بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

an University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages

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The Impact of Apprehension onOralCommunication of Sudanese Undergraduate Students'

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أثر الخوف على التواصل الشفاهي لدى الطلاب الجامعيين السودانيين

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for PhD in English Language (Applied Linguistics)

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Abstract

This study aimed at investigating oral apprehension by EFL Sudanese university students. The study adopted the descriptive analytical method, the researcher collected by using diagnostic test for (50) students of the Sudan University of Science and Technology, Third Year students of English Language, in the College of Languages. To analyze the data the researcher has used the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The findings of the study have revealed that EFL Sudanese university students encounter some oral apprehension; students feel they are unable to express their ideas in the foreign language due to their fear of making mistakes or shyness. Furthermore, when it comes to doing exercises based on oral skills, they perform very poorly. In light of the findings of the study, the researcher recommended that the textbooks need to include oral activities that satisfy the students communicative needs; in addition, teachers should encourage students to participate and express their ideas in English. Moreover, teachers should raise the students' awareness about the importance of oral skills in the process of foreign language learning.

المستخلص:

هدفت هذه الدراسة لتقصي المخاوف الشفوية لدي طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية لغةٍ أجنبيةٍ بالجامعات السودانية , استخدم الباحثالمنهج الوصفي التحليلي و جمع البيانات بواسطة الاختبار التشخيصي الذي أجري لعدد(50)طالباً و طالبة بالفرقة الثالثة بجامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا بكلية اللغات ,استخدم الباحث برنامج الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية لتحليل البيانات. أظهرت نتائج الدراسة أن هنالك بعض المخاوف الشفوية تواجه الطلاب , يشعر الطلاب انهم غير قادرين علي التعبير عن أفكارهم باللغة الأجنبية بسبب خوفهم من ارتكاب الأخطاء أو الخجل . علاوة علي ذلك فهم يؤدون أداءاً ضعيفاً عندما يطلب منهم القيام بتمارين ذات صلة بالمهارات الشفهية .بناء علي تلك النتائج فإن الباحث أوصي بأن على إدارة مناهج الجامعات تضمين الأنشطة الشفوية التي تلبي احتياجات الطلاب التواصلية. بالإضافة الي ذلك, يجب علي المعلمين تشجيع الطلاب علي المشاركة و التعبير عن أفكارهم باللغة الإنجليزية.علاوة علي ذلك , يحتاج المعلمون الى رفع وعي الطلاب بأهمية المهارات الشفوية في عملية تعلم اللغة الاجنبية.

Dedication

To my beloved parents, who raised me to believe that anything is possible, to my dearest husband, who encouraged me to go on every adventure, especially this one, to my adorable daughter, whose love gave me the strength to achieve my goal, I dedicate this work.

Acknowledgements

Many thanks are due to Allah the Almighty who created us and destined us to be teachers. I would like to express my thanks and profound gratitude to Professor Mahmoud Ali Ahmed for his supervision and continuous support from the very beginning to the end of this study. Thanks are by no means to my husband who has helped me in every respect and continued to great uplifting thoughts in me whenever I felt tired and moved away from studying. Thanks are also redeemed to Dr. Abdolmonim Babikir of Gazeera University who supported and advised me. Words cannot express how I am grateful to all those who did not scant with their time, efforts and encouragement to accomplish this research.

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List of Abbreviations

ODA :Oral delivery apprehension

FLA: Foreign Language Apprehension

FLSA: Foreign Language Speaking Apprehension

FLLA: Foreign Language Learning Anxiety

CA: Communication Apprehension

ELT: English Language teaching

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a second language

FL: Foreign Language

SL : Second language

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

SPCC: Self-Perceived Communication Competence

STT: Students' Talking Time

TTT: Teacher's Talking Time

WTC: Willingness to Communicate

DCT : Discourse Completion Test

Chapter One Introduction

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the definition of the research problem, the study questions and hypotheses as well as the research methodology. It will also shed light on the statement of the problem of the research, the objectives of the study, the significance of the study and the limits of the study among others.

1.0. Overview:

Over the last three decades, English has become the most important language over the entire world, because, at the present time, English is the language for education, international communication, commerce, advertising, publishing, diplomacy and transmitting advanced technology and for satisfying certain needs such as having new job, travel, study abroad and so on. Therefore, Schools should hardly stress to increase students' fluency through spoken English for communicative purposes and needs.

The ever-growing need for a good command of communication skills in English has created an enormous demand around the world for both teachers and learners of English as a foreign language. So, opportunities to learn improve and enhance English communication skills are many which can be learnt either through media, internet or self-taught education.

It goes without saying that teaching and learning English as a foreign language is a challenge for teachers and learners, not far from that, learning and teaching English as a foreign language in Sudan has become a problem to pupils, teachers, and syllabus designers.

Moreover, finding the most effective methods to teach English as a foreign language has been a debatable issue throughout the last twenty years. There are so many types of methods and approaches of teaching English as a foreign language with different activities, styles and techniques.

Communication has been critical to all fields for thousands of years and remains the important element for success in our dynamic and technological world today. (Durocher, 2009 ,Haas, 2010; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 1993; Ramsey, 1994; Ricks, 1993; Russ, 2012; Terpstra & David, 1991; Victor, 1992)

The ability to speak becomes very necessary nowadays , however students are facing difficulties to communicate (Sayed,2005). Some students with weak speaking ability may have a greater challenge in oral delivery because of problems with communicative skills. They usually encounter difficulties in forming what to say , recalling how to say it , and saying it a loud in front of others (Nippold,Hesketh,Dathie and Mansfied , (2005), Scott and Windson (2000).

Oral delivery apprehension ODA has been known as one of the major factors which hinder a person ability to develop an actual communication. The purpose of this study is to investigate ODA among Sudanese undergraduate students and how they struggle with speaking in different academic settings.

Since the late 1960s, communication apprehension CA has been a well-known focus in the field of human communication {McCrookey,1966). It is defined clearly by McCrookey (1977) as " An individual `s level of fear or anxiety with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons . (P.78). He further deliberates as being very stressful and considered it as an inside feeling of distress and feeling of uneasiness. Individuals become more nervous when they feel they are required to communicate, which not causes many people with high communication to avoid communication setting in general. (McCrookey (1977).

1.1. Statement of the problem:

There are some serious threats to oral communication posed by   apprehension or anxiety which limits the chances of oral production particularly when speaking to native speaker of the target language. Richmond & MncCrooky,(1989) , stated that, high level of anxiety among language learners extremely hinders the interaction between teacher and learners which is tremendously crucial to productive learning and teaching of the target language. Since anxiety is an all-round dilemma language barrier for ESL/EFL learners. Over the past few decades, there have been numerous attempts to try to find

elaborated strategy in justifying the impact of oral delivery apprehension, however, there is no reliable solution to the issues why oral delivery apprehension occur, therefore this problem needs to be studied again, discovered and analyzed its sources and cured this problem in the Sudanese undergraduate students` academic settings.

1.2 Research Questions

1. To what extent does the teaching of English at Sudanese schools dispenses towards augmenting grammar rules and vocabulary at the expense of oral skills?

2. How far are Sudanese undergraduate students are hindered by their natural shyness to communicate in English among their peers?

3. What are the causes of oral delivery apprehension in the academic settings among these learners?

1.3 Research Hypotheses

1. The teaching of English at Sudanese schools dispenses towards augmenting grammar rules and vocabulary at the expense of oral skills

2. Sudanese undergraduate students are hindered by their natural shyness to communicate in English among their peers.

3. There are quite a number of causes of oral delivery apprehension in the academic settings among these learners.

1.4. Objectives of the study:

The study tries to achieve the following objectives:

1- To measure the level of ODA among Sudanese undergraduate students.
2- To overview the factors may cause student`s ODA in academic settings.
3- To identify the strategies which students use to regulate/ control their ODA.
4- To discuss the most difficult aspects of oral delivery in the academic context among Sudanese undergraduate students.

1. 5. Significance of the study:

Today English Language has become a global language. It's the primary language round the world, and it's the language of science and technology. There are voluminous

folks that use English Language as tongue (L1) or second language (L2). Sudanese folks as well have to communicate with these folks that speak English Language round the world. English Language in Sudan now could be a favorite language and considered the second language (L2) within the country a few years or perhaps decades ago.

The study is significant because it aims at developing the English language educators and their awareness to encourage their students to improve their abilities in oral delivery. The importance of this study comes from the importance of English Language and its distinguished situation around the world in general, and in Sudan particularly.

The researcher has noticed the weakness of the students' performance in English, especially in the speaking skills abilities of the undergraduate students in Sudan. Also, the researcher hopes that the study should be of value to Sudanese English language teachers and all Arabs in general. In addition, to assist them to discover new procedures to enrich this field, moreover, to help them to find new procedures to complement this field and attempting to assist the students to develop their oral delivery competency.

This study is critical for Sudanese EFL learners; as a result of it's going to facilitate them to beat their oral delivery issues. Jointly together, it's vital to the Sudanese Ministry of upper Education and research project, as a result of this analysis could assist in ever-changing the policies of English Language learning at the colleges. Moreover, the study is precarious to Sudanese ministry of education, as a result of it's going to facilitate to develop text books, materials, ideas, curriculums …etc. Moreover, English Language colleges at the Sudanese Universities will get an advantage from this research; as it sheds lights on the issues that face the Sudanese EFL learners in oral delivery skills. Finally, this study will pursue out bound ways and suggestions for solving these problems and adopt the most perfect ways of teaching which will guide undergraduate students to overcome their oral delivery problems.

1.6. Methodology of the Study:

a. The Research method:

This study employs a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods to realize the objectives' of the study. This allows the research instruments to complement each other.

b. The instrument&The Procedure

The tools for collecting data included an effective survey, structured interview and observation. It will get its data through an adopted survey administered in Qualtrics, an online survey tool which includes three parts: (1) the PRCA (Personal Report of Communication Apprehension)-24 instrument (2) high and low stakes scenarios; and (3) items concerning oral skills experience. Then, an arbitrarily interviewing some undergraduate students from English language departments, to address and grasp the research questions and objectives.A recorder will be used while interviewing the students to find out their oral delivery apprehension via examining the transcriptions of their dialogues.Also the observation method will be used to collect the data of this research. The researcher will attend some sessions in English language to observe their participation and Interaction among each other.

1.7. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study:

This study is limited in the logic that:

A- It only shelters the oral delivery, although there are written , visual, and audio-visual communication; the study will merely focus on the oral delivery.

B-Regarding the delimitation of the research, the study will be lessened and restricted in the sense that it will not cover the phonological aspects of the oral communication of the Sudanese undergraduate students.

1.8. Material of the Study:

This study was carried out in Sudan for undergraduate students who specialized in English Language from different Sudanese universities, in the academic year 2019-2020.. The study however, depends on a survey , an interview and observation as sources for collecting data. (100) Students were participated , interviewed and observed .

1.9. Definition of terms:

Communication :

T.S. Matthews says that Communication is something so difficult that we can never put it in straightforward words. But it is necessary to comprehend the concept. He further defines communication as the process by which information is transmitted between individuals and/ or organizations so that a comprehensible response results. W.H. Newman and C.F. Summer Jr. describe communication as, "An exchange of facts, ideas, opinions, or emotions by two or more persons".

Oral Delivery:

Is defined as an interactive process of constructing meaning thatComprises producing, receiving and meting out information. Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it happens, the speakers , and the purposes of speaking (Burns & Joyce, 1997).

Apprehension and anxiety :

Foreign language anxiety is the feeling of restlessness, worry, tenseness and apprehension happened when learning or using another language. Gardner and MacIntyre defines language anxiety as "The feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" Additionally , Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daly, 1999:218 define apprehension as a crucial factor that often affects students' oral production .

EFL undergraduate students: students who learn English as a foreign language.

1.10. Organization of the study:

Chapter1: Is an introduction the background of the problems, hypotheses, study objectives, and research questions, significance of the study, methodology and instrumentation and definition of terms.

Chapter2: presents a review of literature and the previous studies.

Chapter 3: This part of the study deals with the study method, tools and procedures.

Chapter4: in this chapter the researcher introduces the results obtained in the form of frequency tables and figures contains the data analysis, discussion, explanation and the comment of the results.

Chapter5: offers Conclusion, summary and discussion of the researcher's findings, implications for practice recommendations and suggestion for future research.

Chapter Two : Literature Review

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the issue in question and other related topics with some emphasis on the nature of interlanguage competence. Important findings and arguments from opponents and proponents of an English-only teaching method will be discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts, the first one is on the theoretical framework, and the other is on previous studies.

Part one: Theoretical framework

Part two: Previous related works

2.0 Review

Certainly, quite a number of educators, classroom practitioners and students alike, foster the feeling that language learning is a set of structural rules and they more concern with grammatical competence apart from its use "whether it is feasible, appropriate, or done in a particular speech community" (Richards & Schmidt 2010: 99).On the contrary, "learning a foreign language is more than a simple task of assembling lexical items in grammatically accurate sentences" (Liddicoa 2017: 1). Without a doubt, grammatical competence is a fundamental element to be reckoned with andv learned , its connection with other important competences should be taken into account, due to the fact that it is only a single aspect of a multifaceted reality in which the communicative competence includes four interrelated areas language knowledge; grammatical competence (formal competence), sociolinguistic competence (sociocultural competence), discourse competence and strategic competence (Martínez-Flor, & Usó-Juan 2006, Richards & Schmidt 2010).

The present study sets out to examine the factors causing oral apprehension taking into consideration a number of parameters including social, psychological and cultural.

2.1 Relationship between Listening and Speaking

Listening and speaking are integrated skills. So, we can't teach them separately. In discussing aural skills, speaking and listening are two basic skills and are essential in acquiring communicative competence in language learning. So, part of being a proficient speaker is listening to oral language and understanding what is said so that the responses will be accurate.

A speaker has necessity to a listener because speaking is rarely carried in isolation, as put by Redmon and Vrchota (2007:120) "speakers are at the mercy of listeners" Moreover, the listening skill involves a list of processes of perception, interpretation, evaluation, retaining, recalling, and reaction to the speakers. Therefore, listening will not occur in isolation as well, there must be speech to listen to. Finally, for communication to occur, both a speaker and listener must take parts in it through interacting and negotiating verbally. The speaker produces comprehensible output, and the listener pays attention and then tries to process this output effectively.

From a communicative, pragmatic view of the language classroom, speaking and listening skills are closely intertwined. The interaction between these two modes of performance applies especially strongly to conversation. In a classroom, students will respond to the teacher after listening to some information. (Brown, 2001:267).

In addition, Chaney (1998) in Kayi (2006) adds that speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols in a varity of contexts. Speaking is much more complex. It involves both a command of certain skills and several different types of knowledge. It has taken many years to bring the language teaching profession around realizing the importance of listening in second and foreign language learning. As observed by Rivers, long advocate for listening comprehension, "Speaking doesn't itself constitute communication unless what is said is comprehended by another person… Teaching the comprehension of spoken speech is therefore of primary importance if the communication aim is to be reached" (1966, pp.196, 204) the reasons for nearly total neglect of listening are difficult to assess, but as Morely notes, "perhaps an assumption that listening is a reflex, a little like breathing – listening seldom receives overt teaching attention in one's native language – has masked the

importance and complexity of listening with understanding in a non – native language" 91972, p, vii).

In reality listening is used far more than any other single language skill in normal daily life. On average, we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write. (Rivers, 1981; Weaver, 1972).

It is common that listening should precede speaking. Clearly, it is impossible to expect a student to produce a sound which doesn't exist in his mother tongue or a natural sentence using the stress, rhythms and intonation of a native speaker of the foreign language without first of all providing him with a model of the form he is to produce. It is not possible to produce satisfactorily what one hasn't heard. The logical first step, therefore, in attempting to achieve oral fluency or accuracy is to consider the learner's ability to listen.

At first sight it appears that listening is a passive skill and speaking is an active one. This is not really true, since the decoding of a message (i.e. listening) calls for active participation in the communication between the participants. A receptive process is involved in understanding the message. Indeed, it is essential to the speaker in any interaction that he assured continually that his words are being understood. This is usually overtly signaled to him in a conversation by the nodes, glances, body movements and often by non – verbal noises (mm, uh, huh, oh, etc) of his listener. A simple experiment to demonstrate the truth of this is to make absolutely no sound during a telephone conversation (where the verbal cues that the message is being understood are essential, since visual cues by the nature of telephone calls are eliminated) – within a few seconds the person speaking is guaranteed to ask if you are still there.

This visual and verbal signaling confirms to the speaker that listening and understanding has taken place. The receptive capacity for decoding the language and content of the message is a skill which can be trained and developed through teaching, no less than the productive skill of speaking. (Geoffrey Broughton, 1980)

Some learners say "I understand everything but I can't speak". This may be the case when the people speak slowly and carefully to them, realizing that they don't know

much English. But it is usually very different when they are listening to English programs on the radio, or watching English television or films, or trying to take part in conversations dominated by native speakers. Listening is as difficult as any of the other skills. In fact, learners often find it hard to understand course book cassettes especially designed for them. Unlike reading texts, the speed and clarity of spoken texts are often completely outside the listener's control. If you don't understand the words while they are still in the air, it is usually too late. Of course, this is not always so. In a conversation you can ask the other person to speak more slowly, or repeat, or explain something. In fact these are very useful strategies for learners to acquire and use in conversation and similar situations. (Paul Davies, 2000, p 75).

2.2 Transfer of skill

One important in connection with oral skills is what is referred to by Wilkins as the transfer of skills which ensuring a satisfactory transition from supervised learning in the classroom to real-life use of the skill. As Wilkins points out, if *all* language produced in the classroom is determined by the teacher, 'we are protecting [the learner] from the additional burden of having to make his own choices'. He continues:

As with everything else he will only learn what falls within his experience.

If all his language production is controlled from outside, he will hardly be

competent to control his own language production. *He will not be able to*

transfer his knowledge froma language-learning situation to a language-

using situation. (1975:76, my italics)

There are two basic ways in which something we do can be seen as a skill. First there are motor-perceptive skills. But in addition to this there are also interaction skills. Let us see the difference between the two. First the motor perceptive skills. Motor-perceptive skills involve perceiving, recalling, and articulating in the correct order sounds and structures of the language. This is the relatively superficial aspect of skill which is a bit like learning how to manipulate the controls of a car on a deserted piece of road far from the flow of normal traffic. It is the context-free kind of skill, the kind which has been recognized in language teaching for many years in the rationale of the audio-

lingual approach to language teaching. For example, twenty years ago, W. F. Mackey summarized oral expression as follows:

Oral expression involves not only [. . .] the use of the right sounds in the right patterns of rhythm and intonation, but also the choice of words and inflections in the right order to convey the right meaning. (1965: 266)

As regards the above quotation, Mackey attaches too much importance to doing things in the [right] in order to be any good at speaking: choosing the right forms; putting them in the correct order; sounding like a native speaker; even producing the right meanings. (Is this how people learn to handle the clutch and gear lever?)

2.3 Interaction skill

This view of language skill influences the list of exercises which Mackey discusses: model dialogues, pattern practice, oral drill tables, look-and-say exercises, and oral composition. However, this is a bit like learning to drive without ever going out on the road. This means the learner is not well prepared to transfer much of any motor-perceptive skill to a language using situation. The point is that in addition to the motor-perceptive skills there are other skills to be developed, which, as Wilkins says, are those of 'controlling one's own language production' and 'having to make one's own choices'. This kind of skill we will call *interaction skill.* This is the skill of using knowledge and basic motor-perception skills to achieve communication.

Clearly speaking is very significant skill in language, because it is the most used skill. The child begins to learn speaking by imitation of his family and caregiver, but to acquire speaking in second language needs some techniques and steps. We can make first impression about a person we don't know before by his way of speaking, for example if he is polite, educated, cultivated and so.

Unlike listening and reading which are receptive skills of a given language, speaking and writing skills are widely classified by many researchers as productive and active skills. (Richards et al. 2002:293).

In fact, Harmer (2001:154) confirmed that goal of language study is to improve both the productive and receptive skills. This sense derives us to conceptualize that all language skills are integrative, and one can't teach or learn a language with a solely skill. Though, speaking is generally the most complex process and non-evaluated in the educational context, it is considered by many teaching and learning experts to be developed among our learners as advocated by Luom (2003)

Interaction skills basically involve Interaction skills involve making decisions about communication, such as: what to say, how to say it, and whether to develop it, in accordance with one's intentions, while maintaining the desired relations with others. Note that our notions of what is right or wrong now depend on such things as what we have decided to say, how successful we have been so far, whether it is useful to continue the point, what our intentions are, and what sorts of relations we intend to establish or maintain with our interlocutors. This of course is true of all communication, in speech or in writing.

Interaction skills involve the ability to use language in order to satisfy particular demands. There are at least two demands which can affect the nature of speech. The first of these is related to the internal conditions of speech: the fact that speech takes place under the pressure of time. These we shall call *processing conditions.* A second kind involves the dimension of interpersonal interaction in conversation. These we might call *reciprocityconditions.* First, what are the main effects of the processing conditions on speech?

It generally makes a difference whether a piece of communication is carefully prepared or whether it is composed on the spur of the moment. This can affect our choice of words and our style. Similar effects can be observed of the restrictions of time or money when imposed on film-makers, painters, composers, architects, and builders. The scale of the output may be affected. So too might the materials, and the internal structure.

2.4 Time Constraint

In spoken interaction the time constraint can be expected to have observable effects. Brown and Yule, for instance, suggest that it is possible to distinguish between 'short speaking turns' and 'long speaking turns' (1983: 27ff). 'Long turns' tend to be more prepared—like an after-dinner speech or a talk on the radio.

'Short turns' are the more common. In this case the wording and the subject matter tend to be worked out extempore as the speaking proceeds. The differences in form undoubtedly reflect the differences in decision-making on the part of the speaker. Some of these differences, as Brown and Yule point out, include the fact that 'native speakers typically produce bursts of speech which are much more readily relatable to the

phrase—typically shorter than sentences, and only loosely strung together'. Very different from written language. And they add:

If native speakers typically produce short, phrase-sized chunks, it seems

perverse to demand that foreign learners should be expected to produce

complete sentences. Indeed it may demand of them, in the foreign

language, a capacity for forward-planning and storage which they rarely

manifest in speaking their own native language. (1983:26)

Processing conditions are an important influence. The ability to master the processing conditions of speech enables speakers to deal fluently with a given topic while being listened to. This kind of ability thus covers the basic communicative skill of producing speech at a normal speed under pressure of time. This is generally not a problem in first-language learning, but it can be with learners who have used the language only in written form, or with heavy emphasis on accuracy.

2.5 Reciprocity Condition

Of course, time pressure is not the only constraint that causes problems to speakers. We have already mentioned that speakers do not work from prepared scripts. What they decide to say is affected by the second condition of speech, the *reciprocity condition.*

The reciprocity condition of speech refers to the relation between the speaker and listener in the process of speech (see for instance Widdowson 1978, Chapter 6). The term 'reciprocity' enables us to distinguish between those situations in which both the speaker and hearer are allowed to speak, and those where conventionally, only the speaker has speaking rights, as during a speech. The reciprocal dimension affects speech because there is more than one participant. The business of making sure that the conversation works is shared by both participants: there are at least two addressees and two decision-makers.

For example, in a reciprocal exchange, a speaker will often have to adjust his or her vocabulary and message to take the listener into account. The speaker also has to participate actively in the interlocutor's message— asking questions, reacting, and so

on. This is something which requires an ability to be flexible in communication, and a learner may need to be prepared for it.

2.5.1 Size and Shape of Sentences

The way language is organized in speech is typically different from the shape it takes in writing. The language may be the same one (recognizably English, Russian or Spanish, for instance), but the size and shape of its sentences tends to be different. This should not surprise us. After all, we take it for granted that pop music, jazz, and orchestral music use the same notes and scales but differ in the way these resources are put together. The same can be said of spoken and written language. And the reason for this is largely to do with the time constraints under which the language is produced.

We are calling these constraints 'processing conditions', and they affect the speaker: in order to get his message out, he is likely to arrange language and communicate meanings in a different way from if he were writing. Sometimes this helps him to produce his message and get it right, and sometimes it also helps the listener.

As we have already seen, one of the most important of the constraints is time pressure: oral language allows limited time for deciding what to say, deciding how to say it, saying it, and checking that the speaker's main intentions are being realized.

2.5.2 Time Pressure

Time pressure tends to affect the language used in at least two main ways. Firstly, speakers use devices in order to *facilitate* production, and secondly they often have to *compensate* for the difficulties.

Because speakers have less time to plan, organize and execute their message, they are often exploring their phrasing and their meaning as they speak. This gives rise to four common features of spoken language. Firstly, it is easier for speakers to **improvise** if they use less complex syntax. In addition, because of time pressure, people take **short cuts** to avoid unnecessary effort in producing individual utterances. This often leads speakers to **abbreviate** the message and produce 'incomplete' sentences or clauses, omitting unnecessary elements where possible. This is known as 'ellipses. Thirdly, it is easier for speakers to produce their message if they **use fixed conventional phrases**.

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And finally, it is inevitable that they will use devices to gain time to speak. All of these devices *facilitate* production.

In considering compensation, we are concerned with the way speakers find themselves repeating, in various ways, what they have already said. The fact that speakers find themselves 'feeling out what they are going to say' as they say it induces various kinds of errors. As a result, it is quite common for speakers to find themselves correcting or improving what they have already said. In a sense what they are doing is *compensating* for the problems which arise out of the time pressure. What's more, time pressure also increases pressure on *memory:* in order to ensure clear understanding, speakers therefore use a lot of repetitions and rephrasings.

2.6 Facilitation
There are four main ways in which speakers can facilitate production of speech:
by simplifying structure;
by ellipsis;
by using formulaic expressions;
by the use of fillers and hesitation devices.
The first feature, simplification, largely involves *parataxis.* Let us look at what this is.

Simplification can be found mainly in the tendency to tack new sentences on to previous ones by the use of coordinating conjunctions like 'and', 'or', 'but', or indeed no conjunction at all. This way of connecting sentences is called 'parataxis'. Instead of parataxis, a speaker might use 'hypotaxis', that is, subordination. Subordination, however, often involves more complex sentence-planning. While in writing we have time to use a lot of subordination, time pressures in speech often tend to make the use of subordination more difficult. So parataxis can be understood as a simplification strategy in the production of speech.

In addition to parataxis, speakers often avoid complex noun groups with many adjectives preceding them. Instead, they tend to repeat the same sentence structure to add further adjectives separately. As a result, oral language tends to be more 'spread out' and less dense than written language.

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Ellipsis is also used to facilitate production when time is short. This consists of the omission of parts of a sentence, like syntactic abbreviation. Examples include: 'Who?', 'On Saturday', 'the big one', 'does what', 'Why me?' 'Green'. In order to understand, a listener must have a good idea of the background knowledge assumed by the speaker. In most speech situations this can be counted on. Thus for example, when someone says 'Look', 'Why don't you come out?', or 'John knows', the speaker and listener both know (although a hearer might not), what there is to look at, what the person could come out of, and what John knows. In order to speak economically, it is necessary and normal to exploit ellipsis: we do not always speak in complete sentences.

A third tool used for facilitating the production of spoken language consists of sets of conventional 'colloquial' or idiomatic expressions or phrases. These are sometimes called *formulaic expressions.* They consist of all kinds of set expressions, not just idioms, but also phrases which have more normal meanings, but which just tend to go together. Michael Stubbs gives the following examples:

1 (In a bar) Have this one on me.

2 I don't believe a word of it.

3 Who does he think he is?

4 I thought you'd never ask.

5 It's very nice to meet you.

(Stubbs 1983:155)

Pawley and Syder (1983:206—7) give many more. Although all the words in these phrases have their normal meanings, some of them are difficult to change (try 'I don't believe a sentence of it', or 'Who does he believe he is?', or 'It's very agreeable to meet you').

Our interest in these expressions is that they can contribute to oral fluency. Speakers do not have to monitor their choice of words one after another. They do not have to construct each new utterance afresh, using the rules of the grammar and their knowledge of vocabulary in order to vary their expression for each fresh occasion.

Instead they proceed by using chunks which they have learnt as wholes. This is particularly important in routine situations.

The final set of strategies used to facilitate the production of speech are *time-creating devices*. These tend to give speakers more time to formulate what they intend to say next. Features here include the use of fillers, pauses, and hesitations. One frequent kind of filler is the use of phrases like 'well', 'erm', 'you see', 'kind of', 'sort of, 'you know', and so on. Another kind of filler arises when speakers rephrase or repeat what they or their interlocutors have said. A final strategy is simply to hesitate, repeating words while trying to find a needed word. By doing this, they give themselves more time to find their words or organize their ideas.

2.7 Compensation
Because planning time is limited, speakers also often need to change what they have already said. In speech alterations are permitted—indeed they are quite common. In writing, of course, crossings out and alterations in the text should be kept to a minimum to facilitate reading. A reader may be confused or put off by a text full of corrections. Consequently, the writer carefully rewrites sections so that they read clearly, as though no correction had been made.

In speech, however, corrections are tolerated and indeed necessary. What happens is that the speaker substitutes a noun or an adjective for another, or repeats a noun group, adjective or adverb with additional elements in order to alter some aspect of what he or she has said. This is a first reason for reformulation to occur.

The second way in which time pressure affects oral language production is that the gist of the whole transaction has to be held in the speaker's memory. In order to make this easier, speakers tend to rephrase and reformulate what they say. This is often in order to give people time to understand, to remind them of things that were said.

These characteristics are all related to an important aspect of speech, which is that it is not recorded: it is only temporary. It is not possible for either speaker or listener to go back over previous speech if something was not understood. There are memory limitations. For this reason, the organization of the structure of speech involves short bursts of language, back and forth between the speakers, so that people can comment

freely on remarks made as they come up. Only in formal discussion is it often necessary to refer back to what someone said many minutes before. The features we have mentioned all help to reduce memory load, just as they help to lighten the planning load. So the processing conditions of oral language result in certain common language features. These are as follows:

Adjustments: hesitations, false starts, self-corrections, rephrasings, and circumlocutions;

Syntactic features: ellipsis and parataxis;

Repetition: via expansion or reduction;

Formulaic expressions.

Why might these features be important for learners and why should we as teachers be aware of them? Firstly, we can see how helpful it is for learners to be able to facilitate oral production by using these features, and how important it is for them to get used to compensating for the problems. Thus for instance in the classroom they may not need to produce full sentences every time they open their mouths. Parataxis too may be useful until learners develop a range of more complex ways of extending sentences. As they become more skilled in producing utterances, their use of these features may become more flexible. The use of formulaic expressions, hesitation devices, self-correction, rephrasing and repetition can also be expected to help learners become more fluent.

All these features may in fact *help* learners to speak, and hence help them to *learn* to speak. If we think of learners by definition as not being fluent in finding the words they need, or in structuring their utterances, then much of what we have been discussing is likely to be just as important in the foreign-language classroom as for native speakers. In addition to helping learners to learn to speak, these features may also help learners to sound *normal* in their use of the foreign language. This may be a further important consideration.

If these features occur naturally in learners' speech, this may affect us as teachers, because it may have implications for the way learners should work. It may also affect how we evaluate learners. If native and non-native speakers in normal interaction

usually produce language with such characteristics, this may influence what we expect of our learners in oral activities and tests.

In all, the production of speech in real time imposes pressures, but also allows freedoms which may enable learners to explore how a language can be made to work, at the same time as they improve their fluency in producing utterances. This, then, is the first aspect of speech, the production skills which are so important if anyone is to be able to interact with native speakers for real-life purposes. In the next section we consider some of the negotiating skills that speakers need to employ if their production skills are to be of any use.

2.8 Oral Apprehension

Oral apprehension is mainly caused by shyness and social anxiety of speaking in public or in the presence of people we don't know. *Shyness* refers to a tendency to withdraw from people, particularly unfamiliar people. It is a normal personality trait. This means that everyone has some degree of shyness—some people have a lot, some have a little, and most have an amount somewhere in between. Think of it as you would height. Height is a physical trait. Some people are tall, some are short, but most are somewhere in between. Height is one of those physical traits that are largely heritable—that is, due to the effect of genes. These genes come from your biological parents. You are born with a predetermined likelihood of being a particular height. Height is also influenced by factors such as diet and perhaps the amount of stress in the environment.

Apprehension, like height, is influenced by genes. , the important thing to realize is that apprehension is a trait. Other traits include personal characteristics like hair color, eye color, perfectionism, the tendency to look for excitement (sometimes called *novelty seeking*), and intelligence. With the exception of hair color and eye color, few of these traits are influenced *exclusively* by genes. The things we learn throughout life and the experiences we have—and the choices we make—can strongly influence the vast majority of human traits.

Most personality and physical traits are *normally distributed* (a statistical term) throughout the population. What does this mean? It means that if we were to take all the people in the world and measure how much of a particular trait they each have, we would usually find that the trait follows the so-called bell-shaped curve. This is as true

of shyness as it is of anything else. If we took a sample of 1000 people and measured their shyness.

Some people are very   and some people are not very shy at all. Most people are somewhere in between. It is possible that possessing a great deal (or very little) of a trait can cause problems for a person. We know that some people who are very shy have difficulties related to their shyness. Some of these people find that their shyness prevents them from doing things they would like to be able to do, such as getting out and making new friends, assuming greater positions of responsibility at work, and the like.

2.8.1 Social anxiety

Social anxiety is closely affiliated with though not identical to shyness. We should start by defining *anxiety.* Anxiety is an uncomfortable internal state (that is, something people feel inside) usually associated with uncertainty or the unknown. Anxiety is an emotion. Anxiety is a lot like *fear,* but fear is what you feel when you *know* what you're afraid of. When someone points a gun at your head, you don't feel anxiety. You feel fear! You know exactly what it is that is causing your heart to race, your knees to shake, and your life to flash before your eyes. When you exit the door of your house to take out the garbage at night, you may feel anxious, wondering if someone is lurking in the shadows waiting to attack you. This is anxiety, not fear, because you don't know whether something bad is going to happen; you think it is a possibility, but you can't be sure. (If you live in a major metropolitan area with lots of crime, this may not be such a good example, but you get the point.) Anxiety is an emotion you feel when you believe there *might* be a threat; fear is an emotion you feel when you know there *is* a threat.

Social anxiety refers to the special kind of anxiety or discomfort you may experience when you are around other people. Usually, social anxiety is associated with concerns about being scrutinized. When you are around other people and you worry about what they think of you and you feel uncomfortable, you are experiencing social anxiety. As you might imagine, the notion of social anxiety overlaps tremendously with shyness, as well as with other concepts, such as *self-consciousness.*

There are some differences between the concepts of shyness and social anxiety, at least in the ways those of us who study behavior and mental health use these terms. Shyness is something that is often inferred by observing behavior. For example, psychologists may videotape people at a party, then review the tapes and use a stopwatch to see how long it takes each person to approach a stranger and join or initiate a conversation. They may infer that people who are more reticent to do this are shyer than those who jump right in. In fact, the researchers wouldn't know anything about what the partygoers were thinking or feeling—in order to know this, they'd need to ask them. But psychologists observe and measure people's behaviors to make inferences about their degree of shyness.

This may be valid or it may not. There could be all sorts of reasons why someone might take longer to join in a conversation at a party. These reasons could range from being shy, to being bored, to being preoccupied because of a recent argument with his or her spouse, to not being fluent in the language spoken at the party. Because of these uncertainties, some researchers would say that we shouldn't really call this inferred behavior *shyness,* but rather something like *slowness to join a conversation,* or *behavioral reticence,* or *social avoidance.* But shyness is what we often call it, nonetheless, particularly when we see these behaviors in children.

Social anxiety, on the other hand, isn't something that can be inferred. It's not enough to observe a person's behavior—say, the fact that someone doesn't speak up as much as his or her colleagues at a meeting—and come to the conclusion that this is because the person is socially anxious. In order to know whether people are socially anxious—or to measure precisely how anxious they are—you need to ask them. Anxiety—any kind of anxiety—is an internal state. It is something people feel. It's not something they wear on their sleeves, and it's not something we can measure with a machine. But if we could, we'd call the machine an anxieto-meter, start a company (anxietyprovoking.com), go public, and retire. But we digress. The point is that social anxiety is something that people feel; it's not something that can be observed by others.

2.8.2 Types of Social Anxiety

There are several varieties of social anxiety, differentiated by the kinds of situations that bring it on. For example, many people experience *publicspeaking anxiety* whether they

are proposing a toast at a small dinner party or at a wedding reception of 300 people. Others experience *test anxiety,* where the fear of failing interferes with their ability to study for and perform during the test. *Sports performance anxiety,* where an athlete's fear of performing poorly or making a mistake actually contributes to these feared outcomes, is yet another form of social anxiety. And then there's *datinganxiety,* which is what you'd expect it to be. In fact, so many situations can elicit social anxiety; it would be silly to give them all special names. Instead, researchers have found it useful to classify forms of social anxiety by category.

One of these categories refers to *contingent* and *non-contingent* encounters; for our purposes, we will use the less technical terms *performance* and *interactional. Performance* encounters are those where a person does something in front of others, usually in a rehearsed fashion, and there is no expectation that the person will need to respond to the audience. An example of this would be the class valedictorian who gives a speech at graduation. The speech is written out in advance, and the person's task is to read it with appropriate pauses and intonations. Although the valedictorian may need to respond to the audience—for example, wait for the laughter to subside after a joke before moving on—most of the performance is predetermined.

In contrast, *interactional* social encounters are those where a person must talk, listen, and react appropriately to what others say and do. An example would be someone having a conversation at a party. In this situation, the person needs to initiate a conversation, join in, or respond. He or she then needs to be aware of the other person's responses, and engage in a process of give-and-take that involves attention to verbal and nonverbal cues. In general, interactional social encounters are more demanding, in terms of using more of our mental abilities and social skills, than are performance tasks. Interestingly, however, more people report being afraid of performance encounters such as public speaking than interactional encounters such as conversing at a party.

Here are lists of some social situations commonly feared by people with social anxiety, grouped by whether they are performance or interactional in nature.

Table 2.1 some social situations commonly feared by people with social anxiety

Performance	Interactional
Public speaking(formal to large groups	Going to a party
Speaking to small groups	Socializing

Writing in front of others	Making small talk
Eating in front of others	Dating
Entering a room when others are already seated	Asking a teacher for help
Playing a musical instrument	Speaking to a supervisor at work
Playing sports	Asking a salesclerk for help
Using public restrooms	Asking for directions

It is clear from above that there are many different types of social anxiety. Some people, for example, are unable to write in front of others. Typically, such people will worry that their hands will shake and that others will know they are anxious. They might avoid signing checks in front of other people, or signing charge card slips. This may lead them to either avoid shopping or get someone else to do the shopping for them, or they may choose to pay only with cash. Fear of playing sports because of concerns about looking awkward or foolish are very common, particularly in children and adolescents.

2.8.3 Fear of Interactional Situations

Interactional anxiety involves situations where a person has to engage in social discourse with at least one other person. A simple interactional situation would be having a conversation with one person, needing to pay attention only to what he or she was saying or doing and responding appropriately. A more complex interactional situation would be having a conversation with several people. Another example of interactional anxiety is fear of dating, a fear closely related to speaking with members of the opposite sex (or, for people who are gay or lesbian, to members of the same sex).

There is also a group of social fears that can be broadly classified as *fear of interacting with people in authority.* For an adult, this might translate intodifficulty talking with one's supervisor at work. For children, this mightmean being afraid to talk to the teacher.

Then there are interactional fears that involve everyday kinds of social interactions. An example is a man who goes shopping and would prefer to spend 30 minutes looking for a size 36 pair of jeans than ask a salesperson for help. Another example is a woman who would rather drive around for hours than stop and ask for directions. (This behavior occurs in over 90 percent of men, regardless of their level of social anxiety.)

Mental health professionals who treat people with social phobia recognize that there are varieties of the disorder, and use a type of clinical shorthand to group those who suffer from it into either the *non-generalized* or *generalized* type.

People with non-generalized social phobia usually have one or two performance situations that make them anxious, such as speaking or writing in public. This can be a serious problem for some, but most people with non-generalized social phobia function well in other types of social situations.

2.9 Inhibited Children

Parents and relatives are often struck by how different young children in the same family can be, beginning very early in life. Some children are easily upset and frightened, whereas others rarely cry and are less easily frightened. Some children sleep a great deal early in life, and others are wide awake and alert much of the time. Some children love to explore and try new things, and others are cautious and bothered by change. We call these characteristics, present from very early in life, *temperament.* Most of us have heard stories from our parents about our childhood temperaments, something most of us cannot clearly remember ourselves. Sometimes these stories define us, even as adults.

Renowned developmental psychologist Jerome Kagan and his colleagues at Harvard University have for the past decade and a half been studying *behaviorally inhibited* children. By inhibited, they mean children who, from an early age, are slow to warm up in the presence of strangers and timid about exploring new environments. About 15 to 20 percent of the children Kagan studied had this form of behavior at 3 years of age. In a series of important studies, Kagan's group has shown that the most inhibited of these children tend to stay this way as they grow older. This is not to say that *all* children who are behaviorally inhibited at 3 grow up to become socially phobic adults. The relationship is not nearly that clear. In fact, many behaviorally inhibited children in the studies did outgrow it by the time they reached 7 years of age. (Some of these children may have benefited from their parents' efforts to help them overcome their behavioral inhibition; we'll talk more about this later in this book.) But very inhibited children are three to four times as likely as less inhibited children to become anxious adults.

Behaviorally inhibited children are also more likely to have a parent with social anxiety disorder, suggesting that the conditions are related. It has also been shown that social

anxiety disorder, particularly the generalized type, tends to run in families. How might we explain these findings? It is possible, of course, that parents with social anxiety disorder behave in ways that lead their children to be inhibited. For example, a child might see his father avoid talking to new people, or refuse to answer the phone. The child might get the message that these situations are frightening or dangerous, and might therefore begin to fear them. In addition, socially anxious parents might attempt to protect their child from the experiences that they recall made them anxious when they were young. For example, if a socially anxious mother sees her son begin to cry when left with other children, she might rescue the child by taking him in her arms, rather than encourage him to stay in the situation and learn to cope. So it may be that behaviorally inhibited children learn these patterns from socially anxious adults. But social anxiety might also be transmitted genetically.

Are there other ways to know if your child is having a problem with anxiety? Yes, you can often infer from people's *behavior* that they are anxious, uncomfortable, or upset. In the case of social anxiety, you can learn a lot by paying attention to what your child *avoids.* What kinds of situations do kids with social anxiety try to avoid?

♦ Speaking in class

♦ Making presentations

♦ Reading aloud

♦ Taking tests

♦ Writing on the board

♦ Eating in front of others

♦ Inviting kids over to play

♦ Going to parties

♦ Playing sports

If your child is avoiding doing some of these things, he or she may be experiencing social anxiety. How do you know for sure? Start by asking your child about it: "I've noticed you haven't wanted to go to some of the birthday parties of kids in your class. The parties sound like a lot of fun. Is there some reason you don't want to go? Is there something you're worried about?"You can follow up with, "Sometimes kids worry that they're going to look silly, or that they might say something stupid, or that the other kids won't like them. Are you worrying about any of those things?"You can also talk

with your child's teacher to learn whether he or she is interacting with other children in group situations, speaking up in class, and so on.

2.10 School Phobia

When children start school, they are often anxious when they must separate from their parents. But when a child continues to have trouble separating after several days of trying, further attention may be warranted. Many children experience *separation anxiety;* almost all of them get over it. But 2 or 3 in every 100 kids remain so afraid of separating that they cry continuously when away from their parents, or refuse to go to school altogether. This is often referred to as *school phobia.*

School phobia is a misnomer. Children aren't afraid of school; they are afraid of being separated from their parents (in which case we speak of them as suffering from *separation anxiety disorder*), or they are afraid of being around and interacting with other people (in which case we speak of them as suffering from, yes, *social anxiety disorder*). Either fear can result in the child wanting to avoid school. But the focus of treatment differs depending on the nature of the fear. It is therefore important to sort out the reason the child is resisting school.

We want to make one additional point here: no child should be allowed to choose not to go to school because of anxiety. If your child wants to stay home from school because he or she is too afraid to go, you should do two things. First, try to determine the cause of the fear. If it's legitimate (for instance, violence has occurred at school, the child is being bullied, or a teacher is being abusive), meet with the principal immediately. If the fear is irrational or excessive (your child has a problem with social anxiety or a related anxiety problem or phobia), arrange to meet with the school counselor.

Second, once you are certain your child is not in any real physical danger, send him or her back to school. Not a week later, not three days later, but the next day!

So, upon coming to school for learning foreign languages children who have suffered such kinds of psychological disorders may find it a bit difficult to cope with situations in learning where a student should take an active role as in speaking. The mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second-language or foreign-language learners. Consequently, learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course on the basis of how much they feel they

have improved in their spoken language proficiency. Oral skills have hardly been neglected in EFL/ESL courses (witness the huge number of conversation and other speaking course books in the market), though how best to approach the teaching of oral skills has long been the focus of methodological debate. Teachers and textbooks make use of a variety of approaches, ranging from direct approaches focusing on specific features of oral interaction (e.g., turn-taking, topic management, and questioning strategies) to indirect approaches that create conditions for oral interaction through group work, task work, and other strategies (Richards, 1990).

2.11 Foreign Language Learning Anxiety

Veteran teachers at colleges or secondary school keep complaining that though they spent quite a lot of time teaching speaking their students can hardly be said to speak properly in an open session. After modern technology has turned the world into a small village then need for speaking English as a lingua franka has become essentially great. University students, tomorrow's professionals, should ideally have a good command of communication skills in English so as to prepare for their future careers and lives. However,   regretfully enough to see that most university students who are given at least six years of English instruction and can pass English examinations with high grades are actually weak at communicating in English in real life situations. Some even lack the courage to open their mouths at all to try and speak, or stumble and stammer when they speak (Huang & Shao, 1998; Tsang, 2001). So in order to help our students overcome their apprehension and anxiety when speaking they will not make such great accomplishment with their learning.

The term "anxiety" refers to the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system (Spielberger, 1983). The relationship between anxiety and performance can best be illustrated with an inverted "U", that is, "when anxiety is low, performance is also low. When anxiety is optimal, performance is high, but beyond an optimal level of anxiety, performance deteriorates" (Walker, 1997, p. 17). Anxiety was divided into facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety for the first time by Alpert and Haber (1960). The former refers to the anxiety leading to improved performance, while the latter refers to the one resulting in impaired performance. According to Alpert and Haber's theory (1960), we can safely arrive at the conclusion that facilitating anxiety can enhance

performance, while debilitating anxiety might inhibit learning and performance. Nevertheless, we should not overlook the possibility that observations of facilitating and debilitating anxiety are actually different ends of the same anxiety continuum (Dewaele, 2013; Hembree, 1988). Above all, if we can have a better understanding of these two kinds of anxieties, it will be much easier for us to identify the reasons contributing to students' high level of language anxiety (i.e., debilitating anxiety) as well as the strategies to cope with it.

2.12 Language Anxiety

"Language anxiety" can be defined as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128). Language anxiety "harms learners" performance in many ways, both indirectly through worry and self-doubt, and directly by reducing class participation and creating overt avoidance of the language" (Xiang, 2004, p. 116). These findings are consistent with those of von Wörde (2004) and other researchers who conclude that anxiety can negatively affect the language learning experience in numerous ways and that reducing anxiety seems to increase language acquisition, retention and learner motivation (e.g., Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1990). Nonetheless, we should also bear in mind Kleinmann's study (1977), which follows Alpert and Haber in arguing that learners who scored high on facilitating anxiety tended to perform well. Above all, it is well-documented that "language anxiety is a pervasive and prominent force in the language learning context, and any theoretical model that seeks to understand and interpret the language learning process must consider its effect" (Gardner, 1991, p. vii). Since it is commonly recognized that language anxiety is closely related to self-perception (Young, 1990), we need to consider the role of this construct to understand language anxiety. "Self-perception" is a superordinate concept, which "includes self-descriptions (self-concept) as well as self-evaluations (self-esteem); the importance of each self-description and self-evaluation; and also the way in which all the self-descriptions and evaluations are organized to produce something recognizable as 'self'" (Walker, 1997, p. 21). For instance, Walker (1997, p. 3) argued that "as the learner progresses through schooling, changes in self-perception are thought to be involved in increasing levels of apprehension".

2.12.1 Foreign Language Apprehension

"Foreign language apprehension" is fear or apprehension occurring when a learner is expected to perform in a second or foreign language (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Horwitz et al. (1986) concluded that FLA frequently shows up in listening and speaking activities, testing situations, overstudying, and certain beliefs (for instance, everything that will be said in foreign language should be correct), and so on. FLA is distinct from general anxiety although it seems to be related to the latter in the way that the anxious

foreign language learners feel nervousness, tension, and apprehension in some specific situations (Trang, 2012). Parallels have been drawn between FLA and three related performance anxieties: communication anxiety, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Among the three, communication anxiety is defined as "a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127); it focuses on a person's level of anxiety in communicating with others, and it is frequently associated with those who anticipate troubles in communication with others. Horwitz et al. (1986, p. 127) define test anxiety as "the type of performance anxiety resulting from a fear of failure in an academic evaluation setting". It refers to the anxiety students normally experience in foreign language exams, which are sensitive situations where students are expected to succeed and hence bear inevitable nervousness to students. Fear of negative evaluation refers to "apprehension about others' evaluative situations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (Watson & Friend, 1969, p. 449). It is kind of different from test anxiety as it may occur in any social situation rather than just in academic situations. In addition, McCroskey (1997, p. 82) defines communication anxiety (in his term, communication apprehension) as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated oral communication with another person or persons".

2.12.2 Foreign Language Speaking Apprehension

With regard to the term "foreign language speaking anxiety" (FLSA), there is no existing definition up to now. However, following the above discussion, I believe it can be conceptualized as "an individual's fear or nervousness associated with either real or anticipated oral communication in foreign language with another person or persons".

Foreign language learning apprehension has been a widely and heatedly discussed topic for more than 60 years around the world (e.g., Alpert & Haber, 1960; He, 2013, 2017; Horwitz et al., 1986). The most frequently studied issues include the reasons leading to learners' FLLA (e.g., He, 2013; Young, 1990), the strategies helping reduce such anxiety (e.g., Alrabai, 2015; Kondo & Yang, 2004), the relationship between students' 4 1 Framework for Foreign Language Learning Anxiety FLLA and their FL learning

achievements (e.g., Chen, 2008; Liu, 2011), and the scales used in FLLA studies (e.g., Guo & Wu, 2008; Zhang & Zhao, 2011), among others. Ever since late 1990s, FLLA has also become a key issue for English language teaching in China and drawn considerable attention from Chinese scholars and researchers. A myriad of studies on FLLA have been conducted and research articles been published. However, efforts in verifying the effectiveness of the anxiety-reducing strategies are lacking in the existing literature, both in and out of the Sudan. Overall, for FLLA research in 1980s and before, the exploration of general FLA among university students took center stage. There appeared new trends afterwards in researching FLLA, for example, studying anxieties in more specified aspects of foreign language learning, like listening anxiety (e.g., Chen & Liu, 2010; Zhou, 2009), FL speaking anxiety (e.g., Hashemi & Abbasi, 2013; Lü, 2010), reading anxiety (e.g., Liao, 2008; Pu & Shi, 2010), writing anxiety (e.g., Gao, 2013; Wu & Gu, 2011), and translation anxiety (e.g., Kang, 2012; Yan & Wang, 2012). A more recent trend lies in the diversified participants of FLLA studies, with target samples expanding from mainly the traditional tertiary level FL learners to middle school and even primary school learners (e.g., Li, Wang, Zheng, & Dong, 2010; Zhang, 2008).

2.12.3 Foreign Language Apprehension as a Specific Case

FLSA as a Specific Case Walker (1997) asserted that "a student who believes his capacities in speaking English are inadequate, may answer a teacher's question using the fewest words possible in order to protect himself from the possibility of error, or he may choose to read the answer from the text instead of risking self-constructed speech" (p. 23). In my previous teaching, I also found some students, if confronted with some "failure" in speaking English, would remain silent more frequently when required to speak the language. Research on foreign language anxiety also shows that speaking-oriented activities produce higher anxiety among language learners than any other in-class activities (Young, 1990). Previous research has asserted that language anxiety is the most important factor which negatively correlated with students' performance among the affective factors (e.g., Liu & Huang, 2011; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Olivares-Cuhat, 2010). It is a real dilemma that activities designed to promote practical and genuine oral communication in class may also lead to student anxiety

(Young, 1990). These findings reinforce the complex relationship between FLLA and oral language performance, and suggest that it is necessary to take a number of variables into consideration when we try to study FLLA. These include the language learning context, the definition of anxiety and measurement of anxiety, the age of participants, and language proficiencies (Young, 1990). In addition, FLLA is closely related to other psychological constructs and other factors, including shyness, self-perception, social anxiety and competitiveness.

However, all these findings and my impressions from previous teaching experience need to be tested empirically in Sudan. FLLA research in Sudanese higher academic institutions only started in late 1980s. Recent years have witnessed increasing interest in FLLA research from Sudanese scholars and teachers alike. A wide range of aspects surrounding FLLA have been studied, including the measurement of FLLA level, the test of the relationship between FLLA and FL learning performance, the identification of the reasons leading to and the proposition of strategies helping reduce such anxiety. Nevertheless, none of the previous studies has verified the effectiveness of anxiety-reducing strategies they claimed or proposed. What is more, while various aspects of FLLA have been studied by previous researchers, little work has been done to investigate specifically the FLSA, which is possibly the most prevalent type of learning anxiety among Sudanese university students, the reasons leading to FLSA, and the strategies to reduce it. These issues are of great significance considering the relationship between FLA and foreign language learning/proficiency, and the large number of English learners in Sudan as mentioned earlier.

Against the above background, theoretical bases and conceptualizations, and also the broader context of FLLA in general, this research aims to address some key issues concerning FLSA while at the same time depicting the bigger picture of FLLA. The issues (research questions) in focus are: (1) what are the levels of FLSA possessed by the non-English majors in Sudan? (2) what are the differences in FLSA among various participant groups? (3) what reasons contribute to students' FLSA? and (4) what strategies are helpful to reduce their FLSA? The "strategies" mentioned here will be verified through application of them into daily FL teaching and learning to see whether they are effective or not in reducing FLSA. Such verification is of particular importance

since it would only be meaningful if the strategies are used in FL learning and found to be effective.

In spite of the great advancements in FLA research in the past, this book still adds new insights to the existing literature in this area. Theoretically, this book hopes to make a contribution towards filling the gap concerning FLSA research in Sudan. Previous research has made significant achievements in investigating social anxiety, communication anxiety, language anxiety and self-perception, and foreign language classroom anxiety, as well as in the development of related scales for measurement and strategies for anxiety management. However, limited systematic work has been done in Sudan to attempt to investigate FLSA among university students, not to mention the non-English majors' perceptions of FLSA and the differences in FLSA among various groups of such students. Hence the question of what strategies may help to reduce these students' FLSA and to overcome the reasons that contribute to their FLSA has not yet been answered. This book is worthwhile in the sense that English teaching and learning in Sudan may be very different from that in other countries due to the cross-cultural differences in educational systems. In addition, the insights and findings revealed in this book can also contribute to a more general understanding of the foreign language acquisition as well.

Pedagogically, this research explores into a very important aspect of English teaching and learning in Sudan—foreign language speaking anxiety among the non-English majors. Since "speaking is important at most stages of FL learning for most learners" (Walker, 1997, p. 45), and "those who engage in more interaction have more opportunities for language acquisition" (Ibid.), we should try to help students cope with FLSA so as to build their confidence in FL speaking and finally enable them to have a better acquisition of the language. This book is most likely the first attempt to address FLSA of Sudanese tertiary students with the application and verification of effective strategies among the students with a high level of FLSA, and may serve as references to their English learning, especially the oral English acquisition of the non-English majors. All of these may derive valuable implications for college English teaching and learning of the non-English majors in Sudan.

Consequently, we might wonder why language anxiety would affect language learning. Answers to this question have been sought by researchers and educators alike. On the

basis of Tobias' (1979, 1980, 1986) and Schwarzer's (1986) work, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) offered the following explanation: instead of focusing on the task itself, anxious people are liable to employ themselves in self-directed derogatory cognition. These task-irrelevant thoughts compete with task-relevant ones for limited cognitive resources. Since language learning is a cognitive process involving encoding, storage, and retrieval activities, anxiety can influence each of these activities by distracting attention from anxious students (MacIntyre, 1995a). As a result, it is natural to find that less anxious students can better focus their attention on the task itself because of their appropriate rather than exaggerated self-awareness. However, there are different opinions on these issues, and other researchers maintain that anxiety inhibits students' ability to process incoming language and thus short-circuits the language acquisition process (Krashen, 1988, 1995). Horwitz and Young (1991a, p. 177) conclude that the problem about "how anxiety impedes language learning has not been resolved".

Irrespective of whether scholars and researchers can agree on the reasons for language learning being affected by anxiety, many studies have been conducted on the relationship between them (e.g., Alpert & Haber, 1960; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b; Spielberger, 1983). A number of definitions of the term anxiety have also been offered by scholars of various theoretical orientations (e.g., Alpert & Haber, 1960; Spielberger, 1983; Tobias, 1979, 1980, 1986). Among them, Spielberger's definition (1983, see Sect. 1.1.1 for details) is one of the most accepted (Chiang, 2006). The rest of this section (i.e., Section 2.1) reviews some of the most established theories with regard to anxiety, such as the differentiations between state anxiety and trait anxiety; general anxiety and specific anxiety; facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety; as well as unitary anxiety and multidimensional anxiety (cf., Chiang, 2006). In addition, relationship between anxiety and language learning will also be reviewed along with these distinctions.

2.13 Discourse Analysis vs. Conversational Analysis

Advances in discourse analysis, conversational analysis, and corpus analysis in recent years have revealed a great deal about the nature of spoken discourse and how it differs from written discourse (McCarthy and Carter, 1997). These differences reflect the different purposes for which spoken and written language are used. Jones (1996:12)

comments: In speaking and listening we tend to be getting something done, exploring ideas, working out some aspect of the world, or simply being together. In writing, we may be creating a record, committing events or moments to paper.

Research has also thrown considerable light on the complexity of spoken interaction in either a first or second language. For example, Luoma (2004) cites some of the following features of spoken discourse:

- Composed of idea units (conjoined short phrases and clauses)
- May be planned (e.g., a lecture) or unplanned (e.g., a conversation)
- Employs more vague or generic words than written language
- Employs fixed phrases, fillers, and hesitation markers
- Contains slips and errors reflecting online processing
- Involves reciprocity (i.e., interactions are jointly constructed)
- Shows variation (e.g., between formal and casual speech), reflecting speaker roles, speaking purpose, and the context.

2.13.1 Conversational routines

A marked feature of conversational discourse is the use of fixed expressions, or "routines," that often have specific functions in conversation and give conversational discourse the quality of naturalness. Wardhaugh (1985:74, cited in Richards 1990) observes:

There are routines to help people establish themselves in certain positions: routines for taking off and hanging up coats; arrangements concerning where one is to sit or stand at a party or in a meeting; offers of hospitality; and so on. There are routines for beginnings and endings of conversations, for leading into topics, and for moving away from one topic to another. And there are routines for breaking up conversations, for leaving a party, and for dissolving a gathering. . . . It is difficult to imagine how life could be lived without some routines.

Consider the following routines. Where might they occur? What might their function be within these situations?

- This one's on me

- I don't believe a word of it.
- I don't get the point.
- You look great today.
- As I was saying, . . .
- Nearly time. Got everything.
- I'll be making a move then.
- I see what you mean.
- Let me think about it.
- Just looking, thanks.
- I'll be with you in a minute.
- It doesn't matter.

Pawley and Syder (1983) suggest that native speakers have a repertoire of thousands of routines like these, that their use in appropriate situations creates conversational discourse that sounds natural and native-like, and that they have to be learned and used as fixed expressions.

In designing speaking activities or instructional materials for second language or foreign-language teaching, it is also necessary to recognize the very different functions speaking performs in daily communication and the different purposes for which our students need speaking skills.

2.13.2 Styles of speaking

An important dimension of conversation is using a style of speaking that is appropriate to the particular circumstances. Different styles of speaking reflect the roles, age, sex, and status of participants in interactions and also reflect the expression of politeness. Consider the various ways in which it is possible to ask someone the time, and the different social meanings that are communicated by these differences.

- Got the time?
- I guess it must be quite late now?
- What's the time?
- Do you have the time?
- Can I bother you for the time?
- You wouldn't have the time, would you?

Lexical, phonological, and grammatical changes may be involved in producing a suitable style of speaking, as the following alternatives illustrate:

- Have you seen the boss? / Have you seen the manager? (lexical)
- Whachadoin? / What are you doing? (phonological)
- Seen Joe lately? / Have you seen Joe lately?

Different speech styles reflect perceptions of the social roles of the participants in a speech event. If the speaker and hearer are judged to be of more or less equal status, a casual speech style that stresses affiliation and solidarity is appropriate. If the participants are perceived as being of uneven power or status, a more formal speech style is appropriate, one that marks the dominance of one speaker over the other. Successful management of speech styles creates the sense of politeness that is essential for harmonious social relations (Brown and Levinson, 1978).

2.13.3 Functions of speaking

Numerous attempts have been made to classify the functions of speaking in human interaction. Brown and Yule (1983) made a useful distinction between the interactional functions of speaking, in which it serves to establish and maintain social relations, and the transactional functions, which focus on the exchange of information. In workshops with teachers and in designing my own materials, I use an expanded three-part version of Brown and Yule's framework (after Jones, 1996, and Burns, 1998): *talk as interaction; talk as transaction;talk as performance.* Each of these speech activities is quite distinct in terms of form and function and requires different teaching approaches.

2.13.4 Talk as interaction

Talk as interaction refers to what we normally mean by "conversation" and describes interaction that serves a primarily social function. When people meet, they exchange greetings, engage in small talk, recount recent experiences, and so, on because they wish to be friendly and to establish a comfortable zone of interaction with others. The focus is more on the speakers and how they wish to present themselves to each other than on the message. Such exchanges may be either casual or more formal, depending on the circumstances, and their nature has been well described by Brown and Yule (1983). The main features of talk as interaction can be summarized as follows:

- Has a primarily social function

- Reflects role relationships
- Reflects speaker's identity
- May be formal or casual
- Uses conversational conventions
- Reflects degrees of politeness
- Employs many generic words
- Uses conversational register
- Is jointly constructed

We can see some of these features illustrated in the following authentic example of a segment of conversational discourse (from Thornbury and Slade 2006: 132–133). Two women are asking a third woman about her husband and how they first met.

Jessie: Right. Right, and so when did you – actually meet him?

Brenda: So we didn't actually meet until that night.

Judy: Oh, hysterical. [*laughs*]

Brenda: Well, I met him that night. We were all, we all went out to dinner. So I had champagne and strawberries at the airport.

Jessie: And what was it like when you first saw him? Were you really – nervous?

Brenda: – Well, I was hanging out of a window watching him in his car, and I thought "oh God what about this!" [*laughs*]

Brenda: And he'd combed his hair and shaved his eyebrows – and

Jessie: Had you seen a photo of him?

The conversation is highly interactive and is in a collaborative conversational style. The listeners give constant feedback, including laughter, to prompt the speaker to continue, and we see the examples of casual conversational register with "nervy" and "hanging out of the window."

Examples of these kinds of talk are:

- Chatting to an adjacent passenger during a plane flight *(polite conversation that does not seek to develop the basis for future social contact)*
- Chatting to a school friend over coffee *(casual conversation that serves to mark an ongoing friendship)*
- A student chatting to his or her professor while waiting for an elevator *(polite conversation that reflects unequal power between the two participants)*

- Telling a friend about an amusing weekend experience, and hearing him or her recount a similar experience he or she once had *(sharing personal recounts*

Some of the skills involved in using talk as interaction involve knowing how to do the following things:

- Opening and closing conversations
- Choosing topics
- Making small-talk
- Joking
- Recounting personal incidents and experiences
- Turn-taking
- Using adjacency pairs2
- Interrupting
- Reacting to others
- Using an appropriate style of speaking

Mastering the art of talk as interaction is difficult and may not be a priority for all learners. However, students who do need such skills and find them lacking report that they sometimes feel awkward and at a loss for words when they find themselves in situations that require talk for interaction. They feel difficulty in presenting a good image of themselves and sometimes avoid situations that call for this kind of talk. This can be a disadvantage for some learners where the ability to use talk for conversation can be important. Hatch (1978) emphasizes that second language learners need a wide range of topics at their disposal in order to manage talk as interaction. Initially, learners may depend on familiar topics to get by. However, they also need practice in introducing new topics into conversation to move beyond this stage.

They should practice nominating topics about which they are prepared to speak. They should do lots of listening comprehension for topic nominations of native speakers. They should practice predicting questions for a large number of topics. . . . They should be taught elicitation devices . . . to get topic clarification. That is, they should practice saying "huh," "pardon me," "excuse me, I didn't understand," etc., and echoing parts of sentences they do not understand in order to get it recycled again. Nothing stops the opportunity to carry on a conversation quicker than silence or the use of "yes" and head nodding when the learner does not understand. (Hatch 1978:434)

2.13.5 Talk as transaction

Talk as transaction refers to situations where the focus is on what is said or done. The message and making oneself understood clearly and accurately is the central focus, rather than the participants and how they interact socially with each other. In such transactions,

. . . talk is associated with other activities. For example, students may be engaged in hands-on activities (e.g., in a science lesson) to explore concepts associated with floating and sinking. In this type of spoken language students and teachers usually focus on meaning or on talking their way to understanding. (Jones 1996:14)

The following example from a literature lesson illustrates this kind of talk in a classroom setting (T = Teacher, S = Student):

T: The other day we were talking about figures of speech. And we have already in the past talked about three kinds of figures of speech. Does anybody remember those three types? Mary?

S: Personification, simile, and metaphor.

T: Good. Let me write those on the board. – Now can anybody tell me what personification is all about again? Juan?

S: Making a nonliving thing act like a person.

T: Yes. OK. Good enough. Now what about simile? . . .

OK. – Cecelia?

S: Comparing two things by making use of the words "like" or "as."

T: OK. Good. I'll write that on the board. The other one – metaphor. Paul?

S: It's when we make a comparison between two things, but we compare them without using the words "like" or "as."

T: All right. Good. So it's more direct than simile. Now we had a poem a few weeks ago about personification. Do you remember? Can you recall one line from that poem where a nonliving thing acts like a human person?

S: "The moon walks the night."

T: Good. "The moon walks the night." Does the moon have feet to walk?

S: No.

T: No. So this is a figure of speech. All right. Now our lesson today has something to do with metaphor. Now we're going to see what they have in common . . .

(Richards and Lockhart 1994: 116–117)

Examples of talk as transaction are:

- Classroom group discussions and problem-solving activities
- A class activity during which students design a poster
- Discussing needed computer repairs with a technician
- Discussing sightseeing plans with a hotel clerk or tour guide
- Making a telephone call to obtain flight information
- Asking someone for directions on the street
- Buying something in a shop
- Ordering food from a menu in a restaurant

Burns (1998) distinguishes between two different types of talk as transaction. The first type involves situations where the focus is on giving and receiving information and where the participants focus primarily on what is said or achieved (e.g., asking someone for directions). Accuracy may not be a priority, as long as information is successfully communicated or understood.

The second type is transactions that focus on obtaining goods or services, such as checking into a hotel or ordering food in a restaurant. For example, the following exchange was observed in a café:

Server: Hi, what'll it be today?

Client: Just a cappuccino, please. Low-fat decaf if you have it.

Server: Sure. Nothing to eat today?

Client: No, thanks.

Server: Not a problem.

The main features of talk as transaction are:

- It has a primarily information focus.
- The main focus is on the message and not the participants.
- Participants employ communication strategies to make themselves understood.
- There may be frequent questions, repetitions, and comprehension checks, as in the example from the preceding classroom lesson.
- There may be negotiation and digression.

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- Linguistic accuracy is not always important.

Some of the skills involved in using talk for transactions are:
- Explaining a need or intention
- Describing something
- Asking questions
- Asking for clarification
- Confirming information
- Justifying an opinion
- Making suggestions
- Clarifying understanding
- Making comparisons
- Agreeing and disagreeing

2.13.6 Talk as Performance

The third type of talk that can usefully be distinguished has been called talk as performance. This refers to public talk, that is, talk that transmits information before an audience, such as classroom presentations, public announcements, and speeches. For example, here is the opening of a fall welcome speech given by a university president:

"Good morning. It's not my intention to deliver the customary state of the university address. There's good reason for that. It would seem to me to be presumptuous for someone who has been here not quite seven weeks to tell you what he thinks the state of the university is. You would all be better prepared for that kind of address than I am. However, I would like to offer you, based on my experience – which has been pretty intensive these almost seven weeks – some impressions that I have of this institution, strengths, or some of them, and the challenges and opportunities that we face here. . . . I also want to talk about how I see my role during the short time that I will be with you . . ." (www.sjsu.edu/president/docs/speeches/2003_welcome. pdf. Accessed June 9, 2007)

Spoken texts of this kind, according to Jones (1996:14),

. . . often have identifiable generic structures and the language used is more predictable. . . . Because of less contextual support, the speaker must include all necessary information in the text – hence the importance of topic as well as textual knowledge.

And while meaning is still important, there will be more emphasis on form and accuracy.

Talk as performance tends to be in the form of monolog rather than dialog, often follows a recognizable format (e.g., a speech of welcome), and is closer to written language than conversational language. Similarly, it is often evaluated according to its effectiveness or impact on the listener, something that is unlikely to happen with talk as interaction or transaction. Examples of talk as performance are:

- Giving a class report about a school trip
- Conducting a class debate
- Giving a speech of welcome
- Making a sales presentation
- Giving a lecture

The main features of talk as performance are:

- A focus on both message and audience
- Predictable organization and sequencing
- Importance of both form and accuracy
- Language is more like written language
- Often monologic

Some of the skills involved in using talk as performance are:

- Using an appropriate format
- Presenting information in an appropriate sequence
- Maintaining audience engagement
- Using correct pronunciation and grammar
- Creating an effect on the audience
- Using appropriate vocabulary
- Using an appropriate opening and closing

Teachers sometimes describe interesting differences between how learners manage these three different kinds of talk, as the following anecdotes illustrate.

"I sometimes find with my students at a university in Hong Kong that they are good at talk as transaction and performance but not with talk as interaction. For example, the other day one of my students did an excellent class presentation in a course for computer science majors, and described very effectively a new piece of computer software. However, a few days later when I met the same student going home on the subway and tried to engage her in social chat, she was at a complete loss for words."

Another teacher describes a second language user with just the opposite difficulties. He is more comfortable with talk as interaction than with talk as performance.

"One of my colleagues in my university in China is quite comfortable using talk socially. If we have lunch together with other native speakers, he is quite comfortable joking and chatting in English. However, recently we did a presentation together at a conference and his performance was very different. His pronunciation became much more "Chinese" and he made quite a few grammatical and other errors that I hadn't heard him make before."

Three core issues need to be addressed in planning speaking activities for an English class. The first is to determine what kinds of speaking skills the class will focus on. Is it all three of the genres described in the preceding section, or will some receive greater attention than others? Informal needs analysis is the starting point here. Procedures for determining needs include observation of learners carrying out different kinds of communicative tasks, questionnaires, interviews, and diagnostic testing (e.g., Tsang and Wong 2002). The second issue is to identifying teaching strategies to "teach" (i.e., provide opportunities for learners to acquire) each kind of talk.

2.14 Teaching talk as interaction

Talk as interaction is perhaps the most difficult skill to teach since interactional talk is a very complex and subtle phenomenon that takes place under the control of unspoken rules. In my experience, these are best taught by providing examples embedded in naturalistic dialogs that model features such as opening and closing conversations, making small talk, recounting personal incidents and experiences, and reacting to what others say. One rule for making small talk is to initiate interactions with a comment concerning something in the immediate vicinity or that both participants have

knowledge of. The comment should elicit agreement, since agreement is face-preserving and non-threatening. Hence, safe topics, such as the weather, traffic, and so on, must be chosen. Students can initially be given models such as the following to practice:

A: Nice weather today.

B: Yes, it is.

A: I hope the weather is nice for the weekend.

B: Me, too.

A: The buses to school are always so crowded.

B: Yes, they are.

Later, students can be given situations in which small talk might be appropriate (e.g., meeting someone at a movie, running into a friend in the cafeteria, or waiting at a bus stop). They can then be asked to think of small talk topic comments and responses.

Giving feedback (or back channeling) is another important aspect of talk as interaction. It involves responding to a conversational partner with expressions that indicate interest and a wish for the speaker to continue, such as "That's interesting," "yeah," "really," and so on. To practice using back channeling in this way, students can examine dialogs from which feedback expressions have been omitted. They can consider suitable ways of providing them and then practice using them. For example, they can come up with different responses to use in the following dialog:

A: I'm going to Hawaii for my next vacation.

B: …………………………………………………………….

A: Yeah, my parents are taking me there as a graduation

present.

B: . And what do you plan to do there?

A: Well I guess I'll spend a lot of time on the beach.

B: …………………………………………………….

A: But I also want to do some snorkeling.

B: …………………………………………………….

Another technique to practice the use of conversation starters and narratives about personal experiences involves giving conversation starters that students respond to by

asking one or two follow-up questions. For example: "I didn't sleep very well last night." "Look what I bought on Sunday. How do you like it?" "Did that thunderstorm last night wake you?"

Two simple activities I use to practice topic management are "in the hot seat" and "question time." In the first activity, a student sits on a chair in front of the class and makes a statement about something he or she did recently (e.g., "I saw a good movie on Sunday"). The other members of the class ask three or more questions about the topic, which the student has to answer quickly. The "question time" activity, introduces students to a lesson on a new theme. I prepare up to 15 questions related to the theme and put them on a handout. For example, if the next unit covers sports, the students' handout would include questions such as "What sports do you play?" "How often do you play sports?" "What sports are popular in your country?" "What sport have you never tried?" I first ask students around the class to answer the questions quickly. Then students practice asking and answering the questions in pairs.

Talk as transaction is more easily planned since current communicative materials are a rich resource of group activities, information-gap activities, and role plays that can provide a source for practicing how to use talk for sharing and obtaining information, as well as for carrying out real-world transactions. These activities include ranking, values clarification, brainstorming, and simulations. Group discussion activities can be initiated by having students work in groups to prepare a short list of controversial statements for others to think about. Groups exchange statements and discuss them, for example: "Schools should do away with exams." "Vegetarianism is the only healthy lifestyle." "The Olympic games are a waste of money." Role-play activities are another familiar technique for practicing real-world transactions and typically involve the following steps:

- *Preparing*: Reviewing vocabulary, real-world knowledge related to the content, and context of the role play (e.g., returning a faulty item to a store).
- *Modeling and eliciting*: Demonstrating the stages that are typically involved in the transaction, eliciting suggestions for how each stage can be carried out, and teaching the functional language needed for each stage.

- *Practicing and reviewing*: Assigning students roles and practicing a role play using cue cards or realia to provide language and other support.

An issue that arises in practicing talk as transaction using different kinds of communicative tasks is the level of linguistic accuracy that students achieve when carrying out these tasks. One assumption is that form will largely look after itself with incidental support from the teacher. Grammar has a mediating role, rather than serving as an end in itself (Thornbury 1998:112). "The teacher and the learner have a remarkable degree of flexibility, for they are presented with a set of general learning objectives and problem-solving tasks" (Kumaravadivelu 1991:99). As students carry out communicative tasks, the assumption is that they engage in the process of negotiation of meaning, employing strategies such as comprehension checks, confirmation checks, and clarification requests. These are believed to lead to a gradual modification of learners' language output, which over time takes on more and more target-like forms.

Despite these optimistic claims, others have reported that communication tasks often develop fluency at the expense of accuracy. For example, Higgs and Clifford (1982:78) reporting experience with foreign language teaching programs in the United States, observed the following:

In programs that have as curricular goals an early emphasis on unstructured communication activities – minimizing, or excluding entirely, considerations of grammatical accuracy – it is possible in a fairly short time . . . to provide students with a relatively large vocabulary and a high degree of fluency . . . These same data suggest that the premature immersion of a student into an unstructured or "free" conversational setting before certain linguistic structures are more or less in place is not done without cost. There appears to be a real danger of leading students too rapidly into the creative aspects of language use, in that if successful communication is encouraged and rewarded for its own sake, the effect seems to be one of rewarding at the same time the incorrect strategies seized upon in attempting to deal with the communication strategies presented.

Similar findings have been reported in more recent studies of task work (see Foster, 1998; Musumeci, 1996).

The following example of the quality of language that is sometimes produced as students practice transactional functions of language. This example was observed during a role-play task in a Spanish secondary school English lesson. One student is playing the role of a doctor and the other a patient, and they are discussing a health problem.

S1: You how old?

S2: I'm thirty-four . . . thirty-five.

S1: Thirty . . . five?

S2: Five.

S1: Problem?

S2: I have . . . a pain in my throat.

S1: [*In Spanish*] What do you have?

S2: A pain.

S1: [*In Spanish*] What's that?

S2: [*In Spanish*] A pain. A pain.

S1: Ah, pain.

S2: Yes, and it makes problem to me when I . . . swallow.

S1: When do you have . . . ?

S1: Since yesterday morning.

S1: [*In Spanish*] No, I mean, where do you have the pain?

It has a pain in . . . ?

S2: In my throat.

S1: Ah. Let it . . . getting, er . . . worse. It can be, er . . . very serious problem and you are, you will go to New York to operate, so . . . operation . . . the 7th, the 27th, er May. And treatment, you can't eat, er, big meal.

S2: Big meal. I er . . . I don't know? Fish?

S1: Fish, you have to eat, er, fish, for example.

This example shows how low-level students, when carrying out communication tasks, often rely on a lexicalized system of communication that depends heavily on vocabulary and memorized chunks of language, as well as both verbal and nonverbal communication strategies, to get meaning across. Several methods can be used to

address the issue of language accuracy when students are practicing transactional use of language:

1. By pre-teaching certain linguistic forms that can be used while completing a task.
2. By reducing the complexity of the task (e.g., by familiarizing students with the demands of the activity by showing them a similar activity on video or as a dialog).
3. By giving adequate time to plan the task.
4. By repeated performance of the task.

Willis (1966) suggests using a cycle of activities with task work using a sequence of activities in a lesson. These activities create interaction mediated by a task and then build language awareness and language development around task performance.

2.15 Teaching Talk as Performance

Teaching talk as performance requires a different teaching strategy. Jones (1996:17) comments:

Initially, talk as performance needs to be prepared for and scaffolded in much the same way as written text, and many of the teaching strategies used to make understandings of written text accessible can be applied to the formal uses of spoken language.

This approach involves providing examples or models of speeches, oral presentations, stories, etc., through video or audio recordings or written examples. These are then analyzed, or "deconstructed," to understand how such texts work and what their linguistic and other organizational features are. Questions such as the following guide this process:

- What is the speaker's purpose?
- Who is the audience?
- What kind of information does the audience expect?
- How does the talk begin, develop, and end? What moves or stages are involved?
- Is any special language used?

Students then work jointly on planning their own texts, which are then presented to the class.

Feez and Joyce's approach to text-based instruction provides a good model for teaching talk as performance (1998:v). This approach involves:

- Teaching explicitly about the structures and grammatical features of spoken and written texts
- Linking spoken and written texts to the cultural context of their use
- Designing units of work that focus on developing skills in relation to whole texts
- Providing students with guided practice as they develop language skills for meaningful communication through whole texts

2.16 Micro – and Macro Skills of Speaking

Brown (2004:142) distinguishes between micro – skills and macro skills of speaking. The micro skills refer to producing the smaller chunks of language such as phonemes, morphemes, words, collocations, and phrasal units.   The macro skills imply the speaker's focus on the larger elements: fluency, discourse, function, style, cohesion, non verbal communication, and strategic options.

Brown (2004:142-143) continues to explain micro and macro skills of oral production as quoted below:

2.16.1 Micro skills

- Produce differences among English phonemes and allophonic variants.
- Produce chunks of language of different lengths.
- Produce English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure and intonation contours.
- Produce reduced forms of words and phrases.
- Use an adequate number of lexical units (words) to accomplish pragmatic purposes.
- Produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery.
- Monitor one's own oral production and use various strategic devices – pauses, fillers, self-corrections, backtracking-to enhance the clarity of the message.

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- Use grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs…etc) system. (e,g. tense, agreement, pluralization), word order, patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
- Produce speech in natural constitutions: in appropriate phrases, pause breathes groups, and sentence constituents.
- Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.
- Use cohesive device in spoken discourse.

2.16.2 Macro skills

- Appropriate accomplish communicative functions according to situations, participants, and goals.
- Use appropriate styles, registers, implicative, redundancies, pragmatic conventions, conversation rules, floor – keeping and floor – yielding, interrupting, and other sociolinguistic features in face – to face conversations.
- Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as focal and peripheral ideas, events and feelings, new and given information, generalization, and exemplification.
- Convey facial features, kinesics, body language, and other non verbal cues along with verbal language.
- Develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well your interlocutor in understanding you. Brown (2004:142-143).

2.17 Confidence in Second Language

The psychological side is essential in each activity in our lives. It is difficult to make someone do something he dislikes it. You can take the horse to the river but you can't force it to drink. Confidence, motivation, and language ability are often treated as distinct but related learning dimensions in the field of second language acquisition (Clement and Kruidenier, 1985).

The literature widely holds that these concepts are directly related and impact each other, and that if one of the factors increases or decreases, the others will follow in a

direct relationship. Yashima et al (2004) claim, "Considering that students need to communicate in order to improve communicative skills and gain confidence, the researchers hope to postulate a circular and interactive model to show the dynamics of interest, motivation, learning, confidence, and communication" (p 144). Thus, few if any attempts have been made to explore confidence in isolation, and this concept has largely been regarded as a corollary of other studies dealing with other effective variables such as anxiety or motivation. However, these studies are important since they have identified an association between self – confidence in language ability and other language related phenomena. Pervious literature has established a strong relationship between confidence and motivation. For example, Clement et al (1994) suggests that many variables are related to motivation, but specially produced adequate evidence to show that self– confidence is a powerful and major motivational process in multi-cultural as well as mono-cultural society. The researchers concluded that classroom activities and atmosphere played a role in self-confidence but another type of self-confidence (or lack thereof) could be the product of extracurricular acquaintance (both positive and negative) with the L2.

Yashima (2002) examined 297 university students and found that learners who were more motivated to engage in English conversation due to their positive attitudes toward the international community possessed a high level of confidence compared to students who lacked such motivation. The evidence of consistent association between low self-confidence and anxiety encourages a serious consideration of the role low self-confidence might play in students' experience of second language anxiety.

Cheng et al (1999) emphasize this specific role of self-confidence in second language learning and claim that their findings offer additional endorsement to many other quantitative and qualitative studies that have identified association between lo self-confidence in language ability and language – related – anxiety.   In their own words, "some anxious students in second language classes may be afflicted primary by low self-confidence in speaking the target language" (Cheng et al, 1999, p. 436). Machtyre et al. (1997) also hypothesize that, in the context of second language learning, students with low self-confidence might tend to underestimate their ability to learn a second

language and have negative expectations about their performance, there by feeling insecurity or anxiety in the face of the language learning tasks.

Many previous studies have shown that there is a direct relationship between students' confidence and their speaking behavior in L2. For example, Lai (1994) attempted to identify Hong Kong secondary students' level of confidence in using English and the factors leading to different confidence level in oral participation in classrooms. The findings show that most of the subjects "felt lack of confidence in using English as means of communication in the classroom" (Lai, 1994, p: 122). In another study, Machtyre et al. (1998) suggest that self-confidence significantly contributes to the learner's willingness to communicate in a foreign language. According to them, affective factors such as motivation, personality, intergroup climate, and self-confidence underlie willingness to communicate, and the factor of self-confidence – including overall self-confidence in L2 and situational self-confidence in communication play an important role in determining the learner's willingness to communicate.

Yashima et al. (2004) cites a study of high school students who traveled abroad to study English. Some students were not ready to communicate due to some factors, including lack of L2 confidence, and found themselves in an endless cycle: needing to communicate with native speakers to gain L2 confidence, but due to a lack of confidence, unable to initiate interactions. Due to its negative effects, some researchers in their studies attempted to propose solutions for students' lack of confidence in L2 classrooms. A study conducted by Burden (2004) reveals that almost 70% of 289 university freshman surveyed felt unconfident speaking English.

2.18 Significance of Motivation in Reducing Oral Apprehension

Significance of Motivation

Motivation is the power and fuel that makes one going on and doesn't give up. Supported by the Gestalt therapy, Confluent Education holds that people possess a fundamental need for learning, directs itself towards self-exploration and personal growth. Just as the human organism will spontaneously reach out for food when it is hungry sustain it, so the need for learning will be spontaneous and intrinsically

motivated:"Appetite seems either to be stimulated by something in the environment or to rise spontaneously from the organism. But of course the environment would not excite, it would not be a stimulus, unless the organism was set to respond; and further, it can often be shown that it was dimly aware appetite that put one in the way of the stimulus at the appropriate time. The response reaches out to the stimulus". (Perls et al. 1951, p. 404). However, this natural interest to reach out and learn requires conditions which allow it to unfold, or which remove hindrances or blockage and thus promote its unfolding. A learning environment conductive to growth includes an atmosphere of trust, forms of interaction between partners, learning situations which stimulate encounters, and above all, learning arrangements which allow for creative ways of exploration by making contact with both the world inside and the world outside. (Michael.1991: p, 42).

In Gestalt 'awareness' is the tool which allows the individual organism to be in contact. It has been compared with a kind of psychological searchlight which can be pointed within limits, as a person chooses:

A person can usually 'be aware of whatever he considers himself to be (that which is inside the ego boundary), although he most likely can't do this all at once; thus the play of the searchlight. He will experience great difficulty being aware of parts of himself which he doesn't consider 'himself' (that which is outside the ego boundary), those parts which for some reason he has disowned. Much of Gestalt therapy works precisely with this problem, by attempting, through the focusing of awareness (the therapist 'stating the obvious and making implicit'), to break open ego boundaries and encapsulated elements in order to reintegrate disowned elements and to clear out or assimilate interjected or rigidified elements. Awareness is a capacity which is used as a tool in this task. (Yeomans, 1975, p. 146)

Motivation is directly tied to our focus on the whole child, for motivation consists of the physical, emotional, cognitive, and social forces that drive our desires for and commitment toward reaching a particular goal even when challenges arise. We are never unmotivated. We are simply more motivated toward certain goals at different times depending on our needs, interests, and our beliefs about our ability to be successful in achieving a particular goal. This means that motivation changes and

evolves and can be influenced by the environments in which we find ourselves and by the people in those environments.

When we talk about motivation in schools, we are generally talking about whether students are motivated to learn. Researchers measure "motivation to learn" by the degree to which students are committed to think through problems and working through challenges to master a concept or gain a new skill. This goes beyond student enjoyment of an activity, as students must persist through obstacles. We witness some of these obstacles when we try to speak the motivation to learn in student whose biological, emotional, or social needs are not fully met or in those students who believe that they can't be successful because of the discouraging messages they received in the past.

According to Skinner cited in Brown (2001: 57-58), the anticipation of reward is the most powerful factor in directing one's behavior. Everything people do is inspired by a goal. During the teaching and learning process, a reward can be in the form of praise for a correct response e.g. very good and appropriate grades or scores or other public recognition. However, teachers should carefully use a reward to motivate the students. They may consider the following things:

a- Provide an optimal of immediate verbal praise and encouragement to students as short – term reward.

b- Encourage students to reward each other with compliments and supportive action.

c- Short – term reminders of progress may help students to perceive their development in class with low motivation.

d- Display enthusiasm and excitement during the teaching and learning process.

e- Explain the long – term rewards in learning English such as academic benefits of knowing English.

2. 19 Designing a Communicative Syllabus

In order to avoid all the problems and complexities of oral apprehension a rigorous oral syllabus should be developed taking into account all the factors causing language

anxieties. (Marianne, 1992: p, 19) states that in recent years, many innovations in curriculum planning have been proposed that offer both novice and veteran teachers a dizzying array of alternatives. Games, yoga, juggling, and jazz have been proposed as aids to language learning. Rapidly increasing opportunities for computer – meditated communication, both synchronous – online chat rooms – and asynchronous – the full spectrum of information and interactions available on the internet as well as specialized bulletin boards and e-mail – hold promise for further integration of communicative opportunities for learners worldwide.

In attempting to convey the meaning of CLT to both pre-service teachers of English as a second or foreign language in a wide range of contexts, it is helpful to think of a communicative curriculum as potentially made up of five components. These components may be regarded as thematic clusters of activities or experiences related to language use and usage, providing a useful way of categorizing teaching strategies that promote communicative language use. Use of the term *component* to categorize these activities seems particularly appropriate in that it avoids any suggestion of sequence or level. Experimentation with communicative teaching methods has shown that all five components can be profitably blended at all stages of instruction. Organization of learning activities into the following components serve not to sequence an ELT program, but rather to highlight the *range of options* available in curriculum planning and to suggest ways in which their very interrelatedness benefit the learner.(Marianne, 1992: p, 19).

Many professionals recognize the importance of practice in the acquisition of any cognitive skill. There is increasing recognition of SL learning as a process of skill acquisition (O'Mally, Chomat, and Walker 1987), which implies the importance of practice, or output, rather than mere input (cf. Pica et al. 1996; Swin and Lapkin 1995). Teachers thus need to remain aware that they are not in the classroom to fill up the time with the sound of their own voices, but to arrange matters so that their students do the talking (or writing, or listening). Particularly in EFL rather than ESL situations, class time is so valuable that we believe the teacher should move on to practice phases of a lesson as soon as possible in a manner consistent with an adequate presentation of material and the giving of clear instructions for some practice exercises.

Assuming that the instructor decides that a given teaching objective calls for some support in the way of materials, what then? The major resource is of course the textbook. In addition, other teaching aids fall into two categories (Celce-Murcia 1979): nontechnical aids and technical aids (not counting the students themselves, who can of course play a stimulating role in the presentation stages of a lesson). The former includes the chalkboard, regalia, flashcards, magazine pictures, and charts. The latter include the overhead projector, audio and video recordings, CA-ROM, and Internet.

For the untrained teacher, a good text book can stand in for a syllabus and training program, while an experienced teacher can use the text as an aid, adopting some parts, adapting others (Stevick 1971), or can even dispense with it completely. The utility of the average textbook for a typical present-day ESL/EFL course is normally unquestioned. Nonetheless, we argue teachers to remember that most textbooks in a given period of time are often very much alike (Ariew 1982); they are the product of the pressures of the market, as imperfectly interpreted through the publisher and materials writer, and can often run counter to legitimate educational pressures.

Some general points can be made about the presentation stage of a lesson. First, the instructor is, in fact, rather free from constraints despite the various procedures suggested by the teachers' notes typically accompanying the text. Texts designed for beginning and intermediate learners still commonly present the material of each unit via a dialogue, and the teacher is often instructed to have the students work with the dialogue. In many traditional classroom settings (especially EFL settings), this involves having the moving next to partial memorization. Yet, an equally efficient procedure for some classes would be to have students pair off and read the dialogue aloud while the teacher circulates and checks individual performance. The point is that teachers have the right and responsibility to utilize the material in whatever way seems appropriate, hopefully making use of the findings that SL research suggests.

For example, an increasingly well-established line of work has stressed the role of attention and awareness in SL learning (Schmidt 1990, 1995) and the importance of drawing the learner's attention to certain characteristics of the language which might otherwise be missed (referred to as "input enhancement "; Rutherford 1987, Doughty and Williams 1998a) it follows therefore, that the teacher should usually present the text

or illustrative material with an immediate focus on the target points. On the other hand, research over the last two decades has made clear that SL learning doesn't take place in a simple linear fashion with one linguistic element being added to the text. In the syntactic domain, learners proceed at different speeds through fairly regular sequences (Pienemann and Johnson 1987). It is unlikely that structural target points will be internalized by many in class after one exposure. Consequently, the particular aspect of language to be learned should almost certainly come up on other occasions, in other lessons. The fact that SL learning involves the learning of a cognitive skill implies the first stage of use (the "cognitive stage") will be erroneous and difficult for the learner. Movement towards automatic will require a great deal of active, realistic practice in the use of the target language, which may not be susceptible to general error correction. Finally, at the presentation stage, it is relevant to consider what little is known about the learner's development of control over the pragmatic aspects of SL. An emphasis on realistic, communicative language use in the class room from an early stage is therefore justified, as is the development of the meta-linguistic terms needed to talk about language use (Henriksen 1988).

Part two: Previous related works

EFL oral apprehensions are affected by many factors among the factors that have been investigated by researchers are speech rate Conrad (1989) ,lexis   Rost(2002) ,phonological and background knowledge. Long (1990) and syntax, motivation and lack of exposure to the target language Brown (1992). The following are some important studies that have investigated listening comprehension difficulties among EFL learners.

Assaf (2015) conducted a study entitled " The Difficulties Encountered by EFL Learners in Listening Comprehension as Perceived by ELC Students at the Arab American University –Jenin" with the aim to identify the difficulties students face in listening comprehension and to find out the relationship of the difficulties encountered by EFL students with students' academic level , academic year , gender ,type of school and number of school years studying English , she used a questionnaire and an interview to collect data , first the questionnaire was developed and given to a sample of 189 EFL students , the sample was chosen randomly. The interview then was held with

12 students chosen randomly from the sample of the study. The results of the study revealed that disability of word recognition, lack of background information about the topic, noises around, poor quality of listening equipments , not enjoying the listening excerpt, speed rate and gliding over words while speaking were the problems the students stated in the interview. Besides that, the researcher found out that there were no significant differences in the difficulties students encountered in listening due to academic level, academic year, gender, type of school and number of school years studying English.

Challenges of Oral Delivery is a PhD research carried out by Ahmed Bastawi at Omdurman University First Year Students at English Department of Academic Year 2015-2016" with the aim to collect information about the students' challenges in listening activities, their perspectives on listening subject, and positive factors on the students' success in listening , they used a test and a questionnaire to collect data. The findings of this study showed that students faced problems in listening because they still could not complete the basic speaking skills in the test. Furthermore, most of them considered listening classes challenging due to some problems and difficulties during the teaching and learning activities, besides that lack of practice, limited vocabulary mastery, native speakers' accent, pronunciation and uninteresting learning materials influenced the students' listening skills. Moreover, their knowledge about English structure and good facilities in speaking classes supported them to be able to figure out some challenges in speaking activities. In addition, the students realized the importance of the speaking activities, but assistance from the teachers and some other students were still needed during the teaching and learning activities.

Cubalit (2016) investigated " Oral apprehension Problems of Thai University English Learners" with the aim to investigate, identify and analyze speaking comprehension problems that students face with regard to the listening text, the speaker, the listener and the strategies the students use to resolve their speaking comprehension problems. The researcher used a questionnaire to collect data. The findings of this study showed that students faced problems in speaking   related to the listening text, the speaker, and the speaker at a high level. Other factors contributing to listening difficulties among Thai university students were lack of opportunity to practice and use English skills.

Hamouda (2013) conducted a study entitled "An Investigation of Listening Comprehension and Speaking Problems Encountered by Saudi Students in the EFL listening classrooms" , the researcher selected 60 first year English majors students who took a listening course in the university academic year (2012-2013) at Qassim University for the study , the researcher used a questionnaire and an interview to gather information , the results of the study indicated that pronunciation ,speed of speech, insufficient vocabulary , different accents of the speakers , lack of concentration , anxiety and bad quality of recording materials were the major listening comprehension problems that encountered EFL Saudi learners.

Izzah and Keeya (2019) studied " Common Speaking Challenges: Indonesian EFL learners' Perception " with the aim to identify the common speaking challenges experienced by Indonesian EFL learners. They used descriptive methods of quantitative research. In collecting data; the researchers used a self-structured questionnaire which refers to three basic categories; the speaker, the passage and the physical setting. The data was statistically evaluated by referring to Likert type scales. The findings of the study showed that distortions, lexis recognition, phonological awareness, complexity of the passage and the speech rate were the main challenges that encounter the subjects of the study.

Ahmed (2011) investigated " Difficulties of Teaching Speaking and Listening Skills in Large Classes" , the study took place at Sudan University of Science and Technology during the academic year 2011 , the researcher used the descriptive analytical method , to collect data two tools were used a questionnaire for teachers and a test for students , the main results of the study showed that the curriculum has negative impact on teaching listening as shown in the results of the teachers' questionnaire and the students' test. The students' test also revealed that large classes have negative effects in the students' achievements and are not helpful in teaching EFL listening comprehension

Gao (2014) studied "An Exploration of Listening and Speaking Problems and Their Causes" with the aim to identify listening comprehension problems as well as speaking experienced by Chinese university students at intermediate level through multiple perspectives, a mixed method approach was used; integrated questionnaire surveys, participants' self-reflections, the Aural-Lex tests and dictation transcriptions conducted

both at the beginning and at the end of the semester. The findings of the study suggested that the main causes of listening comprehension difficulties for Chinese university students at intermediate level were limited knowledge of phonology, inadequate vocabulary by sound and poor awareness of the features of connected speech.

Chapter Summary:

This chapter provided theoretical background and reviewed the related literature to oral apprehension   encountered by foreign language learners.

The relationship between the current study and the previous studies is that all the studies tried to investigate oral   difficulties among EFL learners and the factors that contribute to such difficulties whereas the present one took as its focal point the foreign language learning anxiety.

CHAPTER THREERESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter explains the methodology adopted for this study. Figure 3.1 provides a brief outline of this chapter. A precise methodology summarizes the research approach in response to the assessment of the research questions, research objectives in chapter one and to examine the proposed hypotheses in chapter three. It begins with the introduction followed by the summary of methodology and the philosophical premise of the research.

In addition, the rationale for choosing quantitative approach and identifying and measurement for variables are described in detail. A research design process includes the population, sample size, sampling techniques, data collection process and procedures for analysing the data. Instrument validation, measurement and analysis procedures are included in the discussion.

3.2 PHILOSOPHICAL VIEWPOINT OF THE RESEARCH

Philosophical assumptions contribute significantly towards deciding the paradigm that shapes the research design chosen for a study. These assumptions constitute the researcher predispositions towards the nature of reality (ontology), and how the researcher constructs or develops his or her knowledge (epistemology). This in turn contributes to the researcher's value (axiology), the language of research (rhetoric), and the methods used in the process (methodology) (Creswell, 2009). This study adopts the "Positivist" philosophical paradigm. This philosophical stance is adopted because the researcher will empirically observed facts that are clarified with rational analysis. This paradigm is contingent on the logic and its philosophy.

Positivism gained popularity in the 18th century during the "enlightenment" period (Porter, 2001). Positivism philosophical paradigm advocates for the advancement of the world through better realisation and rationalization of research procedure and conclusion (Porter, 2001). As an outcome, the positivistic paradigm presents a self-

corrective technique which verifies the reliability of data that decreases the effect of personal bias on the basis of facts. The purpose of the positivist research is to continue the research based on time and context-free generalised statements on a particular subject because they believe human actions are capable of explaining the solution to actual issues to facilitate, precede their behaviours (Neuman 2006).

Consequently, to discover a single and objective reality, a specifically structured research technique (statistical and mathematical) is used which is one of the substantive components of this type of inquiry. In this structured procedure, ontology and epistemology are followed by methodology, methods, and sources. This process includes the knowledge of apprehension on Sudanese undergraduate students` Oral production and how this research acquires precise data about it.

This study adopts the positivist paradigm based on the positivist ontology (nature of reality) and epistemology (the relationship between the researcher and the reality) (Carson, Gilmore, Perry and Gronhaug, 2001). Positivist ontology has a single, external and objective reality to any research question (Carson et al., 2001). Thus, this study will use structural approach, starting from ascertaining a topic and objective, dealing with proper research questions, theories, conceptual model, and utilising an appropriate research methodology. According to Carson et al. (2001), positivist inquirers conduct investigation about the research's objectivity and use the rational and logical approach consistently. To eliminate biasness and undue influence, there is always a barrier or distance between positivist researcher and the participants in order to construct clear distinctions between cause and feeling, fact and value judgement as well as between individual experience and science.

On the other hand, interpretivism argues that multiple realities exist in the world. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), multiple substances are extremely complex to understand since they depend on other methods. The knowledge which is developed from this paradigm is apparent in the form of socially constructed realities and subjective interpretations (Hudson and Ozonne, 1998; Carson et al., 2001) or meanings professed as multiple realities. The interpretivism researcher continues to discover innovative new thoughts during the research and allow it to expand with the help of his witness. Therefore, it is insufficient to produce a solid research design. In the data

compilation stages, the researcher and his informants are dependent on one another and create a mutual explanation of perceived reality.

3.3 RATIONALE FOR CHOOSING QUANTITATIVE APPROACH

This study will fulfil its objective based on quantitative approach. The deductive approach is appropriate for this research because it starts from a general perspective of a phenomenon to a more specific and detailed one called the "top-down" approach (Trochim, 2002). Figure 3.2 shows the process of the deductive approach which justifies the approach adopted for this study based on its research objectives and questions.

Rationale for choosing quantitative research in this study will further be solidified with explanation of research design and survey methodology. This research developed a theoretical model using current literature related to communication apprehension factors affecting oral production among undergraduate students in Sudan universities. As, the research methods should be aligned with the research questions, objectives and hypotheses. Thus, a quantitative methodology has been adopted in this research to test the hypotheses and to answer the research questions. The main aim of this study is to unearth students' communication apprehension and oral production behaviours by taking an appropriate quantitative approach. In this regard, investigating students' communication apprehension behaviour as well as sustaining causation effect on this behaviour requires an organised method of a merging deductive approach with precise empirical observations. The exogenous or independent variables will be used to provide more explanation on this exploration.

Adopting quantitative approach enables the researcher to show measurable proof of the qualities of connections among variables (Amaratunga, Baldry, Sashar and Newton, 2002). Quantitative procedure is highly potent in verifying the hypotheses with strong validity and reliability that can conceivably overcome it (Amaratunga et al., 2002). This methodology is thought to be appropriate on the grounds that this research aims to empirically examine the relationships between communication apprehension and oral production constructs (Clarke, 1999).

3.3.1 Survey-Based Research

The proposed theoretical model of this research has been evaluated by using undergraduate studentsin Sudanese universities in Khartoum as the sample. This is a survey-based research, as a self-administered questionnaire was designed to collect data. There are five reasons for a self-administered survey approach.

First, it aims to treat more reliably with the nature of the respondents' feelings, and views (Shaughnessy and Zechmeister, 1997) and gather information on faith, attitudes, and intentions (Burns, 2000). Secondly, when researchers have little control of the behavioural aspects of an individual, this tool is considered the most feasible (Yin, 1993). Thirdly, a survey-based research helps to collect accurate data to facilitate the conclusion and to provide generalised findings based on the sample (Creswell, 2009). Fourthly, as per Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2003), this survey research helps to discover the casual explanation of an event. They also state that more than 200 of the samples are appropriate for a research-based survey and this is quick, cheap and successful (Sekaran, 2000; Zikmund, 2003).

Survey research has been inundated with several challenges, these include less control over timeliness, difficulty in determining respondents' truthfulness, information gap and insufficient explanation are viewed as challenges associated with the survey method (Hair et al., 2003). To circumvent these problems and to ensure precision, hair et al. (2003) provided guidelines for the survey method. As mentioned earlier, a valid and reliable measure to assess the fundamental constructs should be applied. By ensuring a well-designed questionnaire for the respondents to understand, the systematic response and distortion issues are addressed, and it would be free of response bias. Due to research controls, any method used will have its limitations. However, the mentioned causes are strong enough factors for choosing the survey for this research.

3.3.2 Self-Administered Questionnaire

There are various data that can be collected, data can be gathered by telephone interviews, personal interviews, and self-administered questionnaire (SAQ). For this

research, SAQ will be adopted. It is a data collection technique in which the respondent reads the survey questions and enters personal responses or reactions. It is an opportunity for the researchers as they depend on the lucidity of the composed words (Zikmund, 2003). The method also has some advantages:

1) Since the population is significant for this study compared to other methods such as a personal interview or phone interview, a self-administered questionnaire was employed to survey quickly and economically.

2) The questionnaire was filled out at a convenient time for the respondents.

3) It reaches a geographically widespread sample at a lower cost (Zikmund, 2003).

This research used a self-administered questionnaire. It is called the drop-off survey. According to this method, the researcher visited the target respondents and a representative delivered the survey questionnaires with the permission of the different university authorities. The questionnaire will be handed out by the researcher to the teachers of English language from the selected universities. After the respondents complete the questionnaires, the designated research assistant will collect the complete questionnaire for the respondents.

As outlined by Hair et al. (2003), there are two advantages of utilising survey method. They stated the availability of a person to answer queries (i.e., undergraduate students from different universities in Khartoum); and the ability to generate interest in the completion of questionnaires (i.e., teachers or the university authority encouraged students to complete questionnaires through interaction with researcher). The other methods (such as mail, web-based survey and telephone) will be explored in the course of the study.

3.4 VARIABLE IDENTIFICATIONAND MEASUREMENT

This study investigates the impact of communication apprehension on Sudanese Undergraduate Students` Oral Production. Oral production serves as the dependent variable. The variables is identified from the various literatures that is related to this research. The variables are as follows:

- Dependent variable: Students` Oral Production.

- Independent Variable: communication apprehension as stated below:

- Group Discussion

- Interpersonal

- Meetings

- Public Speaking

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN PROCESS

The research design is a critical phase in a research procedure, which requires prior preparation to carry out the collection of data. It is essential that a research design be aligned with the objective, research questions of the study, the study location and the type of study. Research design must also be aligned with the degree to which the study is controlled, the study's temporal aspects as well as the nature of data analysis to be conducted (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

3.5.1 Population

The population is important to determine sufficient sample as well as generalise the findings related to the research (Cavana et al., 2001). Zikmund (2012) defines target population as the particular set or group appropriate for the study's investigation. Moreover, the process of selecting the sample should be carried out in an empirical manner, and the proper specifications and characteristics of the sample should match the targeted population so that the whole population is represented (Zikmund, 2012).

The researcher has determined that the specifications of the sample encompass the identified population and contain the necessary traits. The target population for this research are undergraduate students (male and female covered freshmen, sophomores, and seniors) from three Sudanese universities in Khartoum. The average age of the students is 23years old. These students have studied English language during high school education. The total number of the students in 2018-2019 in these three universities is 1,500 (Source: Ministry of Higher Education, 2019).

3.5.2 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis refers to how the research questions inquiry will be stated (Yin, 2013 Trochim, 2006). Selecting the unit of analysis is critical to distinguish the relevant data to be gathered. It is required to collect and compare an excessive amount of data. According to the objective of the study, students' experience of communication apprehension helped to identify the underlying factors that affect oral production. The unit of analysis of this study is the individual respondents (undergraduate students) who are from three universities in Sudan capital Khartoum.

3.5.3 Sampling Frame

Sampling frame is the information about the population parameter obtained from sample or census (Malhotra and Birks 2006). Three (3) universities will be covered out of 32 universities in Khartoum for this present study. Primary data will be the main source to collect data from individual students from the selected universities through questionnaire, which will be distributed among respondents. The students' experience of communication apprehension will be the unit of analysis of this study. Hence, the sampling frame for this study are male and female, freshmen, sophomores, and seniors students from the selected universities.

3.5.4 Sampling Technique

Sampling technique is one of the important component of probability sampling design (Sekeran and Bougie, 2009). Probability sampling design requires a representative sample which is for generalisation purposes. Sampling technique ensures that selection of one does not produce any bias against the selection of another (Salking, 2003). As the objective of the study is to get the samples from different universities in Sudan, stratified random sampling method is the most appropriate one for this study. This will ensure that each university is adequately represented in the research. Having an equivalent and independent probability of being selected as a sample from the population is called the random sampling procedure (Gay and Airasian, 2000). Thus, this method has the highest chance of getting samples compared to other methods. Stratified sampling is a method of probability sampling that divides the target

population into mutually exclusive homogeneous segments known as strata. After stratification, samples will be selected randomly. Malhotra and Birks (2007) also mentioned that the components of stratification could be homogeneous as well as heterogeneous which need to be closely related to the characteristics of interest. Certain criteria will be applied for collecting samples for the universities selected for this study. The criteria are as follows:

a. The respondents participated in this study comprise of full –time students who have been in the universities for at least two semesters.

b. The respondents must have studied English in their high school.

3.5.5 Sample Size

Sample size determination is an important matter for any research, and the ideal size depends on the type of the research (Sekaran and Bougie 2010). Various approaches exist to determine the sample size. A good sample size should represent the population in such a way so that the finding can be generalised (Cavana et al., 2001). A sample size that is too large can lead to erroneous conclusions, and one that is too small may not be useful in generalising the result to target and study population. This may lead to wrong decisions being made on the validity of the hypothesis or the research questions.

Singh (2006) argued that no single rule can determine the sample size for a study. The larger the sample size, the greater the possibility to represent the population more precisely. However, no precise guidelines regarding the sample size have been stipulated. A rule of thumb is suggested by Hair et al. (2010) states that a minimum recommended level is five observations for each parameter. If the observation/parameter ratio is less that 5:1, the statistical strength of the results may be in doubt (Baumgartner and Homburg, 1996). However, five cases for one parameter is an adequate parameter/observation ratio (Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). This assumption implies that models with a greater number of parameters requires larger samples (Kline, 2011).

The present research accepted a 5% margin of error together with a 95% confidence level. The targeted sample size was calculated based on the target population

size of this research (N=1500); therefore, the sample should be 95% ± 5 = 306. This was determined based on Krejice and Morgan's (1970) guidelines for deciding minimum sample size. In any research, complex model estimation requires a large sample size given the possibility of missing data (Hair et al., 2010). Despite this ratio calculation, adequate sample size for this study is also based on the data analysis technique. In line with the above-recommended guidelines and justifications, the target number of usable responses for this study would be around 306.

3.5.6 Location of the Study

The location of the study will be in Sudan capital Khartoum. The study will involve university students both private and public in Khartoum. As it is well known, the majority of the universities are in Khartoum. (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1
Sample size calculation according to University

University	No of students	Percentage
Sudan University of Science and Technology	500	33.3%
University of Khartoum	700	46.7%
Future University of Sudan	300	20%
Total	**1500**	**100**

Source: Sudan (n.d)

As this research focuses on the undergraduate students from universities located in different parts of Sudan capital Khartoum, the sample size was likewise resolved by district zone. The accompanying Table 3.1 demonstrates the total number and percentages of undergraduate students in the selected universities.

3.5.7 Questionnaire Design

A structured, questionnaire will be used in this study, because it is the most often utilised and efficacious method of data collection (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 2003) for this type of research. Sekaran (2010) described the questionnaire as "a reformulated written set of questions to which respondents record their answers, usually within rather

closely defined alternatives". According to Aaker, Day, Kumar and Lawley (2005), responses to a closed-ended questionnaire are easier to analyse and record. When variables are familiar to the researcher, and it demands to be measured, then the survey plays a major role in research.

This research will obtain data using a closed-ended questionnaire. A list of measurement items was assembled, clustered in accordance with the sub-dimensions, and divided into each one of the dimensions. In this study, the questionnaire was divided into demographic information and questions related to the proposed variables in this study. The demographic section was meant for the respondents' demographic factors such as age, marital status, work experience, academic qualification, number of siblings in family etc.

The second section of the questionnaire comprises four parts, namely: Group Discussion, Interpersonal, Meetings Public Speaking and oral production test. The overall questionnaire design was derived from various literature on factors of communication apprehension and oral production. A set of items of measurement would better be able to analyse different aspects of s construct compared to a single item of measurement (Kline, 2009). Hair et al. (2010) suggested that reliability and validity cannot be determined for a single item of measurements, as can be done with a set of items of measurement. A single item of measurement typically leads to issues of identification of the model with at least three to four items of measurement for each construct (Byrne, 2009; Blunch, 2008; Kline, 2005; Chinna 2009). The level of communication apprehension and oral production will be determined based on multiple items of measurement to measure them accurately.

The questionnaire was distributed in the English language as this study focuses on English language communication apprehension. On the questionnaire, possible responses were provided based on a five-point rating scale. In empirical research, these are usually utilised for collecting primary data (Ward, Hudson and Keenan, 1998). The respondents are probed to select an option from a Likert-type scale with the choices ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to Strongly Agree" for each question. Aaher et al. (2005) suggest that the Likert scale needs the respondent to identify a level of agreement or otherwise based on different statements associated with the object or

behaviour. In addition, based on the perspective of various social science researchers, the Likert scale is arranged in measurable intervals (Aaker, Kumar and Day, 2001). The following coding has been utilised for the statistical analysis. The higher score represents a more favourable rating in the direction of the concepts beings tested, which is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Coding

Answer	Value
Strongly Disagree	1
Disagree	2
Somewhat	3
Neither Agree or Disagree	4
Somewhat Agree	5
Agree	6
Strongly Agree	7

The length of the questionnaire is also a significant issue, which should be noted by researchers. The appropriate length of the questionnaire is up to twelve pages (Frazer and Lawley (2000). Other studies such as Zikmund (2003) proposed that the thumb rule for questionnaire is, it should not exceed six pages. Thus, the questionnaire in this research will be in the rage of five to seven pages. The questionnaire was designed on the basis of the sequence because this will affect the way the respondents answer and is planned in a way that it helps to attain the purpose of the inquiry in a logical manner.

Language and wordings in the questionnaire are simple for the students to answerer, and it will be fair, appropriate and unambiguous. It is constructed in an easy way to read and understandable so that the students given their background will feel encouraged in completing the entire questionnaire (Frazer and Lawley, 2000). A sample of the questionnaire format will be subjected to assessment by the experts from both academic and English language professionals to discover the ambiguity and problems in wording. Two professors will be from the field of English language moreover, to increase the respondents' response rate; the questionnaire is designed in a very structured way with easy instructions (Janes, 2001). A cover letter will be provided with the questionnaire to gain permission from the universities authorities to carry out survey, and there will be a short briefing to the teachers and students that all the information given will be strictly used for research purpose. The use of a cover letter

motivated respondents to fulfil and return the questionnaire (Lukas, Hair and Ortinau, 2000).

3.6 INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The primary purpose of any research is to get data from the measurement of different variables affecting the study. Measurement connotes "determines the amount or intensity of some characteristics of interest to the researchers" Burns and Bush (2000, p. 309). The survey questionnaire items is chosen from the relevant variables derived from the literature. Two professors and two practitioners from the related field also approve the questionnaire. The twenty-four (24) PRCA questionnaire items are extracted to measure various Personal Report of Communication Apprehension factors affecting oral production of the undergraduate students.

3.6.1 Measure of Communication Apprehension

The measurements of communication apprehension and its factors that affect oral production is designed after reviewing the literature. Items are selected by adopting Personal Report of Communication Apprehension developed by McCroskey in 1982. Four factors are considered for this research as mentioned below with a number of items related to English language communication apprehension for undergraduate students in universities in Khartoum Sudan.

3.6.1.1 Group Discussion

The items related to group discussion used for this study are mainly adapted from the study conducted on statements regarding feelings toward communicating (McCroskey, 1982). Mustafa & Khalil Abdullah (2018) conducted research using this instrument with reliability estimation (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.642. This research adapted the questionnaire to measure communication apprehension among undergraduate students in Sudan universities. The items are listed in Table 3.3

Table 3.3
The instrumentation of Measurement Items for Group Discussion

S/N	Item/Statement*
1	I dislike participating in group discussion.
2	Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.
3	I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.
4	I like to get involved in group discussions.
5	Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous.
6	I am calm and relaxed when I have to participate

3.6.1.2 Meetings

Students normally get nervous whenever they are asked to participate in meetings among other students, this causes communication apprehension towards English language. All the meetings are adopted from (McCroskey, 1982). The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of items is based Mustafa & Khalil Abdullah (2018) is 0.723. This study is from the result of Oral Communication Apprehension among university students.

Table 3.4

The instrumentation of Measurement Items for Meetings

S/N	Item/Statement*
1	Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting.
2	I am usually comfortable when I have to participate in a meeting.
3	I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting.
4	I am afraid to express myself at meetings
5	Communications at meetings usually make me uncomfortable
6	I am very relaxed when answering questions at meetings

3.6.1.3 Interpersonal

Interpersonal means getting nervous when participating in a conversation with friends or a colleague. The reliability estimation (Cronbach's alpha) for items no 1 to 6 is 0.564 based study conducted by Mustafa & Khalil Abdullah (2018). The items are adapted from (McCroskey, 1982). The items are listed in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5:

The Instrumentation of Measurement Items for Interpersonal

S.L.NO.	Item/Statement*
1	While participating in a conversation with a new colleague, I feel very nervous
2	I have no fear of speaking up in a conversation.
3	Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations.
4	Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations.
5	While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed
6	I am afraid to speak up in conversations

3.6.1.4 Public Speaking

In the speaking domain student are expected to face the prospective audience to give a speech with confidence. When students' experiences incompability in his/her role as speaker, pressure mounted, this is as a result of communication apprehension. The

measurement public speaking was adopted from McCroskey, (1982). This measure was appropriate for this research because it included the meaning of public speaking and relationship with oral presentation. The reliability estimation (Cronbach's alpha) for the whole six items is 0.460 based on the study conducted by Mustafa & Khalil Abdullah (2018).

Table 3.6
The Instrumentation of Measurement Items for public speaking

S.L.NO.	Item/Statement*
1	I have no fear of giving a speech.
2	Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.
3	I feel relaxed while giving a speech.
4	My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.
5	I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.
6	While giving a speech, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know.

3.6.1.5 Oral production

This variable comprises five components that are generally recognized analyses of speech process, these are:

1. Pronunciation (including the segmental features vowels and consonants and the stress and intonation pattern).

2. Grammar

3. Vocabulary

4. Fluency (the ease and speed of the flow of speech)

5. Comprehension, for oral communication certainly requires a subject to respond to speech as well as to initiate it.

Types of Oral Production Test

Most test of oral production fall into one of the following categories:

1. Relatively unstructured interviews, rated on carefully constructed scale.

2. Highly structured speech samples (generally recorded), rated according to very specific criteria.

3. Paper-and-pencil objective tests of pronunciation, presumably providing indirect evidence of speaking ability.

Students allocated to the 'oral' group had a maximum of 15 minutes in a one-to-one oral examination. Oral tests were marked on a scale of 0 (no answer or completely wrong), 1 (partially correct) or 2 (correct and including all key points); hence the maximum score was 14.

Table 3.7
The Instrumentation of Measurement Items for Oral production

S/N	Item/Statement For Pronunciation Dimension	Sample Oral-English Rating Sheet
1	Has few traces foreign accent.	5
2	Always intelligible, though one is conscious of a definite accent	4
3	Pronunciation problems necessitate concentrated listening and occasionally lead to misunderstanding	3
4	Very hard to understand because of pronunciation problems. Must frequently be asked to repeat.	2
5	Pronunciation problems so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.	1
S/N	Item/Statement for Grammar	
1	Makes few (if any) noticeable errors of grammar or word order	5
2	Occasionally makes grammatical and / or word –order error, which do not, however, obscures meaning.	4
3	Makes frequent errors of grammar and word order which occasionally obscure meaning	3
4	Grammar and word – order errors make comprehension difficult. Must often rephrase sentences and / or restrict himself to basic pattern.	2
5	Errors in grammar and word order so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.	1
	Item/Statement for Vocabulary	
1	Use of vocabulary and idioms is virtually that of a native speakers	5
2	Sometimes uses inappropriate terms and/or must rephrase ideas because of lexical inadequacies	4
3	Frequently uses the wrong words conversation somewhat limited because of inadequate vocabulary.	3
4	Misuse of words and very limited vocabulary make comprehension quite difficult	2
5	vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make speech virtually impossible	1

	Item/Statement for Fluency Dimension	
1	Speech as fluent and effortless as that of a native speaker	5
2	Speed of speech seems to be slightly affected by language problems	4
3	Speed and fluency are rather strongly affected by language problems.	3
4	Usually hesitant, often force into silence by language limitations	2
5	Speech is so halting and fragmentary as to make conversation virtually impossible	1
	Item/Statement for Comprehension Dimension	
1	Appears to understand everything without difficulty.	5
2	Understand nearly everything at normal speed. Although occasionally repetition may be necessary	4
3	understand most of what is said a slower-than-normal speed with repetition	3
4	Has great difficulty following what is said. Can comprehended only "social conversation" spoken slowly and with frequent repetitions.	2
5	Cannot be said to understand even simple conversational English	1

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Positive steps can be taken to achieve a tolerable degree of reliability for the scored interview. Chief among these are (1) providing clear,precise, and mutually exclusive behavioral statement for each scale point, (2) training the raters for their tasks, and, (3) pooling the judgment of at least two rates per interview.

Highly Structured Speech Samples

The following items types, drawn from foreign language tests for native speakers of English, illustrate techniques, which would be equally appropriate in English tests for foreign students.

1. **Sentence repetition**. The examinee hears, and then repeats a series of short sentences.

Scoring procedure: the rater listens to pronunciation of two specific pronunciation points per sentence, marking whether or not each is pronounced in an acceptable way.

2. **Reading passage**, the examinee is given several minutes to read a passage silently, after which he is instructed to read it aloud at normal speed and with appropriate expression.

Scoring procedure: the rater marks two or more pronunciation points per sentence and then makes a general evaluation of the fluency of reading.

3. **Sentence conversion**. The examinee is instructed to convert or transform sentences in specific ways (from positive to negative, from statement to question, from present tenses to past, etc.). The voice on the tape gives the sentences at one at a time, the examinee supplying the conversion in the pause that follow.

Scoring procedure: the rater scores each converted sentence based on whether or not it is grammatically acceptable.

4. **Sentence construction**. The voice on the tapes asks the examinee to compose sentences appropriate to specific situations.

Scoring procedure: the rater scores each sentence on an acceptable unacceptable basis.

5. **Response to pictorial stimulus**. The examinee is given time to study each of the series pictures and then briefly describes what is going on each scene.

Scoring procedure: For each picture, the rater gives a separate rating of examinee's pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and fluency, using a 4-or-5 point scale.

Oral-production tests comprising the above, or similar, types of highly structured speech tasks offer considerable promise as replacement for the unstructured interview, for they greatly increase both test and scores consistency. However, it must not be forgotten that the scoring still requires human judgment, and satisfactory reliability can be achieved only if the rater are carefully selected and are put through rigorous training sessions.

3.7 VALIDITYAND RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

3.7.1 Validity

Zikmund (2000, p. 281), validity "addresses the problem of whether the measure what it is supposed to measure." There are four different ways (content, construct, concurrent and predictive) to measure validity; using more than one method is better to measure validity. Flynn and Pearcy (2001) advised researchers to look at what they are going to measure and whether it is better to use more than one method. This research provides

accounts of both the content and construct validity which is considered to be adequate to analyse the validity of its measurement (Cooper and Schindler 2006). The content validity will be evaluated by thoroughly reviewing the available literature on the factors of communication apprehension that affect oral production. In contrast, the degree of items variable that measures the theoretical constructs are named construct validity (Allen and Yen, 1979). Construct validity can be established by forecasting on the current theory; the rating on the items should behave in various situations. One of the important ways to measure construct validity is by using the factor analysis.

3.7.2 Reliability

The data reliability will be tested using the Cronbach alpha. According to Sekaran (2010), a positive correlation between one data and another is indicated in the Cronbach alpha, which is the reliability coefficient. Nunally (1978) has contended that Cronbach's coefficient alpha provides a good estimate of reliability in most situations, which determines reliability based on internal consistency. In short, it can be said that the Cronbach's alpha determines if the items within the scale are interrelated. The range of the Cronbach's alpha is from zero to one and values higher than 0.7 is adequate confirmation of reliability (Hair et al., 2006). Malhotra (2010) posits that value more than 0.60 is satisfactory. However, the high a value (near to 1) indicates greater reliability (Malhorta, 2010) and the higher reliability value of construct provides a better prediction to the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2006).

3.7.3 Pilot Test

Lewis, Templeton, and Byrd (2005) defined it as "The first attempt to get empirical feedback from a highly controlled sample to assess the appropriateness of the original instrument". The pilot test for this study will comprise administering of the instrument on a small number of respondents. Thirty respondents will be selected from the universities in Khartoum. The responses and reactions of these 30 respondents will serve as an overview and the information accumulated for instrument explores to

conform to the examination plan and methodology for the study. The reaction scores will additionally help the researcher to decide the quality of the instrument.

3.8 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Different statistical methods are utilised to prepare the data for analysis in the study. The various steps included in the data analysis are the collection of data, data coding, data analysis using statistical techniques, justifying the utilisation of the statistical tools, as well as the research's ethical concerns. The following section discusses all the various steps involved in the data analysis.

3.8.1 Data Collection

In this study, the feedback will be gathered from the respondents. The researcher will rely on face-to-face and online administration of the questionnaire as the main mode of collecting data. The questionnaire will also be "dropped off and collected later" in which the researcher personally (via research assistant) dropped off the questionnaire after explaining the purpose of the survey and collected them back after the respondents had completed. Online methods such as google survey will be used to compliment the face-to-face. To carry out the survey, a questionnaire will be sent to the selected universities students (with consent of the authority) in Khartoum requesting and explaining the objective of the questionnaire with directions for answering them. The university authority will be informed that the survey is for educational purposes and the respondents' answers confidentiality would be strictly kept.

3.8.2 Data Coding

The coding of data includes the process of determining and categorising all the responses numerically into the computer system (Awang 2012). The process of coding facilitates data transcription from the questionnaire to the computer system. A coding sheet will be designed by the researcher to code every response from the undergraduate students to avoid confusion due to the number of respondents and questions. The statistical package for the social science (SPSS) version 22 software will be utilised for data analysis using coding designed for the input in the computer. To carry out the

statistical analysis, all the questionnaire items such as demographic details independent and dependent variables will be numerically coded. Chapter four and five will further present and discuss the findings from the data with graphical and tabular illustrations.

3.8.3 Data Analysis

The data analysis will be carried out in several stages to address the research questions and objectives as well as to test the hypotheses. There are four stages in this process. Firstly, data coding will be carried out and input into SPSS version 22 software. This stage includes statistical description using frequencies and percentages to present the key sample characteristics as well as the demographic information, mean and standard deviation. The second stage includes the respondents' descriptive statistics as well as normality testing, reliability analysis, linearity, multicollinearity, this will be carried out utilising the SPSS software. The exploratory factor analysis (EFA) will be used in identifying the inter-relational strength of the items in detail. The third stage involves the other statistical tools such as multiple regression analysis (MRA) or path analysis as will be presented in chapter 4 in detail. The final stage involves the MRA usage for the model and hypothesis testing.

3.9 ETHICAL ISSUES

'Ethics is a central principle of research practice' and ethics 'are about being clear about the nature of the agreement the researcher establishes with research participants" Grosvenor and (Rose, 2001, p.23). Ethical issues are vital in this research to attain the complete facts. The investigator will always keep in mind that they are staunchly contributing not only to academia but also to the society. Ethical issues largely mean that participants have agreed to contribute to the research on a voluntary basis and have given written consent for the interviews to be undertaken. This research will duly follow the code of ethical acceptable by the universities in Sudan.

3.9.1 Confidentiality

 An anonymous questionnaire will be distributed among the undergraduate students in universities in Khartoum. The respondents will be assured that no identifiable number or sign would be used to identify each respondent. They will be reassured that their identity would remain confidential and it will not be linked to the response provided during the several study phases. Participants will also be further assured that any publication because of this research would not identify the individuals.

3.9.2 Right to Withdraw

Participants are free at any time during, or post-survey to terminate or withdraw their testimonies. The researcher needs to understand that the participants' consent is an authentic response that needs to be explored (BERA, 2004). As mentioned earlier, it is important to 'recognise the right of any participant to withdraw from the research for any or no reason' (BERA 2004). Prior to distribution of questionnaire or interviews, all interviewees/respondents must be informed that they can withdraw themselves at any time and that they have the right not to answer any question.

3.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Communication apprehension has been identified among many undergraduate students in universities in Sudan. This has become a threat to maintaining the oral production of the students in English language. Thus, this research focuses on the communication apprehension factors that affect oral production in English language. It is the right time to investigate this kind of problems and taking corrective measures to help reduce the stress or pressure associated with communication apprehension and oral production with effective actions for the future. More specifically, this study will provide a detailed understanding of how undergraduate students in universities in Khartoum are facing communication apprehension in particular situations that directly impede the oral production. This chapter highlighted how this research would be conveyed by using effective tools, which are matched with the purpose of this research. This research has been directed by the groundwork of information gathered via survey. A self-administered close-ended questionnaire has been used for information collection through the survey. The data collected will be analysed through a descriptive analysis,

exploratory factor analysis regression analysis or path analysis using SPSS software version 22.

CHAPTER FOURDATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the analysis of data obtained from experiment, pre-test, post test and teachers' questionnaire.

4.1 Analysis of the Experiment.

The analysis of the experiment will focus on answering vital questions on classroom interaction effect on the overall standards of the students' interlanguage with respect to factors inhibiting interaction or causing apprehension. To answer these questions, we computed the mean, standard deviation, standard error and ranges for the pretest- and post-test scores of both experimental and control groups. T-test was computed to find out whether each group had made any progress as a direct result of instruction. The following three hypotheses will be verified or confirmed in view of the analysis of the diagnostic test, Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as well as the questionnaire for the tutors.

4.2Test of the Study Hypotheses

To answer the study's questions and hence verify its hypotheses, the median will be computed for each question from the diagnostic test, Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as well as the questionnaire that shows the opinions of the study respondents about the problem in question, namely expanding classroom interaction to reinforce interlanguage and pragmatic or what is known as pragmalinguistic communicative competence further help students overcome their apprehension and shyness as regards oral production. To accomplish this task five degrees for each answer "strongly agree", four degrees for each answer "agree", three degrees for each answer "neutral", two degrees with each answer "disagree", and one degree for each answer with "strongly disagree" will be given. This means, in accordance with the statistical analysis requirements, transformation of nominal variables to quantitative variables. After that, we will use the non-parametric chi-square test to know if there are statistical differences amongst the respondents' answers about hypotheses questions. The hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

1. The teaching of English at Sudanese schools dispenses towards augmenting grammar rules and vocabulary at the expense of oral skills

2. Sudanese undergraduate students are hindered by their natural shyness to communicate in English among their peers.

3. There are quite a number of causes of oral delivery apprehension in the academic settings among these learners.

To make the most of classroom interaction certain language material was chosen for conducting the diagnostic as well as the DCT, as the outcome of the two tests will also give insights into the type of teaching material to be used to enhance classroom interaction and maximize self-trust which will lead to loss of shyness and apprehension. The material was taken from the students' syllabus and outside. As far as the diagnostic test is concerned, the first question was intended to check the students' vocabulary as regards cultural knowledge of native speakers. The question also calls on the students to use their language to describe their environment, their visit to a foreign country etc. clothing in relation to whether worn on the head, round the neck, top/bottom or half of the body. 17 marks were given to this question. So it is clear that all questions as will be seen call for pragmatic competence. The following is the analysis in relation to:

Rate the given scenarios according to their relevance to the study and clarity of construction.

Table 4.1 below shows the frequency distribution of the social variables associated with the situations in all scenarios:

The scenarios are specifically built up in a way that will ultimately help the students to overcome their weaknesses as taken to be in this present research as greatly connected with language anxiety namely oral apprehension. All the tests are carried out at the University of Sudan of Science and Technology, Third Form.

	Social status between interlocutors		Social distance		Degree of imposition	
	high	Low	high	Low	high	Low
Scenario (1)	17	33	18	32	20	30
Scenario (2)	22	28	25	25	15	35
Scenario (3)	12	38	12	38	15	35
Scenario (4)	23	27	24	26	34	16
Scenario (5)	14	36	20	30	31	19
Scenario (6)	11	39	15	35	14	36
Scenario (7)	15	35	15	35	15	25
Scenario (8)	32	18	34	16	23	27
Scenario (9)	32	18	31	19	17	23
Scenario (10)	11	39	14	36	26	24
Scenario (11)	14	26	15	25	12	38
Scenario (12)	25	25	25	25	23	27
Scenario (13)	25	25	24	26	15	35
Scenario (14)	33	17	33	17	11	39
Scenario (15)	23	27	25	25	17	33
Scenario (16)	17	23	17	23	22	28
Scenario (17)	26	24	26	24	12	38
Scenario (18)	12	38	20	30	23	27
Scenario (19)	23	27	23	27	14	36
Scenario (20)	15	35	15	35	11	39

From the above table it's clear that the numbers of low scores in Social status between interlocutors is greater than the high scores, and also at the Social distance and Degree of imposition this mean the problem exists and that what we are going to proof in the rest of the analysis. This calls for the tutors' intervention to help students reinforce this important social aspect of language using and also try to overcome their apprehension hurdles. This result confirms the second hypothesis which states that **Students are observed to be shy in using the language when getting involved in discussing issues relating to social situations it also reflects another issue or factor related to background knowledge.**

Table (4.2) shows the means of the social variables

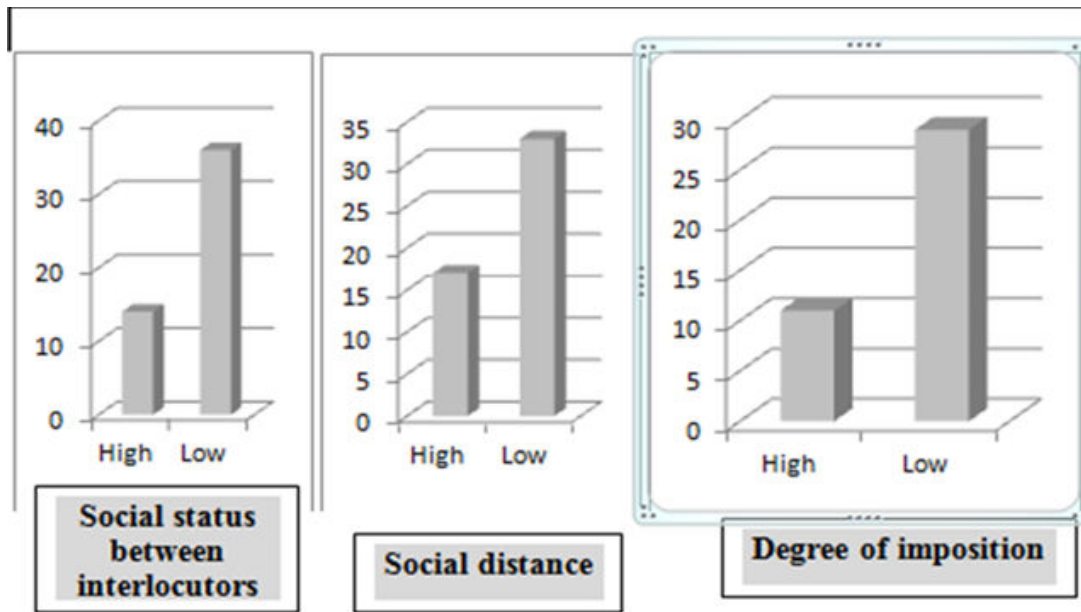| Variable	High	Low	Total
Social status between interlocutors	14	36	50
Social distance	17	33	50
Degree of imposition	11	29	50
Total average	**14**	**36**	**50**

Figure 4.1 Sociable variables

The above table and figures represent a summary of all the related data to the sociable variables which demonstrates clearly that low levels of sociable variables are greater than the higher ones.

Scenario 1	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
Almost anywhere you go these days people love to talk about what they have seen in the cinema. Any class will usually be well versed in both their own native country's films and the latest and greatest from Hollywood and elsewhere. This subject is especially useful	2.8	3.4	25	0.000

90

with younger students who might be hesitant to speak about their own lives. Speaking about films provides an almost endless font of possibilities for conversation.				

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (1) was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.3) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (3.6). It also reflects that students are somewhat hesitant to take active part in the interaction due to certain psychological or social inhibitions. Perhaps the presence of the tutor can be taken as a negative factor in this case.

Scenario 2	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
This scenario is all about manners and etiquette. This can be an interesting topic to discuss with your students, especially if there are cultural differences regarding norms of behavior between the country you're working in and the UK. A few examples: In the UK... 1. ... do stand in a queue when you wait for a bus or to pay for something in a shop. 2. ... don't spit on the street. 3. ... do burp loudly after a meal. 4. ... don't apologize if you bump into somebody on the street. 5. ... do say 'please' and 'thank you' at every opportunity. 6. ... don't cover your mouth when you yawn or sneeze. 7. ... don't greet people with two kisses. 8. ... don't pick your nose in public.	2.5	1.5	19	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (2) was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.5) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (1).

Scenario 3	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
This scenario is extremely simple. Each student adds a word to create a group story. Despite the simplicity it can be really challenging and I would only use it with higher levels. Preparation Students should be in a circle (if this isn't possible make it clear they know who they are going to follow on from). Procedure • The teacher can begin by saying the first word and each student adds the next word, without repeating what has come beforehand. • The stories can develop in any number of ways. Some groups may need the teacher to provide punctuation and decide that the sentence should end and a new one should begin. The great thing about this activity is that all students have to concentrate and listen carefully to their colleagues to be able to continue the story coherently. Good starting words are "Suddenly" or "Yesterday" to force the story into the past tense. Example: * Teacher – "Yesterday" * Student 1 – "I" * Student 2 – "saw"	2.4	0.9	31	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (3) was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.4) which supports the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (3.8).

It is clear that a scenario that is based on storytelling can be one of the easiest scenarios as almost all students can tell stories and hence their participation is expected to be fundamentally greater than in any other type of scenario. It is also possible to link the theme the student has in their minds with what the preceding student has stopped at. This in itself makes a sense of creativity and engenders critical thinking which would allow students to be fully involved in the activity and forget about their anxieties or apprehensions.

Scenario 4	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
Picture dictation is a low preparation fun activity that works well with large classes, especially with young learners and teens. All your students need is a blank piece of paper and all the teacher needs is a little bit of imagination. Procedure • First of all explain to the students that they are going to do a picture dictation, that you are going to describe a picture to them and that all they have to do is simply listen and draw what they hear you describe. You then describe a simple and easy-to-draw picture to them and they draw it. To help you with your first picture dictation you can use the picture on the accompanying worksheet and the description below it as a guide. It is a very simple picture for a low-level beginner's class but this kind of activity can be adapted to any level of student. Simply change the content of the picture accordingly.	2.9	1.6	25	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (4) was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.9) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (3.9).

Scenario 5	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
The present perfect is a tense that many students have problems with. Most course books provide only controlled grammar sentences where students choose the correct tense. This activity leads students into writing a short story using the past simple, present perfect simple and continuous, but in a more creative way. Procedure • Tell the students they are going to write a short story. • Get the students to read the following questions and decide, with a partner, what the missing words are, but not answer the questions now. • Monitor well to check they understand the activity. There are no 'correct' answers, they should use their imagination. • What is his / her name? • What is _____ about them? (e.g. strange / unusual / nice...) • What was their --problem last year? • What happened? • Why have they become so _____ ? • How many _____ have they -_____ ?	2.6	0.7	36	0.000

• Who have they been _____ recently? • What have they been _____ for the last five years?				

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (5) was (36) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.6) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (3.10).

Scenario 6	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
My working day starts very early. From Monday to Friday I get up at half past three and I have a shower and a cup of coffee. I usually leave the house at ten past four because the car always arrives a few minutes early. I get to the studio at about five o'clock and start work. My programme *Good Morning Britain* starts at seven o'clock and finishes at nine o'clock. Then I leave the studio at a quarter past ten. After that, I go shopping and visit some friends. I get home at three o'clock. A woman helps me with the housework and the ironing. I read a newspaper and do some work.	2.8	06	22	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (6) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.8) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (5).

Scenario 8	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
A nagging wife paid off big-time for a New Jersey man, who won $100,000 a year for life in the lottery thanks to his insistent spouse. Jeweler Rasen Patel was dead-set against going to work in Manhattan on March 5 because of bad weather. But his wife, Hina, insisted he go - and he picked up a New York State Lottery instant ticket on his way in. A few scratches of a coin later, and Rasen Patel was screaming with joy. Forecasters had predicted a big blizzard for that day, but the snowfall was light. And that prompted Hina Patel, an accountant, to push her husband to make his usual commute from their home in Edison into the city. "I wasn't going to go," he laughed, as he and his wife picked up their first $100,000 check at a New York Lottery office on Long Island. "I made him go because he was supposed to collect money owed to him," she said.	2.8	0.6	24	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (8) was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.8) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (7).

Scenario 9	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
Thank you for the letter you sent me last week. I'm very happy to hear that you and Francesco are well and that your exam results were so good. Well done! I know you studied hard and you deserve your success. Mine are next week so at the moment I'm studying a lot. I'm really nervous about them because, if you remember, I was ill for a couple	3.2	3.5	33	0.001

of months at the end of the year and so I missed a lot of lessons. When they finish I would like to come and visit you for a few days, if that's OK with your mom and dad. Do you remember I told you about my friend Amanda from Scotland? She's going to come here next month and is going to stay for two weeks. I'd like you to come too so you can meet her and we can all go out together. What do you think? We can practice our English! I remember last year we had such a good time. The beaches near your house are wonderful and I really enjoyed meeting your friends (especially Roberto! Is he still single?) I can't remember the name of the disco next to the train station but I'd like to go there again - it was fun.				

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (9) was (33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (3.2) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (8).

Scenario 10	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
You've just been asked out to a river cruise but you don't want to go with the person who invited you. You say:	3.1	4	22	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (10) is (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8)

which is greater than the hypothesized mean (3.1) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (9).

Scenario 11	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
What is your earliest memory? As a child what was your favorite room in the house where you grew up? What was the name of the person you really admired when you were young? What is the most interesting place you have ever been? What is the strangest thing you have seen or done? What is the biggest success you have ever had? What was the biggest opportunity you have ever missed? Who do you most like spending time with?....	2.7	4.1	22	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (11) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.7) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (10).

Scenario 12	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
One thing I haven't done before [Talking Up Numeracy] is sit down and think about what I actually do. Reflecting has changed the way I actually approach the appointments and people in general. It has made me more aware of how I present myself, how I sit and how I speak and how much I've listened as well. It has given me the opportunity to consider what I do and try different things rather than sticking to the same thing.	2.6	0.5	19	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (12) was (19) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.6) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (11).

Scenario 13	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
Empathy is a very potent communication skill to possess. One dictionary definition is 'being able to understand someone's feelings as if they were your own'. And while that gets us so far, it doesn't convey how precious genuine empathy is in bringing us together. Empathy turns people around…to our side because we understand and respect where they're coming from…away from anger because they know we've seen things from their point of view and valued their opinion...and they can accept our view more readily because we've treated them as a real person. Empathy is the thing that gets us beyond our differences – age, sex, religious beliefs and race – to our similarities – our membership of the human race. There are literally hundreds of occasions in a normal day when we should and could show empathy. Tell a story where you have been empathetic ……for example: *if you damage something belonging to a customer and they tell you that it had a high sentimental value for them*	2.5	0.9	31	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (13) was (31) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%)

which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.5) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (12).

Scenario 14	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
You are working in a bank as a trainee for three months. The manager of the bank is inviting all the employees to attend an official party. You have to introduce yourself. You say:	2.9	1.6	22	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (14) was (22) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.9) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (13).

Scenario 15	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
I make a suggestion in a meeting and it's completely ignored. Then someone else makes the same suggestion and they're told it's brilliant. When this happens I don't feel valued or respected. How do you respond?	2.7	1.5	23	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (15) was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.7) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (14).

Scenario 16	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
You live in an extremely peaceful and quiet locality, but the situation has changed after few families shifted to your area. These families have untrained bulldogs with them and let them go free in the evening. You want to inform the police regarding this severe condition. You say.	2.8	2.1	27	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (16) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.8) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (15).

Scenario 17	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
You want to compliment your teacher who is giving a wonderful workshop on "The effective reading skills" . You say:	2.7	1.5	29	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (17) was (29) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.7) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (16).

Scenario 18	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
You are a guideand an interpreter for a group of foreign guests. One day a foreign visitor, Mrs. Jacktold youthat your English is quite fluent.	2.6	0.5	34	0.000

You want to thank her. You say :				

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (18) was (34) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.6) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (17).

Scenario 19	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
Last semester you failed in the final exam of "American literature" and you asked your foreign Professor to reevaluate your answer sheet.After the revaluation process you got the same result, you got up to leave. You say:	2.4	1.6	27	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (19) was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.4) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (18).

Scenario 20	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
You are a member of the committee of the students' council. You have been late for the council meeting. The head of the council talks to you. "I'm sorry to mention this, but could you possibly try to come a little earlier? This is the third time you've been late." You want to promise her to change this behavior. You say:	2.9	2.7	23	0.000

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the **Scenario** (20) was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (11.7). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, and also the calculated mean is (2.8) which is greater than the hypothesized mean (2.9) which support the respondents who had irregular answers in scenario (19).

All the tables together stress one single fact that the social aspect of language needs to be heavily dealt with along pragmatic lines in order to help improve   interlocutors' interlanguage. This further confirms the second hypothesis. To further examine the other hypotheses for verification the diagnostic test will be dealt with here below:

Table (4.3) the frequency distribution of the student's answers in part (2)

Q	Confident student	Hesitant student	Shy student	apprehended	TOTAL
1	41	32	27	20	120
2	45	32	24	19	120
3	43	30	36	11	120
4	45	30	22	23	120
5	43	34	22	21	120
6	35	40	25	20	120
7	40	33	32	15	120
8	40	35	20	25	120
9	51	22	30	17	120
10	50	25	30	15	120

according to their own understanding

The above table representing the part (2) of the student's diagnostic test, its   shows the frequency distribution to the answers of 120 students in (4) kind of answers according to their own understanding.

Table (4.4): the mean and percentage of the kind of answers in part (2)

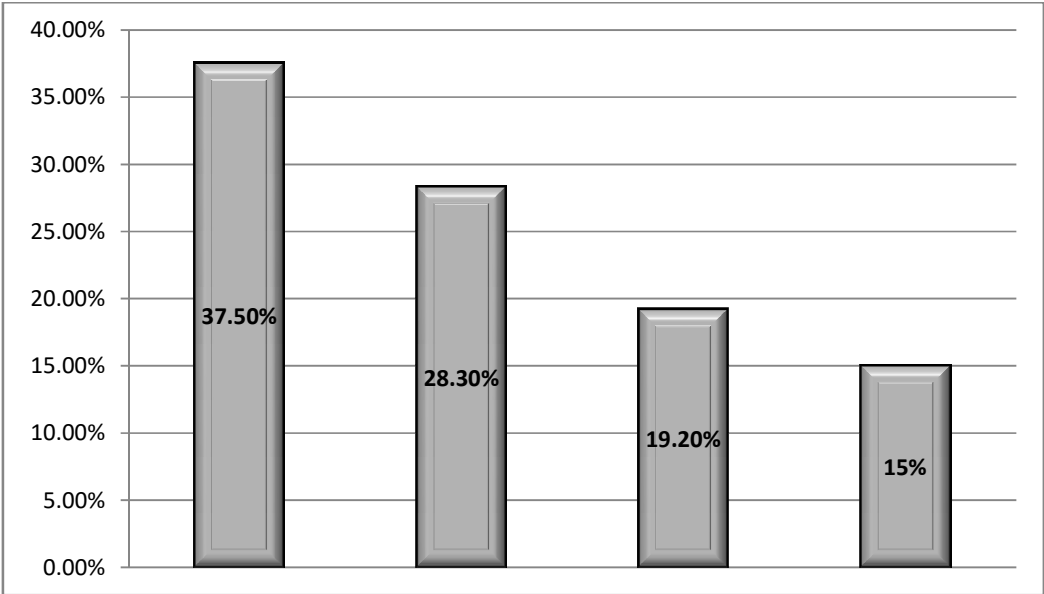| Kind of answer	The mean	The percentage %
Confident students answers	45	37.5%
Hesitant students' answers	34	28.3%
Shy students answers	23	19.2%
Apprehended students answers	18	15%
TOTAL	120	100

Figure 4.2 The mean and percentage of the kind of answers

It's clear from the above table (4.4) and figure (4.2) most student have confident answers, the mean of those was (45) students with percentage (37.5%). The mean of the students who select the hesitant answers were (34), with percentage (28.3%). The mean of the students who select the shy **answers** was (23), with percentage (19.2%).   The

mean of the students who select the **apprehended answers** was (18), with percentage (15%).

This result again confirms the third hypothesis and calls for explicit teaching of interlanguage in connection with pragmatic competence or pragma linguistic competence.

Part Three: Table (4.5) the frequency distribution of the student's answers in part

Q	Confident students answers	Hesitant students	Shy students	apprehended	TOTAL
1	43	32	23	22	120
2	43	34	22	21	120
3	35	40	25	20	120
4	30	43	32	15	120
5	40	35	20	25	120
6	51	22	30	17	120
7	41	32	27	20	120
8	45	32	24	19	120
9	42	31	35	12	120
10	43	30	32	15	120

(3) according to their own understanding

The above table representing the part (3) of the student's diagnostic test, it   shows the frequency distribution to the answers of 120 students in (4) kind of answers according to their own understanding.

Table (4.6): the mean and percentage of the kind of answers in part (3)

Kind of answer	The mean	The percentage %
Confident answers	47	39.2%
Hesitant answers	32	26.7%
Shy answers	26	21.6%
Apprehended answers	15	12.5%
TOTAL	120	100

Resource : the researcher from applied study using SPSS version24
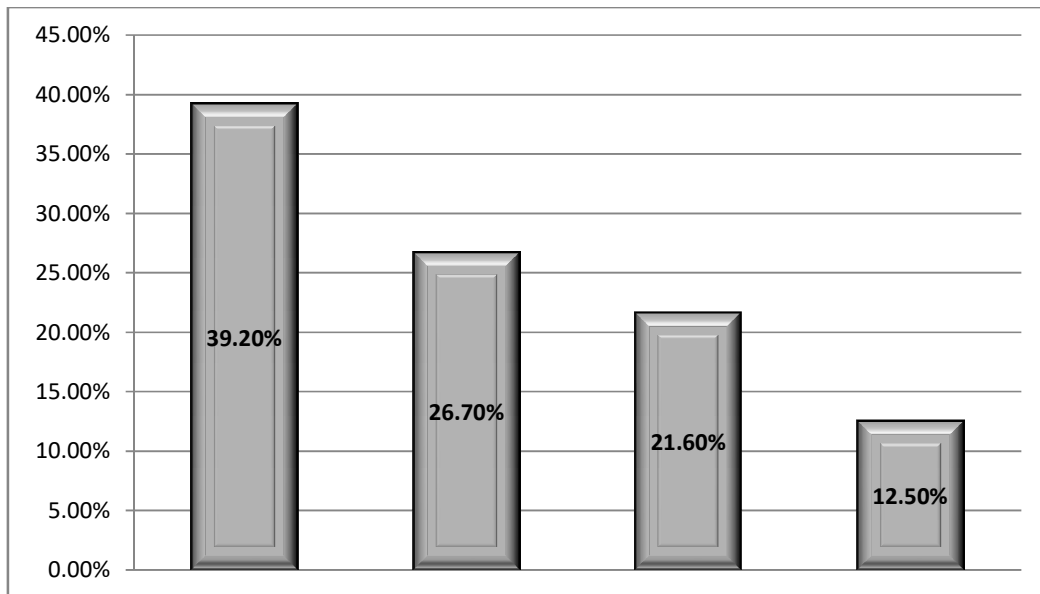
Figure 4.3 The mean and percentage of the kind of answers in part (3)

It's clear from the above table (30) and figure (30) most student have confident answers, the mean of those was (47) students with percentage (39. 2%).The mean of the students who select the hesitant answers were (32), with percentage (26.7%). The mean of the students who select the shy **answers** were (26), with percentage (21.6%). The mean of the students who select the apprehended **answers** was (15), with percentage (12.5%).

Hypotheses testing by using one sample t-test

Table (4.7) one sample T-TEST for the three parts of the study

part	N	mean	SD	t-value	DF	p-value
1	10	3.6	0.2	12.6	9	0.00
2	10	2.7	1.81	7.4	9	0.00
3	10	3.4	2.44	8.12	9	0.00
For all	**30**	**6.33**	**4.03**	**15.50**	**9**	**0.00**

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the part No (1) was (12.6) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (9) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). This indicates that, there is statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the part No (1) was (12.6) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (9) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). This indicates that, there is statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the part (1) was (7.4) which is greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (9) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents.

The calculated value of T – TEST for the significance of the differences for the respondent's answers in the part (3) was (8.12) which are greater than the tabulated value of T – TEST at the degree of freedom (9) and the significant value level (0.05%) which was (2.34). This indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05 %) among the answers of the respondents.

This indicates that interlocutors' grasp of pragmatic aspect of the language is not adequate enough to make socially acceptable messages a thing which confirms both hypothesis **one** and **three**.

4.3 Analysis of the Questionnaire

This part is devoted to the analysis, evaluation, and interpretation of the data collected through the questionnaire which was given to 120 respondents who represent the teacher's community in Sudanese universities namely Sudan University of Science and Technology, Omdurman Islamic University, Nilain University and Mugtaribeen University.

(i) The Responses to the Questionnaire

The responses to the questionnaire of the 120 teachers were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each item in the questionnaire is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following tables and figures will support the discussion.

Statement No (1).*Listening and speaking are integrated skills. So, we can't teach them separately*. **Table No (4.8) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (1).**

Variables	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	28	23.3
Agree	42	35.0
Neutral	21	17.5
Disagree	14	11.7
Strongly disagree	15	12.5
Total	120	100

It is clear from the above table 4.8 and figure 4.4 below that there are (28) persons in the study's sample with percentage (23.3%) strongly agreed with "Listening *and*

speaking are integrated skills. So, we can't teach them separately.". There are (42) persons with percentage (35.0%) agreed with that, and (21) persons with percentage (17.5%) were not sure that, and (14) persons with percentage (11.7%) disagreed. and (15) persons with 12.5% are strongly disagree.
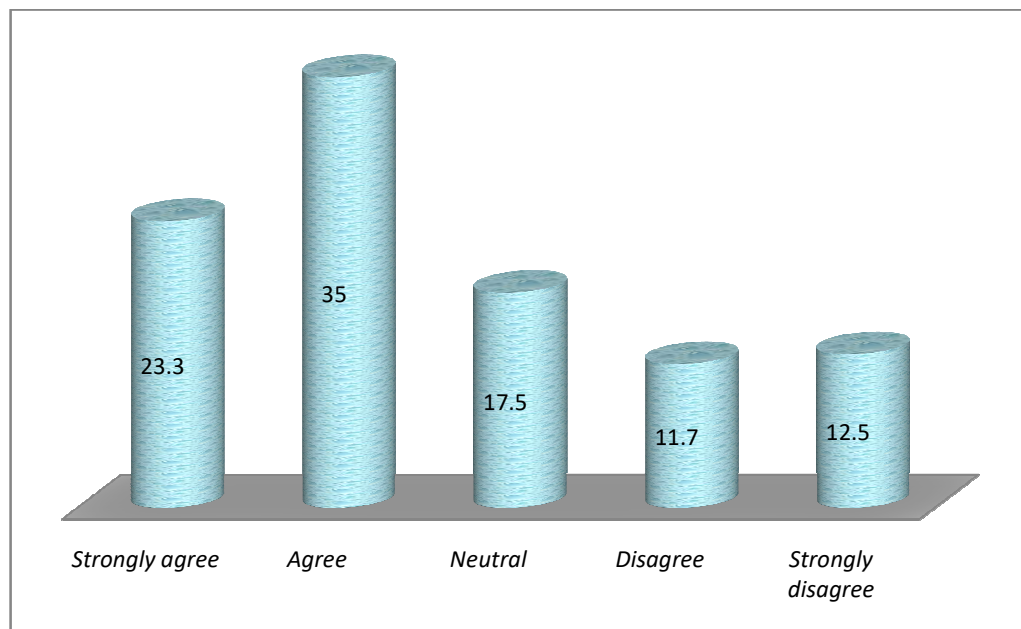

Figure 4.4 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (1).

In discussing aural skills, speaking and listening are two basic skills and are essential in acquiring communicative competence in language learning. So, part of being a proficient speaker is listening to oral language and understanding what is said so that the responses will be accurate. A speaker has necessity to a listener because speaking is rarely carried in isolation, as put by Redmon and Vrchota (2007:120) "speakers are at the mercy of listeners" Moreover, the listening skill involves a list of processes of perception, interpretation, evaluation, retaining, recalling, and reaction to the speakers. Therefore, listening will not occur in isolation as well, there must be speech to listen to. Finally, for communication to occur, both a speaker and listener must take parts in it through interacting and negotiating verbally. The speaker produces comprehensible output, and the listener pays attention and then tries to process this output effectively.

From a communicative, pragmatic view of the language classroom, speaking and listening skills are closely intertwined. The interaction between these two modes of

performance applies especially strongly to conversation. In a classroom, students will respond to the teacher after listening to some information. (Brown, 2001:267).

Statement No (2).*In reality listening is used far more than any other single language skill in normal daily life*

Table 4.9 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (2).

Valid	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	20	16.7
Agree	40	33.3
Neutral	22	18.3
Disagree	22	18.3
Strongly disagree	16	13.4
Total	**120**	**100**

It is clear from the above table No. (30) and figure No (11) that there are (20) persons in the study's sample with percentage (16.7%) strongly agreed with "*In reality listening is used far more than any other single language skill in normal daily life*.". There are (40) persons with percentage (33.3%) agreed with that, and (22) persons with percentage (18.3%) were not sure that, and (22) persons with percentage (18.3%) disagreed. and (16) persons with 13.4% are strongly disagree.
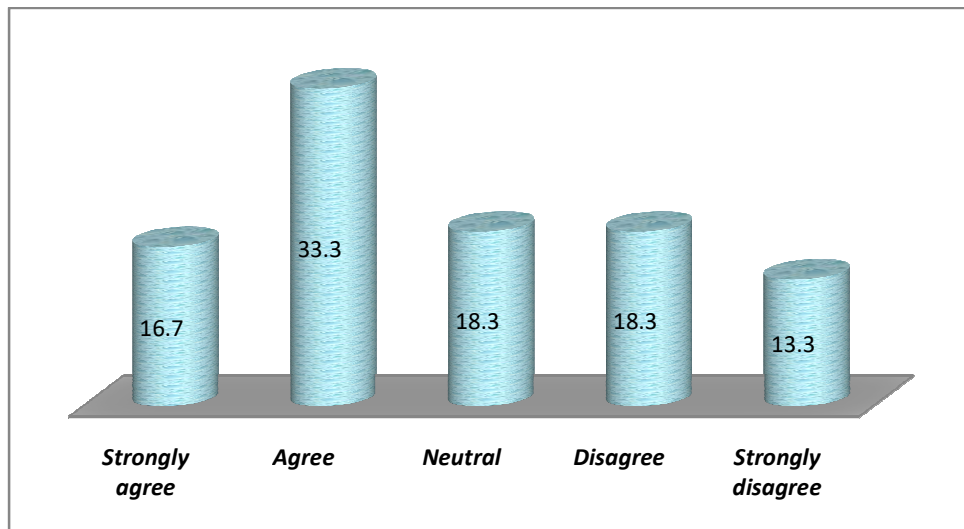
Figure 4.5 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (2).

On average, we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write. (Rivers, 1981; Weaver, 1972).

It is common that listening should precede speaking. Clearly, it is impossible to expect a student to produce a sound which doesn't exist in his mother tongue or a natural sentence using the stress, rhythms and intonation of a native speaker of the foreign language without first of all providing him with a model of the form he is to produce. It is not possible to produce satisfactorily what one hasn't heard. The logical first step, therefore, in attempting to achieve oral fluency or accuracy is to consider the learner's ability to listen.

At first sight it appears that listening is a passive skill and speaking is an active one. This is not really true, since the decoding of a message (i.e. listening) calls for active participation in the communication between the participants. A receptive process is involved in understanding the message. Indeed, it is essential to the speaker in any interaction that he assured continually that his words are being understood. This is usually overtly signaled to him in a conversation by the nodes, glances, body movements and often by non – verbal noises (mm, uh, huh, oh, etc.) of his listener. A simple experiment to demonstrate the truth of this is to make absolutely no sound during a telephone conversation (where the verbal cues that the message is being understood are essential, since visual cues by the nature of telephone calls are

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eliminated) – within a few seconds the person speaking is guaranteed to ask if you are still there.

Statement No (3). *Some learners say "I understand everything but I can't speak". This may be the case when the people speak slowly and carefully to them, realizing that they don't know much English.*

Table 4.10 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (3).

Valid	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	21	17.5
Agree	33	27.5
Neutral	24	20.0
Disagree	27	22.5
Strongly disagree	15	12.5
Total	**120**	**100**

It is clear from the above table 4.10 and figure 4.6 that there are (21) persons in the study's sample with percentage (17.5%) strongly agreed with "Some *learners say "I understand everything but I can't speak". This may be the case when the people speak slowly and carefully to them, realizing that they don't know much English.*". There are (33) persons with percentage (27.5%) agreed with that, and (24) persons with percentage (20.0%) were not sure that, and (27) persons with percentage (22.5%) disagreed. and (15) persons with112.5% are strongly disagree.
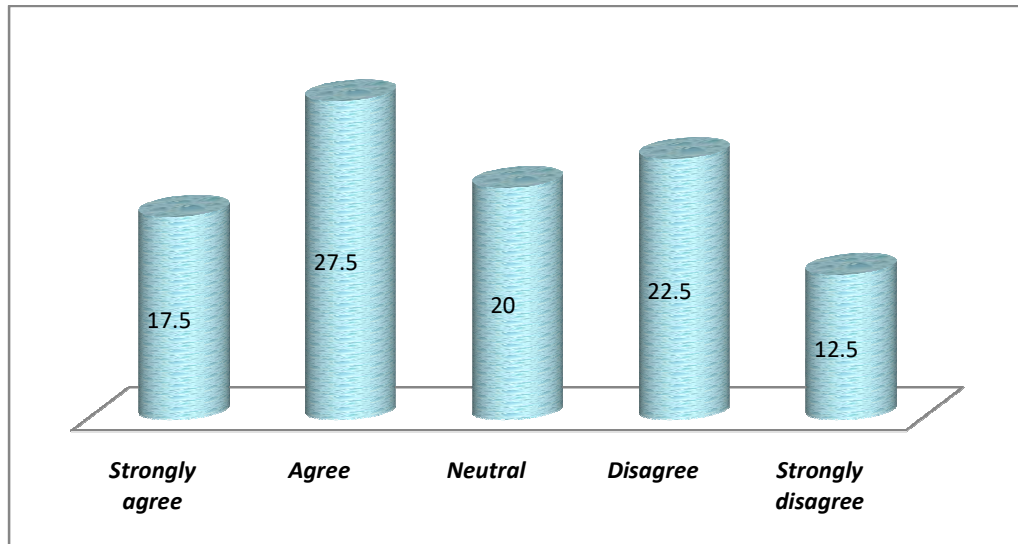
Figure 4.6 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (3).

It is usually very different when they are listening to English programs on the radio, or watching English television or films, or trying to take part in conversations dominated by native speakers. Listening is as difficult as any of the other skills. In fact, learners often find it hard to understand course book cassettes especially designed for them. Unlike reading texts, the speed and clarity of spoken texts are often completely outside the listener's control. If you don't understand the words while they are still in the air, it is usually too late. Of course, this is not always so. In a conversation you can ask the other person to speak more slowly, or repeat, or explain something. In fact, these are very useful strategies for learners to acquire and use in conversation and similar situations

Statement No. (4) .*One important in connection with oral skills is what is referred to by Wilkins as the transfer of skills which ensuring a satisfactory transition from supervised learning in the classroom to real-life use of the skill.*

Table No (4.11) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (4)

Valid	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	21	17.5
Agree	33	27.5
Neutral	24	20.0
Disagree	27	22.5
Strongly disagree	15	12.5
Total	**120**	**100**

It is clear from the above table 4.11 and figure 4.7 that there are (21) persons in the study's sample with percentage (17.5%) strongly agreed with " *One important in connection with oral skills is what is referred to by Wilkins as the transfer of skills which ensuring a satisfactory transition from supervised learning in the classroom to real-life use of the skill*". There are (33) persons with percentage (27.5%) agreed with that, and (24) persons with percentage (20.0%) were not sure that, and (27) persons with percentage (22.5%) disagreed. and (15) persons with112.5% are strongly disagree
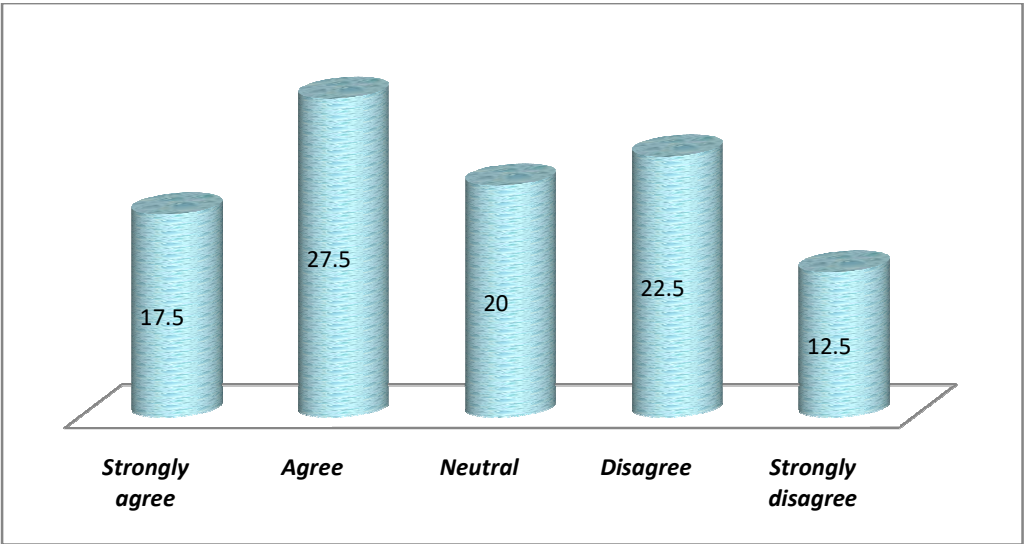

Figure 4.7 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (4)

As Wilkins points out, if *all* language produced in the classroom is determined by the teacher, 'we are protecting [the learner] from the additional burden of having to make his own choices'. He continues to say that with everything else he will only learn what falls within his experience. If all his language production is controlled from outside, he will hardly be competent to control his own language production. *He will not be able to transfer his knowledge froma language-learning situation to a language-using situation.*

There are two basic ways in which something we do can be seen as a skill. First there are motor-perceptive skills. But in addition to this there are also interaction skills. Let us see the difference between the two. First the motor perceptive skills. Motor-perceptive skills involve perceiving, recalling, and articulating in the correct order sounds and structures of the language. This is the relatively superficial aspect of skill which is a bit like learning how to manipulate the controls of a car on a deserted piece of road far from the flow of normal traffic. It is the context-free kind of skill, the kind which has been recognized in language teaching for many years in the rationale of the audio-lingual approach to language teaching.

Statement No. (5)*Interaction skills basically involve Interaction skills involve making decisions about communication.*

Table No (4.12) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. 5

Variable	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	19	15.8
Agree	28	23.3
Neutral	17	14.2
Disagree	32	26.7
Strongly disagree	24	20.0
Total	120	100

Judging by the table above 4.12 and figure 4.8 below that there are (19) persons in the study's sample with percentage (15.8%) strongly agreed with "*Interaction skills basically involve Interaction skills involve making decisions about communication* ". There are (28) persons with percentage (23.3%) agreed with that, and (17) persons with percentage (14.2%) were not sure that, and (32) persons with percentage (26.7%) disagreed. and (24) persons with120.0% are strongly disagree.

Figure 4.8 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (5)

Interaction skills basically involve Interaction skills involve making decisions about communication, such as: what to say, how to say it, and whether to develop it, in accordance with one's intentions, while maintaining the desired relations with others. Note that our notions of what is right or wrong now depend on such things as what we have decided to say, how successful we have been so far, whether it is useful to continue the point, what our intentions are, and what sorts of relations we intend to establish or maintain with our interlocutors. This of course is true of all communication, in speech or in writing.

Interaction skills involve the ability to use language in order to satisfy particular demands. There are at least two demands which can affect the nature of speech. The first of these is related to the internal conditions of speech: the fact that speech takes

place under the pressure of time. These we shall call *processing conditions.* A second kind involves the dimension of interpersonal interaction in conversation. These we might call *reciprocityconditions.* First, what are the main effects of the processing conditions on speech?

Statement No. (6)*In spoken interaction the time constraint can be expected to have observable effects. Brown and Yule, for instance, suggest that it is possible to distinguish between 'short speaking turns' and 'long speaking turns'.*

Table 4.13 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (6)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	36	30.0
Agree	28	23.3
Neutral	31	25.8
Disagree	17	14.2
Strongly disagree	8	6.7
Total	120	100

It is clear from the above table 4.13 and figure 4.9 below that there are (36) persons in the study's sample with percentage (30.0%) strongly agreed with " *In spoken interaction the time constraint can be expected to have observable effects. Brown and Yule, for instance, suggest that it is possible to distinguish between 'short speaking turns' and 'long speaking turns'* ". There are (28) persons with percentage (23.3%) agreed with that, and (31) persons with percentage (25.8%) were not sure that, and (17) persons with percentage (14.2%) disagreed and (8) persons with16.7% are strongly disagree.

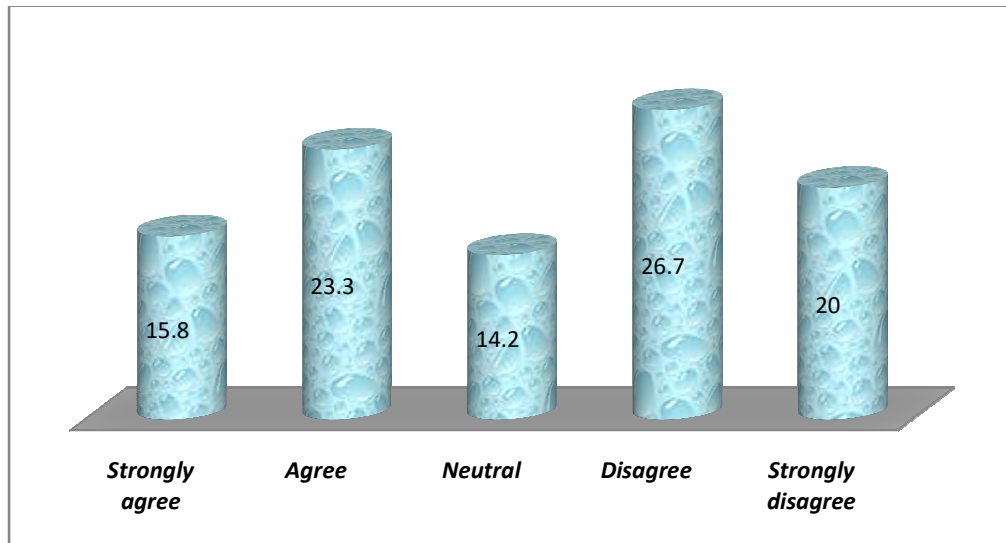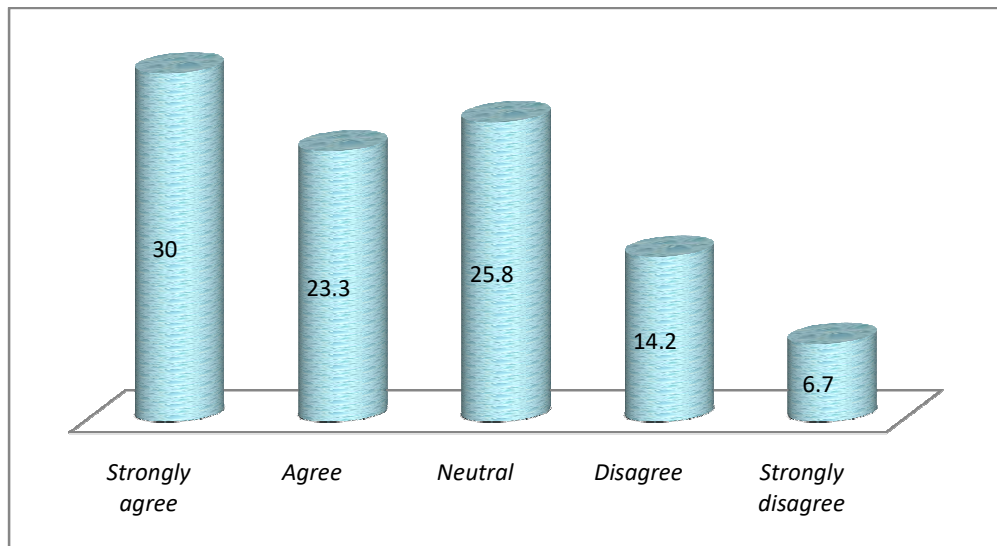Figure 4.9 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (6)

In spoken interaction the time constraint can be expected to have observable effects. Brown and Yule, for instance, suggest that it is possible to distinguish between 'short speaking turns' and 'long speaking turns' (1983: 27ff). 'Long turns' tend to be more prepared—like an after-dinner speech or a talk on the radio.

'Short turns' are the more common. In this case the wording and the subject matter tend to be worked out extempore as the speaking proceeds. The differences in form undoubtedly reflect the differences in decision-making on the part of the speaker. Some of these differences, as Brown and Yule point out, include the fact that 'native speakers typically produce bursts of speech which are much more readily relatable to the phrase—typically shorter than sentences, and only loosely strung together'. Very different from written language. And they add: If native speakers typically produce short, phrase-sized chunks, it seems perverse to demand that foreign learners should be expected to produce complete sentences. Indeed, it may demand of them, in the foreign language, a capacity for forward-planning and storage which they rarely manifest in speaking their own native language. (1983:26)

Statement No. (7)_The reciprocity condition of speech refers to the relation between the speaker and listener in the process of speech._

Table 4.14 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (7)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	43	35.8
Agree	29	24.2
Neutral	17	14.2
Disagree	19	15.8
Strongly disagree	12	10
Total	120	100

As regards the table above, it is clear that there are (43) persons in the study's sample with percentage (35.8%) strongly agreed with "*Each culture and discipline sets standards for creative activitiesthat the concept of culture is strongly linked to creativity.* ". There are (29) persons with percentage (24.2%) agreed with that, and (17) persons with percentage (14.2%) were not sure that, and (19) persons with percentage (15.8%) disagreed. and (12) persons with110.0% are strongly disagree
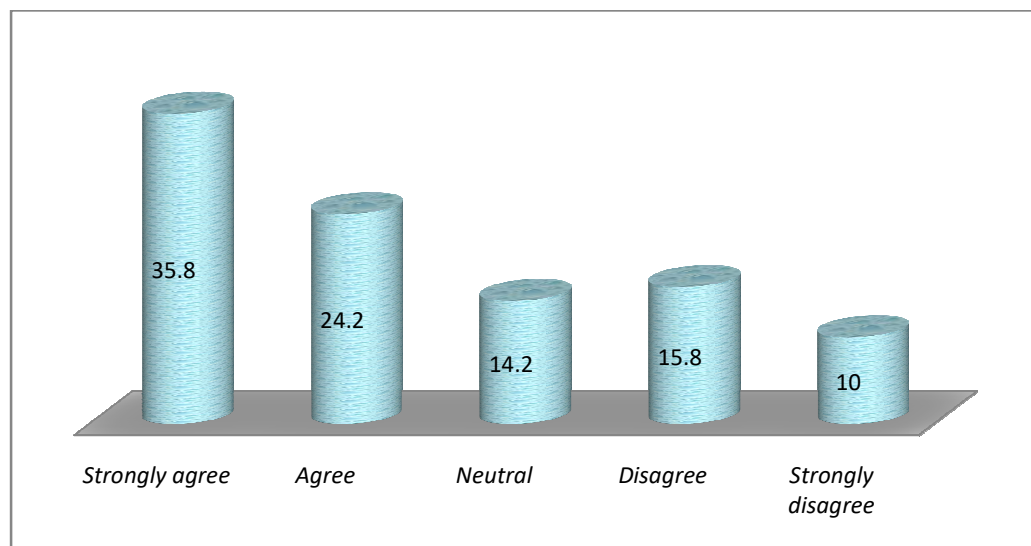

Figure 4.10 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (7)

The term 'reciprocity' enables us to distinguish between those situations in which both the speaker and hearer are allowed to speak, and those where conventionally, only the

speaker has speaking rights, as during a speech. The reciprocal dimension affects speech because there is more than one participant. The business of making sure that the conversation works is shared by both participants: there are at least two addressees and two decision-makers.

For example, in a reciprocal exchange, a speaker will often have to adjust his or her vocabulary and message to take the listener into account. The speaker also has to participate actively in the interlocutor's message— asking questions, reacting, and so on. This is something which requires an ability to be flexible in communication, and a learner may need to be prepared for it.

Statement No. (8)*Time pressure tends to affect the language used in at least two main ways. Firstly, speakers use devices in order to facilitate production, and secondly they often have to compensate for the difficulties*

Table 4.15 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (8)

Valid	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	41	34.2
Agree	33	27.5
Neutral	18	15.0
Disagree	17	14.2
Strongly disagree	11	9.1
Total	**120**	**100**

Looking at the above table 4.15 and figure 4.11 below that there are (41) persons in the study's sample with percentage (34.2%) strongly agreed with "Time *pressure tends to affect the language used in at least two main ways". Firstly, speakers use devices in order to facilitate production, and secondly they often have to compensate for the difficulties* ". There are (33) persons with percentage (27.5%) agreed with that, and (18) persons with percentage (15.0%) were not sure that, and (17) persons with percentage (14.2%) disagreed. and (11) persons with19.1% are strongly disagree.
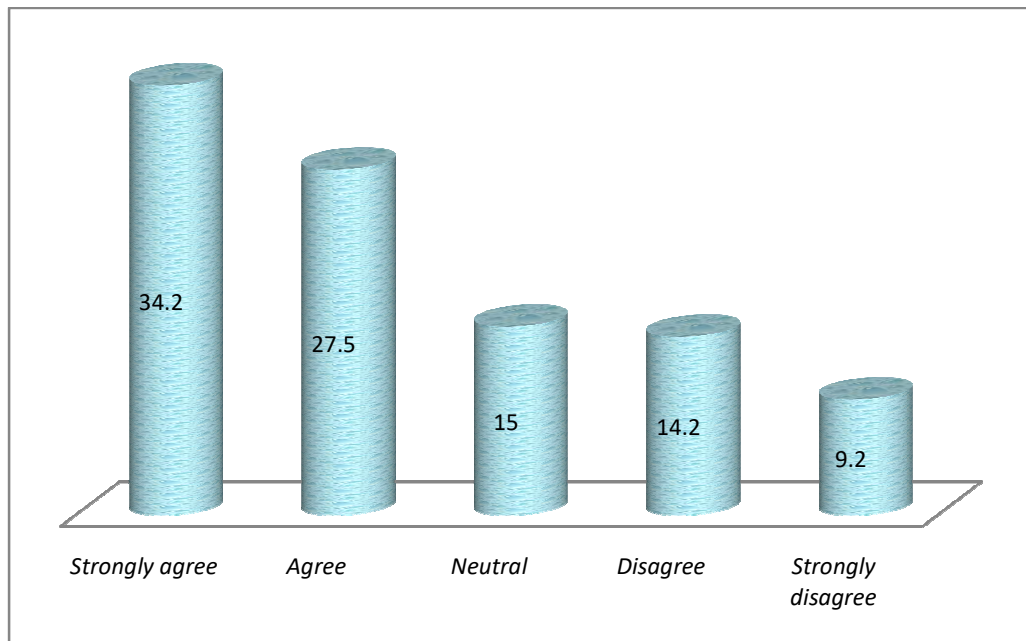
Figure 4.11 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (8)

Because speakers have less time to plan, organize and execute their message, they are often exploring their phrasing and their meaning as they speak. This gives rise to four common features of spoken language. Firstly, it is easier for speakers to **improvise** if they use less complex syntax. In addition, because of time pressure, people take **short cuts** to avoid unnecessary effort in producing individual utterances. This often leads speakers to **abbreviate** the message and produce 'incomplete' sentences or clauses, omitting unnecessary elements where possible. This is known as 'ellipses. Thirdly, it is easier for speakers to produce their message if they **use fixed conventional phrases**. And finally, it is inevitable that they will use devices to gain time to speak. All of these devices *facilitate* production.

In considering compensation, we are concerned with the way speakers find themselves repeating, in various ways, what they have already said. The fact that speakers find themselves 'feeling out what they are going to say' as they say it induces various kinds of errors. As a result, it is quite common for speakers to find themselves correcting or improving what they have already said. In a sense what they are doing is *compensating* for the problems which arise out of the time pressure. What's more, time pressure also

increases pressure on *memory:* in order to ensure clear understanding, speakers therefore use a lot of repetitions and rephrasings.

Statement No. (9)*Oral apprehension is mainly caused by shyness and social anxiety of speaking in public or in the presence of people we don't know.*

Table 4.16 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (9)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	57	47.5
Agree	33	27.5
Neutral	18	15.0
Disagree	8	6.7
Strongly disagree	4	3.3
Total	120	100

It is clear from the above table 4.16 and figure 4.12 below that there are (57) persons in the study's sample with percentage (47.5%) strongly agreed with " *Oral apprehension is mainly caused by shyness and social anxiety of speaking in public or in the presence of people we don't know.*". There are (33) persons with percentage (27.5%) agreed with that, and (18) persons with percentage (15.0%) were not sure that, and (8) persons with percentage (6.7%) disagreed. and (4) persons with13.3% are strongly disagree.
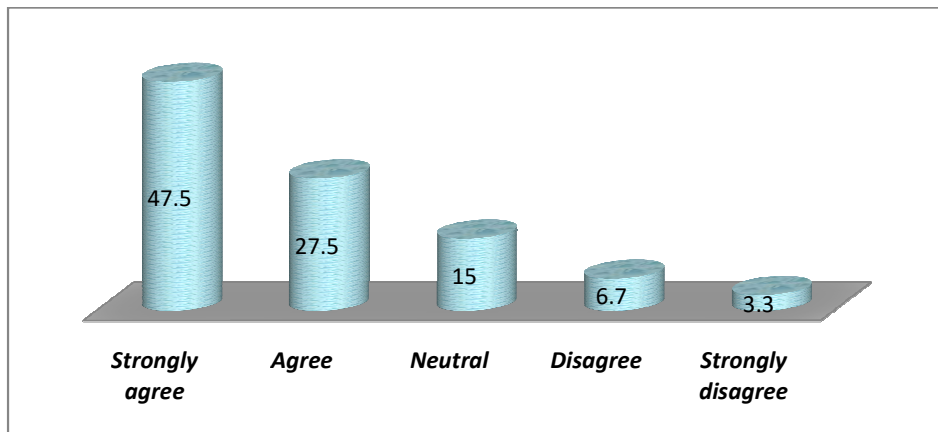

Figure 4.12 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (9)

Shyness refers to a tendency to withdraw from people, particularly unfamiliar people. It is a normal personality trait. This means that everyone has some degree of shyness—some people have a lot, some have a little, and most have an amount somewhere in between. Think of it as you would height. Height is a physical trait. Some people are tall, some are short, but most are somewhere in between. Height is one of those physical traits that are largely heritable—that is, due to the effect of genes. These genes come from your biological parents. You are born with a predetermined likelihood of being a particular height. Height is also influenced by factors such as diet and perhaps the amount of stress in the environment.

Apprehension, like height, is influenced by genes, the important thing to realize is that apprehension is a trait. Other traits include personal characteristics like hair color, eye color, perfectionism, the tendency to look for excitement (sometimes called *novelty seeking*), and intelligence. With the exception of hair color and eye color, few of these traits are influenced *exclusively* by genes. The things we learn throughout life and the experiences we have—and the choices we make—can strongly influence the vast majority of human traits.

Most personality and physical traits are *normally distributed* (a statistical term) throughout the population. What does this mean? It means that if we were to take all the people in the world and measure how much of a particular trait they each have, we would usually find that the trait follows the so-called bell-shaped curve. This is as true of shyness as it is of anything else. If we took a sample of 1000 people and measured their shyness.

Some people are very and some people are not very shy at all. Most people are somewhere in between. It is possible that possessing a great deal (or very little) of a trait can cause problems for a person. We know that some people who are very shy have difficulties related to their shyness. Some of these people find that their shyness prevents them from doing things they would like to be able to do, such as getting out and making new friends, assuming greater positions of responsibility at work, and the like.

Statement No. (10). *Social anxiety is closely affiliated with though not identical to shyness*

Table 4.17 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (10)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	39	32.5
Agree	39	32.5
Neutral	17	14.2
Disagree	10	8.3
Strongly disagree	15	12.5
Total	120	100

As shown by the above table 4.17 and figure 4.13 below that there are (39) persons in the study's sample with percentage (32.5%) strongly agreed with " *Social anxiety is closely affiliated with though not identical to shyness*". There are (39) persons with percentage (32.5%) agreed with that, and (17) persons with percentage (14.5%) were not sure that, and (10) persons with percentage (8.3%) disagreed. and (15) persons with112.3% are strongly disagree.
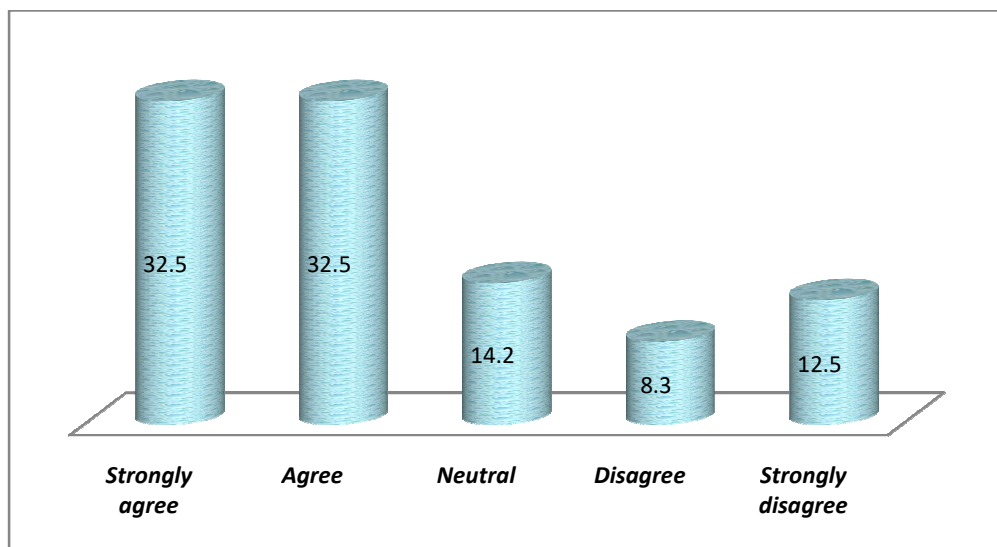

Figure 4.13 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (10)

Anxiety is an uncomfortable internal state (that is, something people feel inside) usually associated with uncertainty or the unknown. Anxiety is an emotion. Anxiety is a lot like *fear,* but fear is what you feel when you *know* what you're afraid of. When someone points a gun at your head, you don't feel anxiety. You feel fear! You know exactly what it is that is causing your heart to race, your knees to shake, and your life to flash before your eyes. When you exit the door of your house to take out the garbage at night, you may feel anxious, wondering if someone is lurking in the shadows waiting to attack you. This is anxiety, not fear, because you don't know whether something bad is going to happen; you think it is a possibility, but you can't be sure. (If you live in a major metropolitan area with lots of crime, this may not be such a good example, but you get the point.) Anxiety is an emotion you feel when you believe there *might* be a threat; fear is an emotion you feel when you know there *is* a threat.

Social anxiety refers to the special kind of anxiety or discomfort you may experience when you are around other people. Usually, social anxiety is associated with concerns about being scrutinized. When you are around other people and you worry about what they think of you and you feel uncomfortable, you are experiencing social anxiety. As you might imagine, the notion of social anxiety overlaps tremendously with shyness, as well as with other concepts, such as *self-consciousness.*

There are some differences between the concepts of shyness and social anxiety, at least in the ways those of us who study behavior and mental health use these terms. Shyness is something that is often inferred by observing behavior. For example, psychologists may videotape people at a party, then review the tapes and use a stopwatch to see how long it takes each person to approach a stranger and join or initiate a conversation. They may infer that people who are more reticent to do this are shyer than those who jump right in. In fact, the researchers wouldn't know anything about what the partygoers were thinking or feeling—in order to know this, they'd need to ask them. But psychologists observe and measure people's behaviors to make inferences about their degree of shyness.

This may be valid or it may not. There could be all sorts of reasons why someone might take longer to join in a conversation at a party. These reasons could range from being shy, to being bored, to being preoccupied because of a recent argument with his or her spouse, to not being fluent in the language spoken at the party. Because of these uncertainties, some researchers would say that we shouldn't really call this inferred behavior *shyness,* but rather something like *slowness to join a conversation,* or *behavioral reticence,* or *social avoidance.* But shyness is what we often call it, nonetheless, particularly when we see these behaviors in children.

Statement No. (11)*There are several varieties of social anxiety, differentiated by the kinds of situations that bring it on*

Table 4.18 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (11)

Valid	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	28	23.3
Agree	39	32.5
Neutral	16	13.3
Disagree	23	19.2
Strongly disagree	14	11.7
Total	**120**	**100**

It is clear from the above table 4.18 and figure 4.14 that there are (28) persons in the study's sample with percentage (23.3%) strongly agreed with " *There are several varieties of social anxiety, differentiated by the kinds of situations that bring it on* ". There are (39) persons with percentage (32.5%) agreed with that, and (16) persons with percentage (13.3%) were not sure that, and (23) persons with percentage (13.3%) disagreed. and (14) persons with111.7% are strongly disagree.
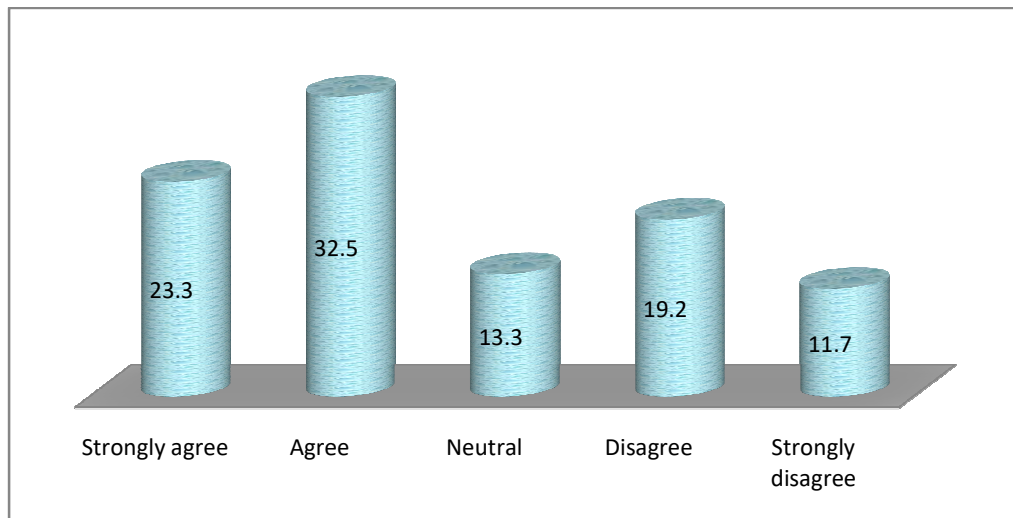
Figure 4.14 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (11)

Many people experience *publicspeaking anxiety* whether they are proposing a toast at a small dinner party or at a wedding reception of 300 people. Others experience *test anxiety,* where the fear of failing interferes with their ability to study for and perform during the test. *Sports performance anxiety,* where an athlete's fear of performing poorly or making a mistake actually contributes to these feared outcomes, is yet another form of social anxiety. And then there's *datinganxiety,* which is what you'd expect it to be. In fact, so many situations can elicit social anxiety; it would be silly to give them all special names. Instead, researchers have found it useful to classify forms of social anxiety by category.

One of these categories refers to *contingent* and *non-contingent* encounters; for our purposes, we will use the less technical terms *performance* and *interactional. Performance* encounters are those where a person does something in front of others, usually in a rehearsed fashion, and there is no expectation that the person will need to respond to the audience. An example of this would be the class valedictorian who gives a speech at graduation. The speech is written out in advance, and the person's task is to read it with appropriate pauses and intonations. Although the valedictorian may need to respond to the audience—for example, wait for the laughter to subside after a joke before moving on—most of the performance is predetermined.

In contrast, *interactional* social encounters are those where a person must talk, listen, and react appropriately to what others say and do. An example would be someone

having a conversation at a party. In this situation, the person needs to initiate a conversation, join in, or respond. He or she then needs to be aware of the other person's responses, and engage in a process of give-and-take that involves attention to verbal and nonverbal cues. In general, interactional social encounters are more demanding, in terms of using more of our mental abilities and social skills, than are performance tasks. Interestingly, however, more people report being afraid of performance encounters such as public speaking than interactional encounters such as conversing at a party.

Here are lists of some social situations commonly feared by people with social anxiety, grouped by whether they are performance or interactional in nature.

Statement No. (12)*Interactional anxiety involves situations where a person has to engage in social discourse with at least one other person*

Table 4.19   The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (12)

Valid	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	44	36.7
Agree	32	16.7
Neutral	23	19.2
Disagree	9	17.4
Strongly disagree	12	10.0
Total	**120**	**100**

It is clear from the above table 4.19 and figure 4.15 below that there are (44) persons in the study's sample with percentage (36.7%) strongly agreed with "). *Interactional anxiety involves situations where a person has to engage in social discourse with at least one other person* ". There are (32) persons with percentage (16.7%) agreed with that, and (23) persons with percentage (19.2.3%) were not sure that, and (9) persons with percentage (17.4%) disagreed. and (12) persons with110.0% are strongly disagree.
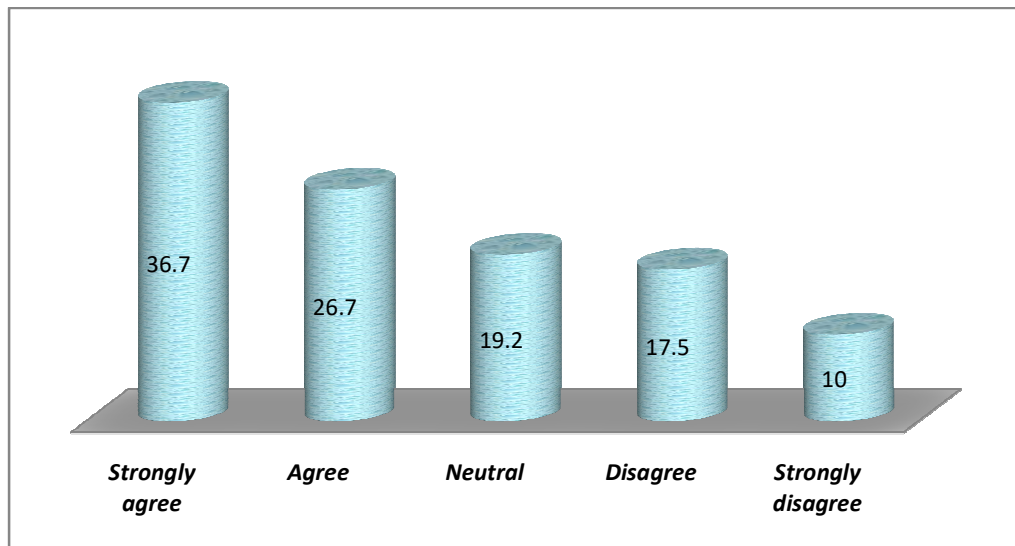
Figure 4.15 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (12)

Interactional anxiety involves situations where a person has to engage in social discourse with at least one other person. A simple interactional situation would be having a conversation with one person, needing to pay attention only to what he or she was saying or doing and responding appropriately. A more complex interactional situation would be having a conversation with several people. Another example of interactional anxiety is fear of dating, a fear closely related to speaking with members of the opposite sex (or, for people who are gay or lesbian, to members of the same sex).

There is also a group of social fears that can be broadly classified as *fear of interacting with people in authority.* For an adult, this might translate intodifficulty talking with one's supervisor at work. For children, this mightmean being afraid to talk to the teacher.

Then there are interactional fears that involve everyday kinds of social interactions. An example is a man who goes shopping and would prefer to spend 30 minutes looking for a size 36 pair of jeans than ask a salesperson for help. Another example is a woman who would rather drive around for hours than stop and ask for directions. (This behavior occurs in over 90 percent of men, regardless of their level of social anxiety.)

Mental health professionals who treat people with social phobia recognize that there are varieties of the disorder, and use a type of clinical shorthand to group those who suffer from it into either the *non-generalized* or *generalized* type. People with non-generalized

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social phobia usually have one or two performance situations that make them anxious, such as speaking or writing in public. This can be a serious problem for some, but most people with non-generalized social phobia function well in other types of social situations.

Statement No. (13) *Parents and relatives are often struck by how different young children in the same family can be, beginning very early in life.*

Table 4.20 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (12)

Valid	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	47	39.2
Agree	35	29.2
Neutral	20	16.7
Disagree	10	8.3
Strongly disagree	8	6.6
Total	120	100

It is clear from the above table 4.20 and figure 4.16 that there are (47) persons in the study's sample with percentage (39.2%) strongly agreed with " *Parents and relatives are often struck by how different young children in the same family can be, beginning very early in life*". There are (35) persons with percentage (16.7%) agreed with that, and (20) persons with percentage. (8.3%) were not sure that, and (10) persons with percentage (6.6%) disagreed. and (8) persons with110.0% are strongly disagree.
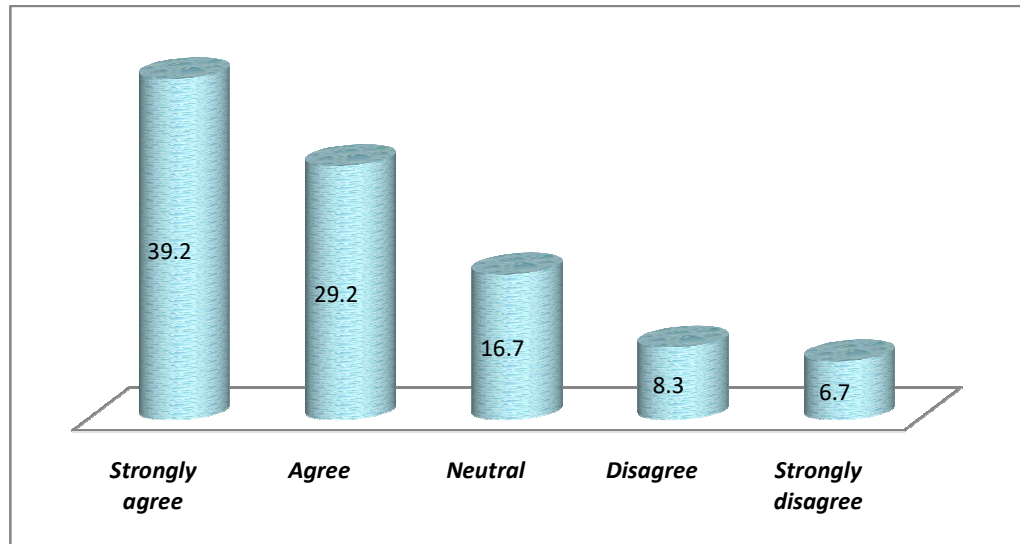
Figure 4.16 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (13)

Some children are easily upset and frightened, whereas others rarely cry and are less easily frightened. Some children sleep a great deal early in life, and others are wide awake and alert much of the time. Some children love to explore and try new things, and others are cautious and bothered by change. We call these characteristics, present from very early in life, *temperament.* Most of us have heard stories from our parents about our childhood temperaments, something most of us cannot clearly remember ourselves. Sometimes these stories define us, even as adults.

Renowned developmental psychologist Jerome Kagan and his colleagues at Harvard University have for the past decade and a half been studying *behaviorally inhibited* children. By inhibited, they mean children who, from an early age, are slow to warm up in the presence of strangers and timid about exploring new environments. About 15 to 20 percent of the children Kagan studied had this form of behavior at 3 years of age. In a series of important studies, Kagan's group has shown that the most inhibited of these children tend to stay this way as they grow older. This is not to say that *all* children who are behaviorally inhibited at 3 grow up to become socially phobic adults. The relationship is not nearly that clear. In fact, many behaviorally inhibited children in the studies did outgrow it by the time they reached 7 years of age. (Some of these children may have benefited from their parents' efforts to help them overcome their behavioral inhibition; we'll talk more about this later in this book.) But very inhibited children are three to four times as likely as less inhibited children to become anxious adults.

Behaviorally inhibited children are also more likely to have a parent with social anxiety disorder, suggesting that the conditions are related. It has also been shown that social anxiety disorder, particularly the generalized type, tends to run in families. How might we explain these findings? It is possible, of course, that parents with social anxiety disorder behave in ways that lead their children to be inhibited. For example, a child might see his father avoid talking to new people, or refuse to answer the phone. The child might get the message that these situations are frightening or dangerous, and might therefore begin to fear them. In addition, socially anxious parents might attempt to protect their child from the experiences that they recall made them anxious when they were young. For example, if a socially anxious mother sees her son begin to cry when left with other children, she might rescue the child by taking him in her arms, rather than encourage him to stay in the situation and learn to cope. So it may be that behaviorally inhibited children learn these patterns from socially anxious adults. But social anxiety might also be transmitted genetically.

Are there other ways to know if your child is having a problem with anxiety? Yes, you can often infer from people's *behavior* that they are anxious, uncomfortable, or upset. In the case of social anxiety, you can learn a lot by paying attention to what your child *avoids*

Statement No. (14)   *Veteran teachers at colleges or secondary school keep complaining that though they spent quite a lot of time teaching speaking their students can hardly be said to speak properly in an open session*

Table 4.21 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (14)

Valid	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	34	28.3
Agree	36	30.0
Neutral	22	18.3
Disagree	20	16.7
Strongly disagree	8	6.7
Total	**120**	**100**

It is clear from the above table 4.21 and figure 4.17 below that there are (47) persons in the study's sample with percentage (39.2%) strongly agreed with " *Veteran teachers at colleges or secondary school keep complaining that though they spent quite a lot of time teaching speaking their students can hardly be said to speak properly in an open session* ". There are (35) persons with percentage (16.7%) agreed with that, and (20) persons with percentage (8.3%) were not sure that, and (10) persons with percentage (6.7%) disagreed. and (8) persons with110.0% are strongly disagree.
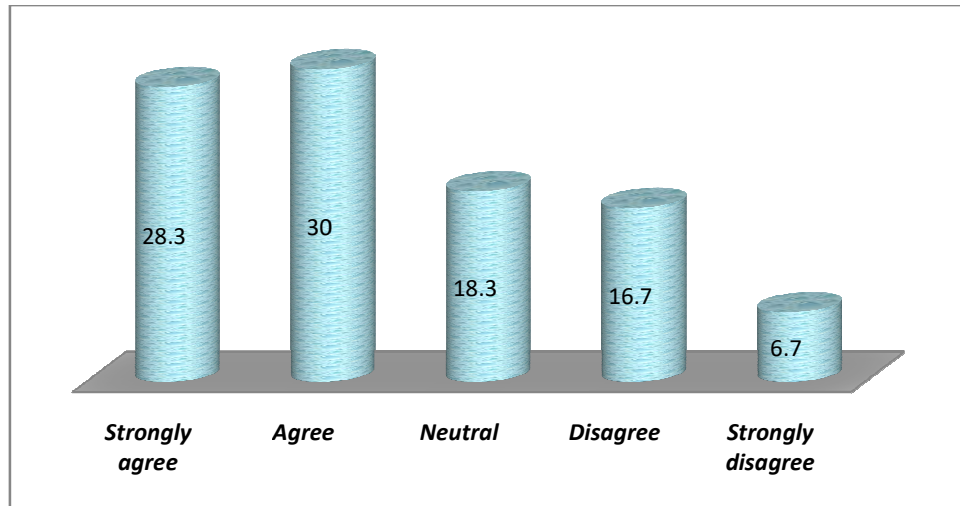
Figure 4.17 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (14)

After modern technology has turned the world into a small village then need for speaking English as a lingua franka has become essentially great. University students, tomorrow's professionals, should ideally have a good command of communication skills in English so as to prepare for their future careers and lives. However, regretfully enough to see that most university students who are given at least six years of English instruction and can pass English examinations with high grades are actually weak at communicating in English in real life situations. Some even lack the courage to open their mouths at all to try and speak, or stumble and stammer when they speak (Huang & Shao, 1998; Tsang, 2001). So in order to help our students overcome their apprehension and anxiety when speaking they will not make such great accomplishment with their learning.

The term "anxiety" refers to the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system (Spielberger, 1983). The relationship between anxiety and performance can best be illustrated with an inverted "U", that is, "when anxiety is low, performance is also low. When anxiety is optimal, performance is high, but beyond an optimal level of anxiety, performance deteriorates" (Walker, 1997, p. 17). Anxiety was divided into facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety for the first time by Alpert and Haber (1960). The former refers to the anxiety leading to improved performance, while the latter refers to the one resulting in impaired performance. According to Alpert and Haber's theory (1960), we can safely arrive at the conclusion that facilitating anxiety can enhance performance, while debilitating anxiety might inhibit learning and performance. Nevertheless, we should not overlook the possibility that observations of facilitating and debilitating anxiety are actually different ends of the same anxiety continuum (Dewaele, 2013; Hembree, 1988). Above all, if we can have a better understanding of these two kinds of anxieties, it will be much easier for us to identify the reasons contributing to students' high level of language anxiety (i.e., debilitating anxiety) as well as the strategies to cope with it.

Statement No. (15) *Language anxiety" can be defined as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process.*

Table No (4.22) The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (15)

Valid	Frequency	Percentage%
Strongly agree	39	32.5
Agree	38	31.7
Neutral	20	16.7
Disagree	13	10.8
Strongly disagree	10	8.3
Total	**120**	**100**

It is clear from the above table 4.22 and figure 4.18 that there are (39) persons in the study's sample with percentage (32.5%) strongly agreed with " *Language anxiety" can be defined as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process.* ". There are (38) persons with percentage (31.7%) agreed with that, and (20) students with percentage (16.7%) were not sure that, and (13) persons with percentage (10.8%) disagreed. and (10) persons with18.3% are strongly disagree.
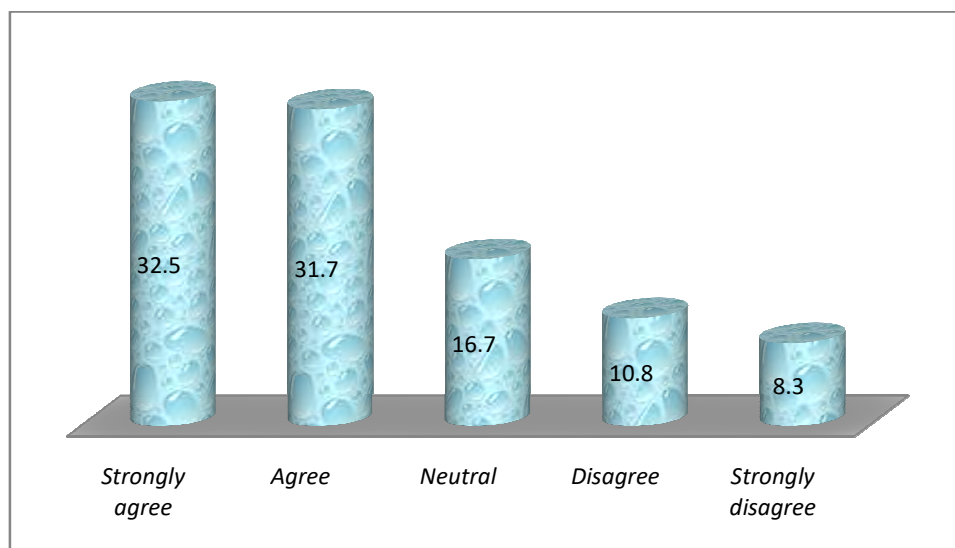
Figure 4.18 The Frequency Distribution for the Respondent's Answers of Statement No. (15)

Language anxiety "harms learners" performance in many ways, both indirectly through worry and self-doubt, and directly by reducing class participation and creating overt avoidance of the language" (Xiang, 2004, p. 116). These findings are consistent with those of von Wörde (2004) and other researchers who conclude that anxiety can negatively affect the language learning experience in numerous ways and that reducing anxiety seems to increase language acquisition, retention and learner motivation (e.g., Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1990). Nonetheless, we should also bear in mind Kleinmann's study (1977), which follows Alpert and Haber in arguing that learners who scored high on facilitating anxiety tended to perform well. Above all, it is well-documented that "language anxiety is a pervasive and prominent force in the language learning context, and any theoretical model that seeks to understand and interpret the

language learning process must consider its effect" (Gardner, 1991, p. vii). Since it is commonly recognized that language anxiety is closely related to self-perception (Young, 1990), we need to consider the role of this construct to understand language anxiety. "Self-perception" is a superordinate concept, which "includes self-descriptions (self-concept) as well as self-evaluations (self-esteem); the importance of each self-description and self-evaluation; and also the way in which all the self-descriptions and evaluations are organized to produce something recognizable as 'self'" (Walker, 1997, p. 21). For instance, Walker (1997, p. 3) argued that "as the learner progresses through schooling, changes in self-perception are thought to be involved in increasing levels of apprehension".

Table 4.23 Chi-Square Test Results for Respondents' Answers of the Questions of the Hypothesis: Oral Apprehension

No.	Statement	mean	SD	Chi square	p-value
1	*Listening and speaking are integrated skills. So, we can't teach them separately*	2.7	.80	27	0.000
2	*In reality listening is used far more than any other single language skill in normal daily life*	2.6	.50	25.7	0.000
3	*Some learners say "I understand everything but I can't speak". This may be the case when the people speak slowly and carefully to them, realizing that they don't know much English.*	2.1	.70	23	0.000
4	*One important in connection with oral skills is what is referred to by Wilkins as the transfer of skills which ensuring a satisfactory transition from supervised learning in the classroom to real-life use of the skill*	2.7	.60	26	0.000
5	*Interaction skills basically involve Interaction skills involve making decisions about communication*	2.5	0.5	32	0.000
6	*In spoken interaction the time constraint can be expected to have observable effects. Brown and Yule, for instance, suggest that it is possible to distinguish between 'short speaking turns' and 'long speaking turns'*	2.9	2	25	0.000

7	*The reciprocity condition of speech refers to the relation between the speaker and listener in the process of speech*	2.5	.60	28	0.00
8	*Time pressure tends to affect the language used in at least two main ways. Firstly, speakers use devices in order to facilitate production, and secondly they often have to compensate for the difficulties*	2.6	.80	27.7	0.00
9	*Oral apprehension is mainly caused by shyness and social anxiety of speaking in public or in the presence of people we don't know* .	2.4	.90	25.7	0.001
10	*Social anxiety is closely affiliated with though not identical to shyness*	2.4	.50	35	0.008
11	*There are several varieties of social anxiety, differentiated by the kinds of situations that bring it on*	2.5	0.8	33	0.00
12	*Interactional anxiety involves situations where a person has to engage in social discourse with at least one other person*	2.6	.80	27.7	0.00
13	*Parents and relatives are often struck by how different young children in the same family can be, beginning very early in life* .	2.5	.60	28	0.00
14	*Veteran teachers at colleges or secondary school keep complaining that though they spent quite a lot of time teaching speaking their students can hardly be said to speak properly in an open session*	2.6	.80	27.7	0.00
15	**"***Language anxiety" can be defined as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process*	2.4	.90	25.7	0.001

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (1) question was (27) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%)

which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*Listening and speaking are integrated skills. So, we can't teach them separately*".

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (2) question was (25.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement ". *In reality listening is used far more than any other single language skill in normal daily life*.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (3) question was (23) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*Some learners say "I understand everything but I can't speak". This may be the case when the people speak slowly and carefully to them, realizing that they don't know much English*".

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (4) question was (26) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*One important in connection with oral skills is what is referred to by Wilkins as the transfer of skills which ensuring a satisfactory transition from supervised learning in the classroom to real-life use of the skill*

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (5) question was (32) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*Interaction skills basically involve Interaction skills involve making decisions about communication.*

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (6) question was (25) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*In spoken interaction the time constraint can be expected to have observable effects. Brown and Yule, for instance, suggest that it is possible to distinguish between 'short speaking turns' and 'long speaking turns'.*

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (7) question was (28) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*The reciprocity condition of speech refers to the relation between the speaker and listener in the process of speech.*

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (8) question was (27.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*Time pressure tends to affect the language used in at*

least two main ways. Firstly, speakers use devices in order to facilitate production, and secondly they often have to compensate for the difficulties.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (9) question was (25.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*Oral apprehension is mainly caused by shyness and social anxiety of speaking in public or in the presence of people we don't know.*

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (10) question was (35) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*There are several varieties of social anxiety, differentiated by the kinds of situations that bring it on.*

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (11) question was (33) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*Interactional anxiety involves situations where a person has to engage in social discourse with at least one other person.*

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (12) question was (27.7) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*Parents and relatives are often struck by how different young children in the same family can be, beginning very early in life.*

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (13) question was (25.6) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*Veteran teachers at colleges or secondary school keep complaining that though they spent quite a lot of time teaching speaking their students can hardly be said to speak properly in an open session*.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (14) question was (27.5) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement.

The calculated value of chi-square for the significance of the differences for the respondents' answers in the No (15) question was (24) which is greater than the tabulated value of chi-square at the degree of freedom (4) and the significant value level (5%) which was (12.4). this indicates that, there are statistically significant differences at the level (5%) among the answers of the respondents, which support the respondent who agreed with the statement "*Language anxiety" can be defined as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process*

4.6 Summary

This chapter as apparent from its title:Data analysis and discussion, has analyzed the collected data through the test and the questionnaire to confirm the hypotheses of the study and find answers for the questions posed in chapter one.

CHAPTER FIVE SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Summary and Conclusions

This study is an attempt to investigate the Oral Apprehension and how it affects foreign language learners' communicative competence or developing interlanguage competence. It aimed at investigating possible ways to boost students' communicative competence via classroom interaction by providing them with the right types of socially acceptable forms of language. It also surveyed tutors' views on the issue in question. This study is set out to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent does the teaching of English at Sudanese schools dispenses towards augmenting grammar rules and vocabulary at the expense of oral skills?

2. How far are the Sudanese undergraduate students hindered by their natural shyness to communicate in English among their peers?

3. What are the causes of oral delivery apprehension in the academic settings among these learners?

There are some serious threats to oral communication posed by apprehension or anxiety which limits the chances of oral production particularly when speaking to native speaker of the target language. Richmond & McCrooky,(1989) , stated that, high level of anxiety among language learners extremely hinders the interaction between teacher and learners which is tremendously crucial to productive learning and teaching of the target language. Since anxiety is an all-round dilemma language barrier for ESL/EFL learners. Over the past few decades, there have been numerous attempts to try to find elaborated strategy in justifying the impact of oral delivery apprehension, however, there is no reliable solution to the issues why oral delivery apprehension occur, therefore this problem needs to be studied again, discovered and analyzed its sources and cured this problem in the Sudanese undergraduate students` academic settings.

The study is significant because it aims at developing the English language educators and their awareness to encourage their students to improve their abilities in oral delivery. The importance of this study comes from the importance of English Language and its distinguished situation around the world in general, and in Sudan particularly.

The researcher has noticed the weakness of the students' performance in English, especially in the speaking skills abilities of the undergraduate students in Sudan. Also, the researcher hopes that the study should be of value to Sudanese English language teachers and all Arabs in general.

As many as 100 pupils participated in the study experiment, 50 teachers completed the questionnaires. The study found out that there are certain factors which can be used to maximize classroom interaction and hence improves the students' oral skills. The study also found out that the syllabuses pursued at undergraduate level are highly responsible for the inadequacy in classroom interaction. All the hypotheses have been adequately confirmed each in its proper place.

It was also found that when they are exposed to an addition dose of teaching in the experiment group the students' demonstration has been remarkably improved. They scored higher marks than those on the pre-test. The researcher can take care of this area by injecting a further dose to consolidate it. For people learning English as a second or foreign language, pronouns and the tenses can be difficult because they are expressed differently in their native language. "It" doesn't exist in many languages, reflexive verbs are formed differently, and some languages only have one relative pronoun. Mastering English pronouns takes a lot of time and practice. So, some of the things to be taken care of are those areas which will then have positive effect on the standard of the students and increase their classroom interaction.

There are many factors were found to responsible for good classroom interaction and hence lower the standards of oral apprehension in general. One such factor is the students' interest. If the tutors have managed to capture their students' interest, this would then promote their communicative abilities send their classroom interaction sky-rocketing and prevent their fears and spoken worries.

It was also demonstrated that talking about the students' background in classroom settings can have a negative impact upon their progress and their interaction in the classroom. A good basic principle is never to ask your students in class anything that

you would not wish to be asked yourself. This would further increase their timidity and anxiety.

The study revealed that carefully selected texts can help narrow the cultural gap and help the student to have a better grasp of the subject matter and improve their communicative competence and classroom interaction. Consequently, tutors have to be selective as to the type of material they seek to handle with their students.

It was found that introducing authentic material can maximize the students' grasp of the language. It is self –evident that vocabulary acquisition for all second language learners is fundamental. It is true that we can describe a few things without the use of grammar, but can express nothing without vocabulary. Good mastery of vocabulary is essential for second language learners who expect to operate at higher levels. Consequently, without including this crucial element of authentic material very little and useful vocabulary will be learned. This can further be augmented by means of including simplified patterns of literary texts which have a good effect over the cultural gap and increasing the students' word power.

New classroom techniques and improved physical environment can also help students' have a better understanding of the texts they are dealing with and therefore maximize their interaction in the classroom. Tutors should not stick to a single technique which will turn after a short time to be insipid and stale and produce very little learning effect.

Teachers should not interfere regularly and at every step to set the students right. This can have a detrimental effect as it increases the student's apprehension and fear of making mistakes. This certainly maximizes the students' stress beyond manageable levels and can stop interaction half way.

Teachers can help their students by developing their social skills,   explains to them its importance, and when it should used. Elias, et al (1997: 68) point out that appropriate academic , social , and behavioral skills allow students to become a part of the class , the school , and the community. Therefore, teacher may need to have a comprehensive and balanced classroom management plan.

Finally, it was shown that the tutors' role in promoting classroom interaction is remarkably great through motivating students, cheer them up and praise their oral

contribution. Unless the students feel that their tutors are interested in their communication and that they are working hard to push it on, they would not be successful communicators. As it was mentioned above that calling students by their names, can generate a friendly relationship with the students as calling one by one's name is the natural way of drawing our attention. It produces a more secure atmosphere hospitable of interaction. Some teachers have very special talent at giving favorable nicknames that will be remembered ever after they had left the school. These nicknames have the effect of establishing a close rapport and an ability to communicate well with them.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

(i)   In order to take full advantage of their students' willingness to get involved, tutors should capture their students' attention and interest and help minimize their nervousness, shyness through ongoing motivation.

(ii)   To increase classroom interaction, the cultural gap must be reduced by means of including texts known to have that effect as literature and encourage students to take active part in discussing orally what they have read.

(iii)   Carefully selected material can have a positive effect on the students' overall understanding of the language and can increase their communicative skills along with continuous encouragement and motivating.

(iv)   Syllabuses of English language should be brought from abroad if we require improving our students' standards as this has the effect of introducing our students to the native speakers' culture.

(v)   Tutors should be trained to handle their classes in a way that promotes their students' communicative competence and be trained too to pay special attention to motivation.

(vi)   Tutors should not interfere with the students' private affair as this can be very damaging to interaction and not insult or injure their student's feelings.

5.3 suggestions for further studies

This study puts forward the following suggestions:

(i) Future study to be carried out on relatively larger scales as to include a number of universities in order to come out with novel insights in the area in question which is oral apprehension.

(ii) Much needed research on teacher/students and students/students interaction which can be advantageous to such kind of studies when incorporated. Oral apprehension as the focal point of the study.

(iii) The present study can be further extended by means of a quasi-research to have better and different results. The area of oral apprehension has hardly been handled or explored.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

The impact of Apprehension on Sudanese Undergraduate Students` Oral Production

Demographic information

Please tick the answer that best describes your background information

Gender: Male   Female

Age: (18-27)   (28-37) (38-47) (48-57)

Year of study (1st year) (2nd year) (4th year) (5th year)

Faculty_____

Religion Affiliation: (Islam) (Christianity) Other_____

COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION AND ORAL PRODUCTION

Read the information provided carefully and choose the response that reflect your level of communication apprehension in English language. Then, circle the response that is most true for you.

<table>
<tr>
<td colspan="7">COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION
Directions: In the course of learning and practicing communication in English language some negative factors inhibit free flow of communication or circumstances beyond one control. For some time after these circumstances, one may develop apprehension negative thoughts or feelings of apprehension about oneself, or the situation. Think about how you typically respond to such communication apprehension. Next to each of the following items write, the number (from the 5-point scale below). There are no right or wrong answers. Please be as open as possible in your answers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td colspan="2">Group Discussion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/N</td>
<td>Items</td>
<td>Strongly disagree 1</td>
<td>Disagree 2</td>
<td>Somewhat Agree 3</td>
<td>Agree 4</td>
<td>Strongly Agree 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I dislike participating in group discussion.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td> I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I like to get involved in group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</table>

	discussions.					
5	Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I am calm and relaxed when I have to participate	1	2	3	4	5
	Meetings					
7	Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I am usually comfortable when I have to participate in a meeting.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I am afraid to express myself at meetings	1	2	3	4	5
11	Communications at meetings usually makes me uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5
12	I am very relaxed when answering questions at meeting	1	2	3	4	5
	Interpersonal					
13	While participating in a conversation with a new colleague, I feel very nervous	1	2	3	4	5
14	I have no fear of speaking up in a conversation.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations.	1	2	3	4	5
17	While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed	1	2	3	4	5
18	I am afraid to speak up in conversations	1	2	3	4	5

	Public Speaking					
19	I have no fear of giving a speech.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I feel relaxed while giving a speech.	1	2	3	4	5
22	My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
24	While giving a speech, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know.	1	2	3	4	5

ORAL PRODUCTION TEST

Pronunciation Dimension

S/N	Item	Score
1	Has few traces of foreign accent.	5
2	Always intelligible, though one is conscious of a definite accent	4
3	Pronunciation problems necessitate concentrated listening and occasionally lead to misunderstanding	3
4	Very hard to understand because of pronunciation problems. Must frequently be asked to repeat.	2
5	Pronunciation problems so severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.	1
	Vocabulary	
1	Use of vocabulary and idioms is virtually that of a native speaker	5
2	Sometimes uses inappropriate terms and/or must rephrase ideas because lexical inadequacies	4
3	Frequently uses the wrong	3

	words conversation somewhat limited because of inadequate vocabulary.					
4	Misuse of words and very limited vocabulary make comprehension quite difficult			2		
5	vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make speech virtually impossible			1		
	Fluency Dimension					
1	Speech as fluent and effortless as that of a native speaker			5		
2	Speed of speech seems to be slightly affected by language problems			4		
3	Speed and fluency are rather strongly affected by language problems.			3		
4	Usually hesitant, often force into silence by language limitations			2		
5	Speech is so halting and fragmentary as to make conversation virtually impossible			1		
	Comprehension Dimension					
1	Appears to understand everything without difficulty.			5		
2	Understand nearly everything at normal speed. Although occasionally repetition may be necessary			4		
3	understand most of what is said a slower-than-normal speed with repetition			3		
4	Has great difficulty following what is said. Can comprehended only "social conversation" spoken slowly and with frequent repetitions.			2		
5	Cannot be said to			1		

	understand even simple conversational English	

APPENDIX (B)
DCT