources of CA
Means and Standard Deviations of Ranking

| | Mean Ranking | S.D. of Ranking |
|---------|-----------------|--------------------|
| GROUP A | 1.50 | 0.84 |
| GROUP B | 1.83 | 0.75 |
| GROUP C | 2.67 | 0.52 |

As for the overall importance of the sources of CA, over half of the respondents ranked the reasons listed in Group A (educational) as the most important although the words "educational, social and cultural" are not included in the ranking exercise. Their choices indicated that their main concerns arise from the educational environment. It is important to acknowledge that although the kinds of questions in Group A tended to focus on educational context, some questions in the three groups are interrelated and intersect (for example, the subjects' attitudes towards voluntary speaking can be affected by their cultural, educational or social background, see section 4.5.2 for details). However, it must also be borne in mind that although some responses in Part I, Group A and Group C were similar (for example, voluntary speaking and different teaching styles were ranked as

dominant sources of CA in both educational and cultural contexts), most responses related to quite different questions in each section (see sections 4.3.2 and 4.5.2). Cultural sources of CA turned out to be the least important when subjects were asked to rank the relative importance of the sources of CA in Part II of the ranking exercise.

There are three main reasons why educational factors are the most important sources of CA. The first one is a linguistic factor. More specifically, this part of the study revealed that an important factor in CA is the degree of unfamiliarity with the target language and language distance. There are many cognates within Indo-European languages whereas Chinese is a completely unrelated language. Samimy and Tabuse (1992:384) noted that "anecdotal evidence suggests that learning less commonly taught, "noncognate" or "truly foreign" (e.g. non-Indo European) languages such as Japanese and Chinese can produce strong negative affective reactions from the students whose first language is English. Unfamiliarity... often appears to create major affective as well as cognitive barriers for the students to overcome." Similarly, Chinese students of English can be expected to find it difficult when they learn English because the two languages are different in terms of semantics, syntax, phonology and morphology. The findings show that CA is a kind of debilitating anxiety as it affects students' performance (see section 2.2.1).

Another factor is that although the social and cultural contexts are supportive within the Chinese community, (for example, Chinese parents are concerned about the education of their children), the New Zealand learning environment is alien to Chinese students. In addition, it is within this relatively alien environment that the Chinese students have to succeed and so their encounters with unfamiliar in-class practices are unavoidable.

A further factor is the unpredictability of the educational system in the Western countries because lessons are less structured and learning is more informal. These unfamiliar teaching practices make it harder for Chinese students to identify what they have learnt in a lesson. Activities based around communication are not seen by Chinese students as being conducive to learning. Furthermore, they are not seen as preparing students for the kinds of formal examination tasks through which they will be assessed.

4.7 SUMMARY

The main findings related to the sources of CA as investigated through research question one are as follows:

1. The alien educational environment is the most important source of CA.

2. The language distance between Chinese and English poses certain difficulties for Chinese students.
3. Different teaching styles and in-class practices such as voluntary speaking are important sources of CA for Chinese students of English although this has not been found to be the case in American-based studies.
4. Fear of negative evaluation and low self-esteem could affect the students' acquisition of the language.
5. The concept of face affects the students' anxiety level.
6. Wait time is not a major source of CA for these Chinese students. Discussion with students suggested that no matter how long the wait time given by the teacher, they might still keep silent or be reluctant to answer.
7. CA is a kind of debilitating anxiety as it affects students' performance.

4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the data in relation to the relative importance of the sources of CA, followed by a discussion and summary of the findings. The next chapter will examine and discuss the data collected on the sources of CA in relation to certain in-class practices and wait time.

CHAPTER FIVE

CA, IN-CLASS PRACTICES AND WAIT TIME

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will begin by presenting the data collected from the subjects on the sources of CA in relation to in-class activities and wait time. In the second part of the chapter, there will be a preliminary discussion of the significance of the data, followed by a summary.

5.2 METHOD FOR ANALYSING DATA

The data collected by means of the questionnaire was presented in the form of an equal interval scale. Points ranging from one to five were given to the subjects' responses in each question. One point was allocated to "very relaxed", two for "moderately relaxed", three for "neither relaxed nor anxious", four for "moderately relaxed" and five for "very anxious". Then the mean for each question was calculated and the activities in the questionnaire were ranked according to anxiety level using means. Further analysis was carried out when the activities were grouped into categories according to the nature of activities in relation to the anxiety level.

The taped discussion and "classroom" sessions were transcribed and the verbal report data were analysed in order to identify aspects relating to research question two which tries to identify the sources of CA in relation to certain in-class practices and wait time.

5.3 THE QUESTIONNAIRE

5.3.1 Subjects' Responses

A preliminary table of results (Table 5.1) was constructed presenting the mean response for the twenty-five in-class activities for the purpose of comparison with Young (1990) who suggested that speaking in the foreign language is not the exclusive source of CA, and that speaking in front of the class is the most important contributing factor.

TABLE 5.1

Activities Arranged by Anxiety Level According to Means

| Anxiety Level | Mean | Item No. | Activity |
|--------------------|------|----------|--------------------------------------------------------|
| Moderately Relaxed | 2.00 | 23 | Working in pairs |
| | 2.00 | 19 | Repeating after the teacher with the rest of the class |
| | 2.18 | 12 | Answering a question with enough wait time given |
| | 2.18 | 18 | Reading silently in class |
| | 2.18 | 24 | Reporting in a group |
| | 2.83 | 11 | Asking prepared questions in class |

| A n x i e t y Level | M e a n | I t e m No. | A c t i v i t y |
|-------------------------------------------------------|----------------|------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|
| N e i t h e r R e l a x e d N o r A n x i o u s | 3.00 | 6 | Asking questions when the class is in progress |
| | 3.00 | 25 | Debating with preparation |
| | 3.17 | 8 | Repeating after the teacher alone |
| | 3.33 | 5 | Answering a question without enough wait time given |
| | 3.33 | 9 | Reporting to the whole class after discussion |
| | 3.33 | 14 | Reading a text alone in front of the class |
| | 3.33 | 16 | Discussing a familiar topic in front of the class |
| | 3.33 | 17 | Mistakes not corrected by the teacher |
| | 3.50 | 2 | Answering a question alone |
| | 3.50 | 22 | Giving an unprepared talk |
| | 3.67 | 7 | Mistakes corrected by classmates when speaking |
| | 3.67 | 10 | Presenting a prepared dialogue in front of the class |
| | 3.67 | 13 | Mistakes corrected by the teacher when speaking |

| A n x i e t y Level | Mean | I t e m No. | Activity |
|--------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| Moderately Anxious | 4.00 | 1 | Speaking without preparation in front of the class |
| | 4.00 | 4 | Being assessed by the teacher when speaking |
| | 4.00 | 15 | Role playing in front of the class |
| | 4.00 | 21 | Asking unprepared questions |
| | 4.33 | 20 | Discussing voluntarily |
| | 4.67 | 3 | Answering voluntarily |

The researcher has also chosen to represent the data in a more detailed form and this further analysis of the results extended the work of Young (1990) by grouping the twenty-five in-class activities into fourteen categories according to the nature of activities. These results are presented in Table 5.2. Discussion of the results will be carried out in relation to research question two which examines the sources of CA in relation to certain in-class practices and wait time.

TABLE 5.2
Categories of Activities Arranged
by Anxiety Level by Means

| A n x i e t y Level | Mean | Item No. | Category of Activities |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|
| Moderately Relaxed | 2.09 | 23,24 | Involvement in pair/group work |
| | 2.18 | 12 | Having enough wait time |
| | 2.59 | 8,19 | Repeating after the teacher |
| | 2.75 | 14,18 | Reading in class |

Neither
Relaxed Nor
Anxious

| | | |
|------|---------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 3.22 | 8,9,10,11, 16,25 | Being singled out to speak in front of the class with preparation |
| 3.28 | 6,11,21 | Asking questions in class |
| 3.33 | 17 | Mistakes not corrected when speaking |
| 3.67 | 7,13 | Mistakes corrected when speaking |
| 3.83 | 5 | Insufficient wait time |
| 3.83 | 16,20 | Discussing a topic |

**A n x i e t y
Level**

Mean Item No. Category of Activities

Moderately
Anxious

| | | |
|------|-----------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 4.00 | 4 | Being assessed by the teacher when speaking |
| 4.00 | 15 | Involvement in role play |
| 4.23 | 1,3,21,22 | Being singled out to speak in front of the class without preparation |
| 4.50 | 3,20 | Voluntary speaking |

5.3.2 Discussion

In the results relating to in-class practices, subjects tended not to use the extreme anxious/relaxed ends of the continuum. The mean range in anxiety spanned from "moderately anxious" to "moderately relaxed".

The results relating to in-class practices are now discussed according to the degree of anxiety they were found to engender.

"Moderately Relaxed" Activities

For four (items 18, 19, 23 and 24) of the six activities reported within this section, the student does not need to be singled out in front of the class. These activities are "Reading silently in class", "Repeating after the teacher with the rest of the class", "Working in pairs" and "Reporting in a group". In such activities, the students are involved as part of a group or part of the class. As for the other two activities, "Answering a question with enough wait time given" and "Asking prepared questions in class", students are given time to prepare. Such preparation time may be seen as lowering the level of anxiety (see section 5.5.4).

"Neither Relaxed Nor Anxious" Activities

The activities reported within this category include speaking-oriented activities such as "Repeating after the teacher alone" and "Reporting to the whole class after discussion" but students are not overly exposed in these activities and preparation or model answers are often given in advance.

Mistakes corrected when speaking were reported as anxiety provoking (items 7 and 13). This could be related to self-esteem and the concept of face (see section 4.4.2).

"Moderately Anxious" Activities

An interesting pattern surfaced among the results in this category. All activities in this category either involve fear of negative evaluation (item 4) or require the students to speak in front of the class without preparation (items 1, 3, 15, 10 and 21). Voluntary speaking was once again reported as the most anxiety provoking activity in the classroom.

All findings, except the ones related to voluntary speaking (items 3 and 20) in the questionnaire correspond to those of Horwitz et al (1986) and Young (1990) who found that social evaluation and being singled out in front of the class without preparation are important sources of CA.

5.4 THE "CLASSROOM" SESSION

On the basis of the questionnaire results, three activities were chosen for the "classroom" session, one of which was reported as "moderately relaxed", another as "neither relaxed nor anxious" and a third as "moderately anxious". The three activities were pair work (least anxious), reading aloud from a seat (medium anxious) and answering unprepared questions (most anxious). These activities had been rated in a similar way in the findings of Horwitz et al (1986), Young (1990) and Aida (1994). Thus, the "classroom" session served to validate the consistency of the students' choices as well as to evaluate the reliability of the findings of Horwitz et al (1986), Young (1990) and Aida (1994). It also allowed the researcher to focus on observation.

5.4.1 The Activities

Pair Work

The subjects did not appear to find this activity threatening although they found the content of the worksheet on "dominant and recessive alleles" (Appendix D) a little difficult. This could be because such European genetics characteristics as protuberant nose, blonde hair, light-coloured skin, etc. do

not apply to Chinese. Another reason could be due to the reading difficulty of the text. However, that particular worksheet was chosen because of its authenticity. They all enjoyed the activity. Indicators of their enjoyment and involvement are that they reported confidently to others from their seats afterwards and discussed eagerly among themselves at times.

Reading Aloud While Seated

This activity required each subject to read aloud some sections of the handout (Appendix E) while seated. All subjects carried out the activity without many difficulties but they took turn to read rather than volunteering. At times, they guessed the pronunciation of difficult words. The atmosphere was not as relaxed as with the pair work because the subjects did not participate readily and only read when they were called upon by the teacher.

Answering Unprepared Questions

Mr X, the teacher, asked each subject some questions on what she had just read and also directed questions to others. All subjects appeared to find this activity more threatening than the other two. On two occasions, the subjects resisted speaking in front of the class when asked to explain information in a diagram. In fact, as Mr X observed, in such a situation, students commonly carry out the explanation using drawings on the blackboard.

However, the Chinese students did not take up this option. Throughout the session as a whole, no subjects volunteered to speak or answer and there was a sense of relief when the bell rang.

5.5 CA, IN-CLASS PRACTICES AND WAIT TIME

This section will focus on the following four general areas which were consistently expressed by the subjects as causing them to feel highly anxious in this session:

1. Voluntary speaking
2. Speaking in front of the class
3. Fear of negative evaluation
4. Insufficient advance preparation

5.5.1 Voluntary Speaking

Once again, voluntary speaking was reported as the most threatening activity by the subjects. However, this result does not correspond with the findings of Horwitz et al (1986), Young (1990) and Aida (1994) (for details, see section 4.3.2).

These results are consistent with the findings in the first part of the study although the instruments used were different. For research question one, subjects were asked to rank the most important sources of CA. In both Group A (educational sources of CA) and Group C (cultural sources of CA), voluntary speaking was ranked as threatening (for details, see sections 4.3.2 and 4.5.2).

The subjects also marked voluntary speaking as "moderately anxious" in the questionnaire and showed a higher level of unease and anxiety in the "classroom" session. Although they could carry out the activity without any difficulty in the "classroom" session, they took turns to read rather than volunteering.

Further discussion of this will be carried out in Chapter Seven.

5.5.2 Speaking in front of the Class

The results in the questionnaire suggest that Chinese students learning English experience a fear of self-exposure and are fear of lack of preparation. Some speaking activities were reported as "neither anxious nor relaxed" because they do not single out the students. Examples of this kind are "Repeating after the teacher" and "Asking questions when the class is in progress". The most threatening activities, according to the results gathered in this part of the study, are those activities that require the students to speak or perform *in front of others*, particularly if it is an unprepared activity. One example of this kind is "Giving an unprepared talk". Even in the "classroom" session, when all subjects knew one another and also realised that it was not a real class lesson, they refused to respond when singled out.

The results obtained here correspond with the findings of Horwitz et al (1986), Young (1990), Price (1991) and Aida (1994) that speaking in front of the class arouses anxiety.

5.5.3 Fear of Negative Evaluation

Fear of negative evaluation was reported as "moderately anxious" by the subjects in the questionnaire. In the "classroom" session, this worry was also obvious. One student, who had always participated readily in other activities, was very withdrawn. Later, it was found out that Mr X, the teacher conducting the session, had taught her one module on genetics. Because of this, the student appeared to be more cautious than others in her participation. It could be that she felt Mr X would expect her to know quite a lot on that subject matter since she had just completed a test on it. The findings suggested that CA is a kind of debilitating anxiety (see section 2.2.1).

On the other hand, the other students were quite relaxed in the "classroom" section as they did not know Mr X and they did not need to worry about marks to the same extent as that subject did.

5.5.4 Insufficient Advance Preparation

The students reported that they felt fairly anxious about taking part in classroom activities without enough preparation in advance. This area was not explored by Horwitz et al (1986) and Young (1990).

In the "classroom" session, the students appeared more anxious when they were asked unprepared questions even though they knew that their performance would not affect their test marks.

5.6 SUMMARY

The main findings about the sources of CA in relation to certain in-class practices and wait time as investigated through research question two are as follows:

1. Fear of negative evaluation, which is a kind of debilitating anxiety, is an important source of CA. Language students find it threatening when their mistakes are corrected by either teachers or fellow students in front of the class.
2. Speaking activities are not necessarily the most anxiety-provoking but being singled out to speak in front of the class is considered a stressful activity.

3. Voluntary speaking causes Chinese students of English anxiety although American-based research on foreign language learning does not generate the same findings.
4. Lack of preparation in advance can foster debilitating anxiety in students.
5. The length of wait time does not emerge as an important source of CA for Chinese ESL students.

5.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented and discussed the data on the sources of CA in relation to in-class practices and wait time. The next chapter will look at the ways students have developed to cope with CA.

CHAPTER SIX

WAYS OF COPING WITH CA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses and presents the results of the last part of the study concerning the ways students developed to cope with CA. The first part is devoted to the data collected from the subjects while the second half discusses the significance of the results.

6.2 METHOD FOR ANALYSING DATA

Subjects completed the scenario task at home to ensure that they had sufficient time to think about their ideas. They then presented their responses the following day in a discussion session which lasted approximately forty minutes. The responses given by the subjects in the scenarios were transcribed and analysed further. Excerpts from the discussion are presented in this chapter as appropriate.

6.3 THE SCENARIOS

The three scenarios (Appendix F) depicted language anxiety of different Chinese students in relation to certain classroom practices such as voluntary speaking, the language distance between Chinese and English and self-esteem (see section 3.3.2). These were based on the findings of the ranking exercise in research question one as well as on the questionnaire and the "classroom" session in research question two.

Siu Ling in scenario one notes that the teaching styles and in-class practices in New Zealand are different from those in her home country and finds it hard to become involved in voluntary speaking. In scenario two, Tai Man does not know how to improve his English as the new language is so different from Chinese. As for O Lin in scenario three, low self-esteem and lack of confidence appear to affect her learning at school.

6.3.1 Subjects' Responses

Scenario One

Three subjects believed that if Siu Ling cares about the teachers' remarks on the report, she should speak more in class even though she does not want to.

They were convinced that teachers' comments are important although the learning process might not be a pleasant or familiar one.

On the other hand, one subject stated that choosing the learning style most suitable to oneself is more important than what she termed "following the crowd". She maintained that this was important even if it might mean receiving a lower mark or attracting negative comments from the teachers. She emphasised her belief that students should be allowed to choose their own learning styles, instead of having these imposed by others.

The other two subjects' responses indicated that students should attempt to achieve a balance between what is expected in the classroom and how individuals feel they learn best. For those students, each individual must attempt to make a compromise between two different educational systems.

Scenario Two

Four out of six subjects believed that Tai Man has to speak and read more in order to improve his English. They also emphasised that his situation is bound to be difficult because Chinese is so different from English. However, he should never give up because he needs to have a good standard of English if he wants to succeed in education. He should also expose himself more to the English speaking environment whenever possible. For example, he needs

to read more books and magazines in English, watch television news and listen to radio.

One subject suggested that Tai Man should try to make friends with native English speakers in New Zealand and this will help improve his spoken English. He should not mind making mistakes as it is a natural part of acquiring a language. Another subject stated that Tai Man should try his best but at the same time he should not exert himself too much in case he has a mental breakdown.

Scenario Three

Half of the subjects (three out of six) believed that O Lin should open herself up and try to make friends with native English speakers while the other half stated that O Lin should make friends with some Chinese students first in order to build up her confidence.

Although the subjects had different ideas about making friends, they all agreed that it is frustrating to be laughed at or corrected in front of the class.

6.3.2 Ways of Coping with CA

This section will focus on the ways these subjects have suggested and developed to cope with CA in relation to the following three general areas:

1. voluntary speaking and fear of negative evaluation.
2. language differences between Chinese and English
3. low self-esteem and different accents

These areas are selected because they have emerged as the main sources of CA in the ranking exercise and questionnaire (see sections 4.3.2, 4.4.2 and 5.5 for details).

Ways of Coping with Voluntary Speaking and Fear of Negative Evaluation

Most of the suggestions in this section related to affective control on the part of the student. Only one suggestion which was more practical in nature was given; practising speaking in front of a mirror at home as an effective ways of coping with CA in public speaking.

The suggestions relating to management of feelings and of responses centred around the idea that Chinese students should try to adapt to a Western classroom. As voluntary speaking is part of the classroom routine in New

Zealand, Chinese students should try to answer as readily as their native English speaking counterparts. They should not worry too much about making mistakes which are inevitable for students who do not have English as their first language. In that sense, CA has become a kind of facilitating anxiety as it helps motivate students' learning (see section 2.2.1).

One subject made these remarks:

"I was very frightened whenever I entered the classroom because I knew that speaking was an important part of the lesson here. I froze up at times when I was asked to speak. However, I knew that I had to cope with the situation or else I would fail. So, I tried to speak voluntarily in class and that helped improve my spoken English and the teacher then knew what my problems were. It wasn't a very good experience but I had to do so in order to survive in the New Zealand classroom. I don't find it frustrating at all now."

The following remarks were greeted with applause:

"There is nothing to be ashamed of. The Kiwis will have the same problems when they learn Chinese. Don't you remember that they had a hard time saying the tones correctly in the speaking activities and writing the strokes in the right order in the Chinese module?"

This comment also relates to the next section on language distance.

Ways of Coping with the Language Distance between Chinese and English

In this section too, the responses can be seen as either practical or relating to affective control. In terms of practical suggestions, keeping a vocabulary book was one suggestion made by the subjects. They also mentioned that having as much exposure to English as possible could help bridge the gap. Reading more English books and magazines was also emphasised.

Seeking help from teachers and classmates was seen by the students as useful although one subject said:

"Don't expect your teachers and classmates come to you to give you help. You have to take the first step and open yourself up because it is your future."

Relaxation was put forward as a way of coping with the language differences. One subject made the following remarks:

"Learning a foreign language is bound to be hard. Don't push yourself over the edge. My cousin had a mental breakdown. As long as you try hard, the language will come."

The subjects suggested that they should have an English day at least once a week at home or with their Chinese friends. On that day, no Chinese could be allowed and English is the only language for communication. This was seen as assisting in building up confidence because the language would be

used among friends and family members with whom the students are familiar and comfortable.

Ways of Coping with Low Self-esteem and Different Accents

The ways suggested here were similar to those suggested for coping with negative evaluation. The subjects believed that the most important consideration was to try hard and ignore others' negative comments. One subject said:

"It is obvious that Chinese are the minority in the classroom, even in the community. Most Kiwis are very understanding and helpful. Sometimes, they laugh with you, not at you. It is then important to be proud of your ethnic group and accept that we do have different accents."

A practical option was seen to be having more native English speaking friends who would help to speed up the learning process. Listening to radio, tapes and television news were also put forward as ways of building up confidence and getting used to New Zealand accents.

6.3.3 Discussion

The ways suggested by the subjects of coping with CA can be seen as having two dimensions: the first relates to affective control (be confident, try hard and attempt to adapt to the unfamiliar classroom situation), the second involves practical options (have more exposure to English and seek help from the teachers). The five main suggestions put forward by subjects will now be briefly discussed in turn.

Be Confident

To be confident about oneself is crucial in achieving one's goals. Previous research has documented the negative influence of low self-esteem in language learning as it deprives the students of their normal means of communication when they make errors and are afraid of negative evaluation (see section 4.4.2). This kind of debilitating language learning anxiety, in particular CA, can affect the students' ability to behave freely and naturally (see section 2.2.1).

Try Hard

Chinese students are generally diligent. (Anderson, 1993; Chung, 1988; Young, 1994). They believe that the more time they spend on studying, the better results they will get. Chinese students are also convinced that practice makes perfect. It is thus common to find Chinese learners of English achieve well once they have overcome their language problem.

Adapt to the Unfamiliar Classroom Situation

Chinese students realize that the learning environment in New Zealand is different from that in their home countries. However, there is nothing they can do about the unfamiliar learning situation here because they are the minority in the classroom. They then have to live with it and make the most of it in order to succeed (for details, see section 4.6).

Have More Exposure to the Language

Exposure is seen by subjects as helping the acquisition of a language. Thus, it is important for these Chinese students of English to use the language as much as possible. One way of doing this is to mix with native English speakers, although this is also seen as presenting students with a number of challenges.

Seek Help from the Teachers

The Chinese students of English in this study felt that it is important to seek help whenever there are problems, particularly when they are not sure why they have to be involved in speaking activities. They felt that many classroom practices in New Zealand involve speaking but they feel uncomfortable about it because of the different teaching and learning styles. This was particularly true because students are not expected to speak unless they are called upon in a Chinese classroom. However, these Chinese students of English are willing to speak when they are told that the speaking task is part of a learning process or assessment although they do not participate readily in voluntary speaking (Bassano, 1983; Brown, 1987).

6.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the reports and reactions of the subjects in terms of how to cope with CA. The next chapter will provide further discussion of the main results of the present study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Much of the discussion relating to the sources of CA, in-class practices and wait time has already been integrated with the results in the last three chapters. However, there are three main areas that warrant further discussion: language distance, the cultural dimension of anxiety research and classroom practices. They will be examined in greater detail in this chapter.

7.2 LANGUAGE DISTANCE

Since English is a second language, not a foreign language for the Chinese students in this study, they need to acquire the language in order to survive in the community. A good command of English is also the prerequisite for success in the education arena in New Zealand. However, the language distance between Chinese and English creates a high level of language anxiety within the students since the two languages are substantially different in terms of syntax, morphology, semantics and discourse structure.

Some English teachers have found that many expressions made by Chinese students of English are "limping structures", "fractured structures" and "drifting words" without realizing that these constructions are mainly due to the fact that the linguistic system of Chinese provides a significantly different way of producing sounds, connecting utterances and indicating grammatical relationships (Young, 1994). For example, Chinese is a tonal language with a different phonemic inventory and syllabic structure, which, in turn, gives rise to a particular variety of accented English. Young (1994:12) finds that "the Chinese have a unique way of sequencing information, connecting ideas, highlighting points, and shifting emphasis; these in turn are partially influenced by fundamental typological differences between Chinese and English."

In addition to these features, Chinese is considered as a topic-prominent language as compared to a subject-prominent language such as English. It is also distinguished by an aspect system which serves the same purpose as the tense system in English. Furthermore, Chinese makes no distinction between singular and plural, and the same word can function as noun, verb, or adjective, depending on the context. All these differences create extra linguistic pressure for Chinese students of English (Chang, 1987).

As the two languages are so different, it is harder for Chinese students of English to achieve accuracy and fluency in all language activities. Language

distance in this study was found to be the main source of anxiety for them because speaking requires them to use a language system which is far removed from that of their mother tongue.

7.3 THE CULTURAL DIMENSION OF ANXIETY RESEARCH

Past anxiety research has generally been limited to American high school and university students studying a foreign language. Findings from this study showed that the culture of the students is an important variable in any study of communication apprehension. Thus, students can be expected to have different sources of anxiety or to experience different degrees of anxiety according to their cultural background. Graham (1981) found that acculturative stress is greater among cultural groups (students) where the gap between the traditional and imposed (host) culture is significant. This is also applicable in the second language classroom when there is a gap in terms of culture between the student and the target language as in the case of these Chinese students of English.

Chinese culture is different from Western culture and unique. Traditional Chinese personality characteristics such as inner harmony, concern for others, submissiveness to authority and respect for learning all affect Chinese students' behaviour in the language classroom. Another strong belief in the Chinese culture is that it is better to keep quiet than to look foolish when

talking because that might result in negative evaluation. Self-esteem and the concept of "face" make Chinese students more reluctant to speak than other ethnic groups. As pointed out by Gudykunst and Kim (1984:159), "Asians are conditioned to use the face to control or moderate their emotional expressions and often are encouraged to conceal, rather than reveal their feelings. This is particularly the case when they are dealing with people they feel should be addressed politely."

Bannai (1981) found that Confucianism and Buddhism also greatly influence Chinese verbal reticence. They place a high value on silence and non-verbal communication of ideas and feelings, shaping a teaching style that relies on modelling and intuition which does not encourage verbalization between teacher and student, and "a large amount, often the essential part, is left unsaid" (Bannai, 1981:153).

Chinese value a nonassertive, restrained communication style (Kim, 1977; Kitano, 1969; Ogawa, 1975; Yoshioka et al, 1973) while a more assertive, expressive mode of communication is considered as the appropriate and functional norm by Westerners. In accordance with these values, Chinese students usually speak less than their Western counterparts in the classroom.

Thus, the findings of Horwitz et al (1986), Young (1990), Aida (1994) and others relating to foreign language learning anxiety need to be evaluated through further research carried out with learners of other cultural backgrounds.

7.4 CLASSROOM PRACTICES

For Chinese students of English in New Zealand, as discussed in Chapter Four, the education context is another main source of language anxiety and in particular the different perception of the learners' roles in the classroom. As students' feelings about learning affect their ability to learn, unfamiliar teaching and learning styles pose frustration and anxiety for these students. Chinese students are good at rote memorization and are used to remembering details (Anderson, 1993; Hill, 1991; Lee 1992). They believe that the written word carries power and that passing examinations leads to social and financial security. Because of this, they generally regard process-oriented teaching which uses role-play and brainstorming amongst other facilitative techniques as a waste of time and do not want to be involved in speaking tasks (Erbaugh, 1990). Emphasis on speaking and informal activities in the Western classroom create worries for these students. Voluntary speaking, for example, is the most frustrating speaking activity because it is not a classroom practice in their home countries.

There is a discrepancy between the expectations or perceptions of students and teachers in a classroom (Proulx, 1991). This is particularly true when there are cultural differences between the students and the teacher. Moderate or high anxiety is most commonly found in classrooms with ethnic or linguistic minority students, particularly when the teacher is not of the same ethnic background as these students.

For example, Chinese teachers are sensitive to their professional status. Asking questions can be viewed as an indirect criticism of the way the teacher explains things (Burnaby, 1989; Thorp, 1991). Chinese students only speak when they are called upon in their home countries. They thus find it hard to initiate a speaking turn and are then viewed as more passive than their Western counterparts in the classroom. Some teachers have expressed concern that Chinese students are so quiet in class and reluctant to speak that it is at times hard to know if they understand the lesson. In the Chinese classroom, however, it is acceptable to be quiet in class.

To conclude, Chinese students generally find the New Zealand classroom alien because of the unfamiliar classroom practices. However, they have to adjust to a different learning environment in order to survive and succeed because they are the minority group in the classroom. Different classroom practices, together with the language distance, pose a high level of anxiety on these students of English.

7.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has looked at the three main areas (language distance, the cultural dimension and classroom practices) relating to CA as identified in the present study. The next chapter will examine the implications of the findings and suggest possible areas for further research in relation to CA.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This final chapter will look at the theoretical, methodological and practical implications of the present study. Areas for further research will also be discussed.

8.2 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

In this section, the theoretical implications of the findings from the current study are presented firstly in relation to language distance and secondly in relation to in-class practices.

8.2.1 Language Distance

Although validating evidence for the theory of Horwitz et al's (1986) FLCAS in relation to foreign language anxiety is accumulating (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a, 1991b; Steinberg and Horwitz, 1986; Young, 1990), language distance is an important element missing from this framework. Previous research on second language anxiety has tended to focus on students for whom the language distance between the mother tongue and the target language was not great. Generally, such research has been carried out within the Indo-European language family. More recent research (for example, Aida, 1994; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992) and the findings of this study suggest that the learning of a non-cognate language gives rise to anxiety on the part of the student. Because of this, any framework examining second language anxiety should look at the language distance as it is a crucial component affecting the learning process.

8.2.2 In-class Practices

Young (1990) was the first to investigate anxiety and speaking from a student perspective and provided a framework for examining the level of anxiety in relation to in-class practices. Young has found that speaking in front of the class is the main source of anxiety, and this was supported by Daly (1991) and Mejias et al (1991). The present study also confirmed

Young's findings but extended them in isolating the degree of preparation as an equally important source of CA. Future research should then investigate the importance of preparation time in relation to the anxiety level related to in-class practices.

8.3 METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

It was not until 1990 that research investigating CA was carried from the student perspective through the work of Young (1990) then Koch and Terrell (1991) and Price (1991). Their research employed different instruments such as questionnaires, verbal reports, diaries etc. to collect data from language learners.

The present study also investigated CA from the student perspective. A case study approach was adopted and a variety of instruments were used: discussion, interviews, verbal reports, a ranking exercise, a questionnaire, a "classroom" session and scenarios. Among these instruments, the scenarios will be discussed in greater detail as this method of collecting data has not been widely used in previous CA studies. The importance of applying the case study approach to further CA studies will also be highlighted.

8.3.1 Using the Case Study Approach in Language Learning Anxiety Studies

Previous anxiety studies (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al, 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1990, 1991a, 1991b; Young, 1986; 1990) tended to employ a quantitative approach to identifying and measuring different types of anxiety.

The present anxiety research is qualitative in focus, using case study methodology, combined with an investigation of the wider classroom context. This approach has provided a detailed description of how the cultural, social and educational backgrounds of the Chinese students of English affect their degree of CA. The "classroom" session provided insights into how the "educational events" of the language classroom are enacted. The discussion and interview sessions allowed the researcher to obtain first-hand information by observing the participation and reaction of the subjects. All these activities have provided rich data to support the findings of the study.

In future language learning anxiety research, concentration should be given to adopting a case study approach as this tends to provide a more informative and detailed description of the subjects' anxiety level.

8.3.2 Scenarios

In the current study, the scenario was found to be an effective way of probing subjects' ideas about ways they developed to cope with CA. The scenarios provided hypothetical situations with which the subjects could identify and interact. Scenarios are different from role-plays and simulation games as the latter two normally aim at assessing how the language is used. The suggestions made through the scenarios, however, were the main focus in this context. This allowed the subjects to express their ideas freely as they contributed to the verbal reports.

As a method of collecting data from the subjects, scenarios were found to be non-threatening; the subjects were provided with a situation as a starting point for their discussion. This was particularly useful for the ESL subjects in the present study since the questions acted as naturalistic cues for them to respond to, rather than their being asked to make their own suggestions out of context.

8.4 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Classroom teachers need to be aware of the practical implications of the following in relation to CA:

1. language distance
2. cultural awareness
3. teaching and learning styles
4. affective and practical factors in coping with CA
5. error correction

These areas were derived from the findings of the present study as they have emerged as important aspects that warrant attention throughout the study (see sections 4.3.2, 4.4.2, 4.5.2 and 5.5.3).

8.4.1 Language Distance

As mentioned earlier (see section 8.2.1), the language distance between Chinese and English places extra pressure on Chinese students. Students should be made aware that anxiety is an integral part of learning, particularly when the two languages are non-cognate languages. However, it has to be noted that a small degree of anxiety can actually be facilitating - but too much, of course, is debilitating (see sections 2.2.1 and 2.4).

8.4.2 Cultural Awareness

Different cultures develop different rules for emotional expression and communication which may have important consequences within the culture and which may then pose barriers to communication between cultures. Chinese students are more likely to rate the development of personal knowledge as a goal and be influenced by family and their own cultural upbringing. This affects their behaviour in the classroom.

Asians do not have the same facial and verbal expressions for anxiety as Westerners because they are brought up not to reveal such feelings. They do not indulge in emotional display and are often perceived as more passive than other ethnic groups. Lack of response to a stressful situation, (for example, being called upon to answer unprepared questions in front of the class) is quite usual since to show signs of agitation would be considered demeaning. It is important, for teachers to understand the cultural characteristics of Chinese students in order to accurately interpret their behaviour.

8.4.3 Teaching and Learning Styles

In addition to linguistic problems, second language students face a number of adaptation problems. Furthermore, they have problems which are peculiar to their own cultural group. Bassano (1983) suggests that one of the primary causes of emotional distress for her foreign language students is unfamiliar instructional practices in the classroom. Those students who experience the most anxiety, confusion, distress and frustration are also those whose expectations and objectives are the most different from those of the instructors. In the present study, different classroom practices and teaching styles appeared to create a high level of anxiety in the classroom for the students.

Chinese students often feel that they do not know what they have learnt after speaking activities such as discussion and this affects their willingness to take part in such activities. Teachers should inform Chinese students of the aims of speaking activities since learning is more informal in New Zealand than in their home countries. These students need to understand the rationale for speaking exercises because "practice in communication, by definition, forces the student to come out from behind memorized dialogues and ready-made phrases, leaving him in a particularly vulnerable position" (Savignon, 1972:67). This situation is even more alien and frustrating to Chinese students than to Western students because of their differences in cultural

attitudes towards speaking. Pair work and small-group work, more frequent exposure to oral evaluation, and helping students to establish reasonable goals are practical ways of reducing CA.

8.4.4 Affective and Practical Factors in Coping with CA

Recent foreign language anxiety research (Aida, 1994; Foss and Reitzel, 1988; Horwitz et al, 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989, 1991a, 1991b, 1992; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992; Young, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1992) and the present study have confirmed that affective variables influence the level of CA. Teachers then have an obligation to respond not only to students' linguistic needs, but also to their affective needs. Students should be encouraged to think about affective and practical factors which might help them to cope with CA. As communicative competence is emphasized in the classroom, the teacher's sensitivity and skill in establishing a good rapport with the students could be the key to success.

Once teachers understand that the cultural and home training of Chinese students encourages reticent and nonassertive communication behaviour, they are in a more knowledgeable position from which to assist students to develop the kinds of expressive skills which help them to interact with members of the larger society. This should include the use of appropriate verbal and nonverbal communication skills. Some of these students could be

deprived of the opportunity of developing appropriate language skills for survival and integration in the community due to the influence of their cultural and family backgrounds. Thus, teachers should encourage them to participate more in the classroom instead of allowing them to remain as passive observers during speaking tasks.

Another way to deal with the affective variables related to CA is for teachers to encourage to recognise their beliefs or fears. Once the sources of their fears and anxiety are identified, teachers should help them to interpret anxiety-provoking situations in more realistic ways and eventually opt to approach rather than avoid such situations. Verbalising any fears and summarizing them as a classroom activity may help students to realise that they are not alone in their anxieties. Group work is effective in alleviating students' language anxiety. Not only does it address the affective concerns of the students, it also increases the amount of student talk.

8.4.5 Error Correction

Subjects in previous language learning anxiety research (Aida, 1994; Foss and Reitzel, 1988; Horwitz et al, 1986; Young, 1986; 1990; 1991; 1992) and in the present study have expressed concern about the fear of negative evaluation as a source of CA. Teachers should adopt an attitude that mistakes are an integral part of the language learning process; everyone

makes mistakes in learning a new language, particularly when the mother tongue and the target language are very different linguistically. Participation, not perfection, should be the main concern of an encouraging language learning classroom and students should be told that there is more to language learning than just acquiring grammar rules and forms.

In conclusion, in order to create a secure and comfortable learning atmosphere that is conducive to risktaking and speaking in the target language, language teachers should be aware of factors which are at work in culturally-mixed classroom. They should, for example, make frequent use of cultural information, and collect background information on schooling in students' home countries. This will help teachers to anticipate areas of possible cultural conflict. It will also assist in the clarification of teacher and student roles, and the recognition of verbal and non-verbal cultural behaviours.

8.5 FURTHER RESEARCH

The future of research in language learning anxiety is promising with the development of a strong theoretical base. Further studies related to CA can proceed to clarify the theories that have been advanced. One area that might be investigated is the linguistic dimension. This could include the relation between communication apprehension in the first and second languages,

particularly when there is a wide language distance between the two as in the case of Chinese and English. An investigation of the relationship between proficiency and CA might also yield valuable findings.

Another significant area for research is the examination of CA within different cultural contexts. The FLCAS (Horwitz et al, 1986) should be adapted in a way that would make it an appropriate instrument for research for different ethnic groups (for example, Thai, Japanese, Vietnamese students of English). Furthermore, the cultural dimension should be included in any framework related to CA in second language learning since the acquisition of a second language involves two cultures.

Studies examining the relationship between anxiety and student characteristics will help to increase the understanding of language learning from the students' perspective and provide further insights into language learning anxiety. More in-depth studies investigating the speaking activities of students outside the classroom could bring new ideas in the study of CA and lead to a better understanding of this complex construct.

Further research employing a larger number of subjects may be able to produce a clearer pattern of the relationship between in-class practices and CA. Differences in language anxiety between majority and minority language groups is an example of an area that warrant further research in the New

Zealand context (for example, in relation to the acquisition of Te Reo Maori).

The knowledge gained from such studies has the potential to significantly improve the language learning experience among the many foreign language students by making the language classroom less threatening.

8.6 CONCLUSION

Second language learning anxiety is a complex, multi-dimensional phenomenon. Individual students have different reactions to anxiety depending on ethnic background, previous learning experience, student personality, classroom situations and in-class practices. Since speaking in the target language seems to be the most threatening aspect of second language learning, the current emphasis on the development of communicative competence poses great difficulties for the students. This study has pointed out a number of factors which constitute CA, and practical and affective means which learners may deploy to minimise the impact of CA on their language development.

Further research is required into the effectiveness of raising the skills of teachers to interpret, understand and accommodate the behaviour of Chinese ESL learners in both mainstream and language support classes.

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APPENDIX A

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL

Our File:

31 May 1994

Mrs B Mak

Dear Barley

Thank you for your recent proposal for carrying out a research project on Chinese E.S.O.L. students at Girls' High School.

I should be pleased for you to do this research. I believe your topic is a very interesting one and you have thought out your proposal carefully.

With best wishes for your study,

Yours sincerely

PRINCIPAL

APPENDIX B

Many people feel nervous speaking in front of people in their own language. They can feel more nervous speaking in a new language. Why do we feel so nervous? Do we feel nervous when speaking with friends and families? Do we feel more nervous when speaking in class?

PART I

In this exercise, I am asking you to look at lots of reasons why people feel nervous when they speak in a new language and to put them in order. Please arrange them in order of importance to you. Put (1) next to the statement that you think is most important and (8) for the least important one.

Group A

Sometimes I feel anxious when I speak English :

- () (a) because the education system in New Zealand is different from that in my home country.
- () (b) because the way the teacher teaches and the way I am expected to learn in New Zealand are different from how things are in my home country and I have to adjust to these new ways.
- () (c) because I wasn't used to volunteering to speak in class before I came to New Zealand.
- () (d) because I sometimes don't understand what the teacher says.
- () (e) because English is very different from Chinese.
- () (f) because when the teacher asks me a question I haven't always been able to prepare the answer beforehand.
- () (g) because speaking is not an important part of the curriculum at any level in my home country.
- () (h) because people value memorization and rote learning more than speaking in my home country.

Group B

Sometimes I feel afraid to speak English :

- () (a) because I don't think I speak as well as others.
- () (b) because people always think that Chinese students do well at school so I need to keep up with that expectation and be careful with my speech.
- () (c) because the class moves so quickly and everybody seems to understand so I feel too worried to ask a question.
- () (d) because I don't want to make mistakes.
- () (e) because I feel my accent is different from others.
- () (f) because I am new to the country and I feel very different from other people.
- () (g) because I feel that I am weaker than other students, especially in speaking English.
- () (h) because speaking in class is very public and I must take it seriously.

Group C

Sometimes I am hesitant in speaking English :

- () (a) because I don't feel comfortable volunteering answers in class.
- () (b) because I like to wait until I know exactly how to use an English word before using it.
- () (c) because in my home country, students only speak when called upon by teachers.
- () (d) because my parents expect me to excel in my school work so I want to get everything right.
- () (e) because education is the only hope for social acceptance and financial security in my culture.
- () (f) because I feel that I am not always given enough time in class to answer.
- () (g) because the Western style of directness in "speech" makes me very uncomfortable at times.
- () (h) because it is rude to speak all the time in my culture.

PART II

You have done three exercises in ordering your feelings about speaking English -- Group A, Group B and Group C -- how important is each of these groups? Does any of these groups stand out as more important than others?

Please rank the overall importance of the three groups.
Put (1) next to the group that you think is most important and (3) for the least important one.

Order of importance

Group A ()

Group B ()

Group C ()

**** THANK YOU ****

APPENDIX C

SPEAKING ACTIVITIES IN CLASS

There are different kinds of speaking activities in the classroom. How do you feel about them? Do you feel more nervous when doing certain speaking activity in class?

In this exercise, there are many statements in relation to how you sometimes feel about certain in-class activities. Please indicate how uncomfortable or nervous you feel about them by putting a circle around the number of the words that describe how you feel.

For example, you might be asked about how you feel when you have to work in pairs. If you feel quite neutral about the situation, that is neither relaxed nor anxious, you would circle number 3, as in:

When I work in pairs in class, I feel:

| | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

There are no right or wrong answers to the statements. If possible, use a colour other than black to complete the questionnaire as this makes the coding and analysis easier.

1. When I have to speak in front of the class without practice, I feel
 - very relaxed 1
 - moderately relaxed 2
 - neither relaxed nor anxious 3
 - moderately anxious 4
 - very anxious 5

2. When I have to answer a question alone, I feel
 - very relaxed 1
 - moderately relaxed 2
 - neither relaxed nor anxious 3
 - moderately anxious 4
 - very anxious 5

3. When I volunteer answers in class. I feel
 - very relaxed 1
 - moderately relaxed 2
 - neither relaxed nor anxious 3
 - moderately anxious 4
 - very anxious 5

4. If I am assessed by the teacher when speaking, I feel
 - very relaxed 1
 - moderately relaxed 2
 - neither relaxed nor anxious 3
 - moderately anxious 4
 - very anxious 5

5. When I am called upon to answer without being given enough time to think of the answer, I feel
 - very relaxed 1
 - moderately relaxed 2
 - neither relaxed nor anxious 3
 - moderately anxious 4
 - very anxious 5

6. If I ask questions when the class is in progress, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
7. If I am corrected by my classmates in class when speaking, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
8. When I repeat individually after the teacher, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
9. When I report to the whole class after group discussion, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
10. When I present a prepared dialogue in front of the class, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

11. When I ask prepared questions in class, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
12. When I am called upon to answer and I am given enough time to think of the answer, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
13. If I am corrected by the teacher when speaking, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
14. When I read a text in front of the class, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
15. When I role-play a situation in front of the class, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

16. When I discuss a topic I am familiar with in front of the class, I feel

| | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

17. When I make mistakes but I am not corrected by the teacher, I feel

| | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

18. When I read silently in class, I feel

| | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

19. When I repeat something with the class after the teacher, I feel

| | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

20. When I volunteer in a discussion, I feel

| | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

21. When I ask questions not prepared in advance, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
22. When I give an unprepared talk, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
23. When I work in pairs, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |
24. When I present a group report in my own seat, I feel
- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

25. When I debate with preparation, I feel

| | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| very relaxed | 1 |
| moderately relaxed | 2 |
| neither relaxed nor anxious | 3 |
| moderately anxious | 4 |
| very anxious | 5 |

****THANK YOU****

















































































DOMINANT AND RECESSIVE ALLELES

NAME. _____

Below are 40 pairs of human characteristics.
The characteristic on the left is dominant over
the characteristic on the right.

Do working in pairs fill out a sheet for each person.
If you show the dominant form of the characteristic
put a D in the box, if you show the recessive form put an R in the box.

APPENDIX D

| DOMINANT | RECESSIVE | You | DOMINANT | RECESSIVE | You | DOMINANT | RECESSIVE | You | DOMINANT | RECESSIVE | You |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| BROAD SKULL  | NARROW SKULL  | | PROMINENT TEETH AND JAWS  | NORMAL TEETH AND JAWS  | | BALDNESS (IN MEN)  | HAIR THINS WITH AGE  | | STRAIGHT NOSE  | CONCAVE NOSE  | |
| ROUND FACE  | LONG FACE  | | TEETH PRESENT AT BIRTH  | NO TEETH PRESENT AT BIRTH  | | HAIR THINS WITH AGE  | BALDNESS (WOMEN)  | | NARROW NOSE  | WIDE NOSE  | |
| STRAIGHT EYES  | OBLIQUE EYES  | | SWARTHY SKIN  | LIGHT COLOUR/D SKIN  | | STRAIGHT CHIN  | RECEDING CHIN  | | BROWN HAIR  | BLONDE HAIR  | |
| MONGOLOID EYEFOLD  | EUROPEAN EYELID  | | FRECKLES  | NO FRECKLES  | | BROAD CHIN  | NARROW OR POINTED CHIN  | | RED HAIR  | BLONDE HAIR  | |
| WIDE EYES  | NARROW EYES  | | THIN FLAT NAILS  | NORMAL NAILS  | | LONG CHIN  | NORMAL CHIN  | | FRIZZLED HAIR  | CURLY WAVY OR STRAIGHT HAIR  | |
| LONG EYELASHES  | SHORT EYELASHES  | | DEEP VOICE (MALE)  | HIGH VOICE (MALE)  | X | CLOVEN CHIN  | NOT CLOVEN  | | CURLY HAIR  | WAVY OR STRAIGHT HAIR  | |
| DROOPING EYELIDS  | NORMAL EYELIDS  | | HIGH VOICE (FEMALE)  | DEEP VOICE (FEMALE)  | | THICK LIPS  | THIN LIPS  | | WAVY HAIR  | STRAIGHT HAIR  | |
| LONG NOSE  | MEDIUM OR SMALL NOSE  | | RIGHT-HANDEDNESS  | LEFT-HANDEDNESS  | | LONG EAR  | SHORT EAR  | | ERECT HAIR  | LANK HAIR  | |
| PROTUBERANT NOSE  | NORMAL NOSE  | | OBES (FAT) FIGURE  | LEAN FIGURE  | | BROAD EAR  | NARROW EAR  | | WIDE NOSTRILS  | NARROW NOSTRILS  | |
| HOOKED NOSE  | STRAIGHT NOSE  | | SHORT-SIGHTEDNESS  | NORMAL SIGHT  | | EARS STICK OUT  | EARS LIE FLAT  | | GREY HAIR AT AGE 25  | GREY HAIR IN OLD AGE  | |

APPENDIX E

What is genetics?

The word 'genetics' was coined by William Bateson in 1907. He used it to describe a new branch of biology which began in 1900, after the rediscovery of Mendel's work on hybridisation in garden peas. *Genetics is the science of heredity.*

Heredity is the process that brings about the similarity between parents and their offspring; and Mendel had discovered a fundamental law, or rule, about how this process worked (Chapter 4). By similarity we mean that when plants and animals reproduce they have progeny of their own species, and not of some other kind. When human beings have offspring they are humans and not chimpanzees, or rabbits or any other organism. 'Like begets like'.

The members of a family are all *similar* to one another, and to their parents, in their characters (specific characteristics), but they also *vary* in many minor ways in the details of their individual development and appearance. In the human population of more than 4 billion people, each one of us can be uniquely recognised and distinguished from all of the others. These differences between the individuals of a family, or of a species, we refer to as *variation*. When we study genetics therefore we want to know how heredity can account for the *differences* between individuals as well as for their *similarities*.

Heredity and environment

It is important at the outset to realise that variation has two causes. The differences that we observe between individuals are only due in part to the internal factors of the cells that cause heredity. They are also partly accounted for by the external influences of the environment. In our own species (*Homo sapiens*) it is quite easy to find examples of inherited variation if we look at groups of people from widely separated parts of the world. The individuals shown in Fig. 1.1 all have distinctive physical features which enable us to recognise the groups to which they belong. The variations include differences in the colour of the skin and hair, texture of the hair, height, shape of the head and facial features. We know that these differences are largely due to heredity because they are known to have been passed on in the same form for several centuries. Moreover, when people migrate and settle in different parts of the world their descendants retain their racial characteristics regardless of the environments in which they live. On a lesser scale we can also see the way in which particular characters (colour of hair, skin and eyes) run in families within our own ethnic groups.

It is also obvious to us that not all differences between people are inherited. There are variations that arise due to the level of nutrition, others that are the result of exercise (i.e. large muscles) and some that may simply be due to accident or to a whole variety of other environmental causes. There is no doubt

in our minds that a person who lost a leg by accident would be able to have children who are perfectly normal with two legs! Likewise an olympic weight-lifting champion, who has built up his muscular physique by exercise and a high protein diet, is no more likely to have muscular offspring than a person who is deprived of good food and who is employed in making feather dusters. The development and appearance of a human being, or a buttercup, or a blue tit or any other species, is the outcome of influences due to both heredity and environment.

In some cases it is impossible to say what contribution is made to a particular character by heredity and what part is due to environment. This is particularly true where the differences between individuals are very small and where the character shows a continuous range of variation within a population (e.g. intelligence in man). In other cases where the differences between individuals are very clear-cut (e.g. dwarfism, or the presence of an extra finger in man), we can show that heredity is the cause of the variation by the way in which the character is passed on within a family over successive generations.

Reproduction

Sex cells

The key to understanding genetics lies in knowing what is inherited. What exactly is it that is passed on from the parents to their offspring during reproduction? The answer lies in the sex cells. Each parent contributes a single gamete to each of its progeny. The male donates the sperm and the female the egg. At fertilisation the gametes fuse to produce the fertilised egg, or zygote, from which the new individual develops.

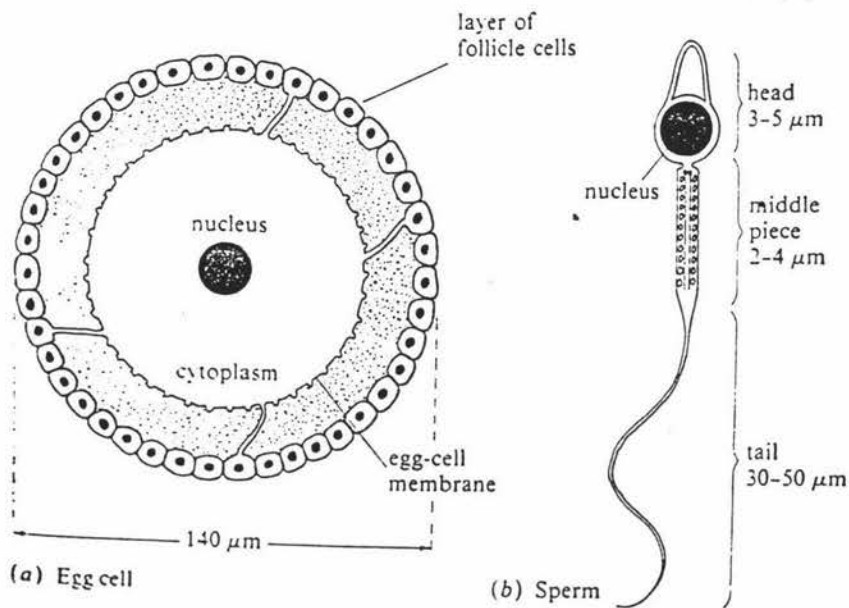


Fig. 1.2 Simplified diagram of the gametes of man.

APPENDIX F

PROBLEMS AND ADVICE

In this exercise, I am asking you to look at the situations of three Chinese students of English. They face problems relating to their use of English.

Imagine that one of your Kiwi teachers has asked you to talk to three Chinese students about their problems in using English. What suggestions can you make to help each of them?

Situation 1

Siu Ling is from Taiwan. She works well in class and finishes all her assignments. She thought that she would have an excellent report from her teachers. However, after she has received her report, she feels very unhappy. Her English teacher has written the following comments on her report:

Siu Ling is very polite, obedient and hardworking. She works well in class on her own but only participates in group or class activities when she is asked to. More active and voluntary participation would improve her language skills.

Siu Ying does not see any problems in her classroom behaviour because in Taiwan, students only speak when they are called upon.

Should she volunteer answers in class rather than waiting for the teacher to ask her to speak? She thinks that it is rude to volunteer an answer. What could you say to her about this? What do you think she should do while a topic is being discussed in class?

Situation 2

Tai Man had studied English for more than ten years in China before he came to New Zealand. He is very good at Mathematics and Science but feels very nervous whenever he has to use English, particularly the spoken form.

He finds that English is very different from Chinese but he knows that he has to master English well in order to succeed and excel at school. In his culture, education is the only hope for social acceptance and financial security.

He wants to improve his English but he is not sure what he could do as English is so different from Chinese. What can he do to try to overcome this difference? What would be useful for him? How can he improve his spoken English? Tell him what he can do.

Situation 3

O Lin studied in a well-regarded English school in Hong Kong. She always got good results in her examinations. She was highly placed in the Speech Festival before she came to New Zealand.

However, in New Zealand, she feels afraid to speak English because she thinks she does not speak as well as others and she worries that others might find her accent very different.

Because of her worries, O Lin finds it hard to mix with other students. She feels very lonely at school. What could she do to overcome this problem? How could she get used to talking to people?