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**The Relationship between Foreign Language Anxiety and the Use of
Language Learning Strategies among University Students**

The Case of Third Year Licence Students at the Department of English

Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University- Jijel

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Dedication

In The Name of Allah, the Most Merciful, the Most Compassionate

To my father who has afforded the best education to me.

To my mother who spent days and nights to raise me.

To the dearest person to my heart, who leads me through the valley of darkness

with light of hope and support,

my husband.

To the candles of my family

who stand by me when things look bleak,

my beloved brothers and sisters.

Also to:

My elegant nieces Razan, Oumaima and wonderful nephew Anes

whom I love so much.

My mother-in-law who frequently reminded

me of my task.

My sisters-in-law and their children.

My brothers-in-law.

To the symbol of love and giving,

all my family.

To those who encouraged and supported me,

my friends.

To my teachers and all the people in my life who touch my heart,

I dedicate this research work.

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Abstract

The present study was conducted to investigate the relationship between the extent of language learning strategies use and foreign language anxiety among Mohammed Seddik Ben Yehia university students. It also aimed at examining the difference between the participants with high and low levels of anxiety in terms of their strategy use. The study was based on the hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between foreign language anxiety and language learning strategies, as there is a significant difference between high and low anxiety students in terms of their use of language learning strategies. Two questionnaires were used as tools of research. The first questionnaire is Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCA), developed by Rebecca Oxford (1990). It was constructed to measure the level of foreign language anxiety as perceived by learners while taking part in English classes. The second questionnaire is Language Learning Strategies Inventory (LLSI) developed by Horwitz (1986). It was designed to measure the frequency of using language learning strategies. The two questionnaires were adapted to serve the context of the current study. The sample of this study consisted of 100 third year students of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University in Jijel, Algeria. The results obtained revealed a significant negative correlation between the level of language anxiety and strategy use. The t-test also confirmed the significant difference between high and low anxious groups on the level of strategy use. That is, the more anxious the students are, the less frequently they use strategies. Moreover, the results showed that among highly anxious students, metacognitive and memory strategies were reported to be mostly used, while low anxious students reported using metacognitive and cognitive strategies. As for social strategies, they were reported to be less used by both groups.

List of Abbreviations and Symbols

CA: Communication Apprehension

CC: Communicative competence

CMC: Computer mediated communication

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as second language

FL: Foreign Language

FLA: Foreign Language Anxiety

FLCAS: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

FLL: Foreign Language Learning

LLS: Language Learning Strategies

M: Mean

S.D: Standard Deviation

SILL: Strategy Inventory Language Learning

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

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General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

With the increasing importance of the communicative function of English, educators have departed from teacher-centered approaches to language teaching and adopted task-based, student-centered approaches in their classes. The new teaching approaches focus on the variations of learning styles, strategies and motivation. They also take into consideration the students' affective states among which anxiety is particularly assumed to be important in determining the students' achievement in foreign language (FL) classes. Students' anxiety level is ranging from high to low due to the influence of a number of factors.

As regards language learning strategies, they are reported to be useful in reducing the students' anxiety and affect positively their proficiency. Thus, anxiety and language learning strategies are two variables that need to be understood broadly so that learning problems created by the negative emotions of students can be overcome and transferred into more positive feelings using the appropriate learning tactics.

2. Statement of the Problem

From her experience as a student of English for two years at the University of Mohammed Seddik-Ben Yehia, Jijel, and more than four years in another university, the researcher noticed that many foreign language learners encounter many problems in language learning because of anxiety. This latter is said to be one of the influential variables that affect negatively foreign language learning. Now and since more attention is given to the learners' emotions, beliefs and learning styles in the learning/ teaching process, language learning strategies are proved to be effective in enhancing second / foreign language learning and could be the solution to overcome learning anxiety.

Back and forth the literature, some empirical studies were conducted to identify the sources of anxiety but very few studies have been conducted to acknowledge the relationship between foreign language anxiety (FLA) and language learning strategies (LLS). These studies, though

few, have supported an inverse relationship between FLA and the use of LLS. That is, the highly anxious the learner is, the least frequent user of language learning strategies he is. Yet, the question to be raised here is to what extent this can be true in Algerian context?

3. Aim of the study

The main concern of the present research work was to identify whether there is a relationship between the use of language learning strategies and foreign language anxiety or not. Hence, this study sought to find out whether there is a difference between highly anxious students and low anxious ones in terms of their use of language learning strategies.

4. Research Questions

Accordingly, an attempt was made to find an empirically justified answer to each of the following questions:

1. Is there any relationship between the extent of language learning strategies use and the level of English language anxiety?
2. Do learners who have a relatively higher anxiety level differ from those who have a relatively lower anxiety level, in terms of their use of LLS?

5. Research Hypotheses

On the basis of the above raised questions, three hypotheses can be made:

- There is a significant relationship between the extent of language learning strategy use and the level of foreign language anxiety.
- There is a significant difference between high and low anxious students in terms of their use of language learning strategies.

6. Methodology of Research

To meet the objectives of this research, a descriptive study based on two questionnaires was adopted together with an analytical study of the obtained results. Thus, the methodology used in this research work is both quantitative and qualitative.

The questionnaires were devised to a random sample of 100 third year students of English as a foreign language at the university of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia-Jijel, to enable demonstrating the relationship between the dependent variable, language learning strategies (LLS), and the independent variable, foreign language anxiety (FLA).

7. Structure of the Dissertation

The present dissertation comprised two main parts: a theoretical part and a practical one. The first part includes two chapters. It represents a review of the related literature, whereas the second part concerns the study and the analysis of the results, their interpretation and discussion.

Chapter one was devoted to tackle the notion of language learning strategies, main features, categories, previous research related to their use and ended up by demonstrating its effectiveness in foreign language learning.

Chapter two spotted light on the concept of foreign language anxiety, its definitions, its types, forms, components and the correlates associated with it. At its end, ways to create a low anxiety classroom were presented.

Chapter three was the core of this research. It represented the study and its analysis. It provided information about the procedure, materials, the participants, as well as the gathered data and their analysis. The data obtained from both questionnaires were tabulated, analyzed, and discussed.

Introduction

Being considered as factors that help to determine how well students learn a foreign language, language learning strategies attracted tremendous attention in the last few years. Learners need to adopt attitudes and strategies that help them to decrease anxiety, increase motivation and ultimately help them to be able to convey information and communicate ideas and feelings. Therefore, this chapter tackled the issue of language learning strategies spotlighting on the multitudinous definitions of the term presented in pioneering works. It also outlined the features and taxonomy of language learning strategies proposed by several researchers and the previous research into language learning strategies focusing on successful and unsuccessful learners and factors influencing strategy choice. At the end, it demonstrated the effectiveness of these strategies in dealing with foreign language anxiety.

1.1. Definition of Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

What to use for learning and how to use it are among the most important matters in the process of learning. The term “learning strategies” (LS) was gaining importance since early 1970’s. Yet, its definition remained no easy task; Wenden and Rubin (1987, p.7) talked about the elusive nature of the term. Ellis (1994, p.529) described the concept as fuzzy, whereas, Cohen (1998, p.3) talked about conflicting views when it came to a comprehensive definition of the learning strategies.

The term LS is defined differently by many researchers. For instance, Brown (1980) provided a modest definition in which he explained them as processes that may contribute directly to learning. Rubin (1975, p.43) as one of the earliest researchers in the field, broadly defined LS as “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge”. Similarly, Chamot (1984, p.71) stated that “learning strategies are techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information”.

Later, Rubin (1987, p.22) stated that LS are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly. Oxford and Nyikos

(1989, p.291) defined LS as “operations used by learners to aid the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information. In another research, Oxford(1990,p.8) introduced another definition in which “learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations”. Accordingly, in an attempt to compare learning style with learning strategies, Oxford and Lavine(1991,p.203) stated that “in contrast to language learning styles, language learning strategies are specific behaviours or techniques that students use, often consciously, to improve their own progress in internalizing, storing, retrieving and using the target language”. This leads to the conception that language learning strategies (LLS) is a term that refers to the methods used by learners to intake, store, and retrieve information during the learning process. They are simply used in order to learn something more successfully.

1. 2. Features of Language Learning Strategies

When researching learning strategies, different writers came up with different terminology referring to these strategies. For example, Wenden and Rubin (1987) used the term “learner strategies”, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) used the term “learning strategies” and Oxford (1990) favoured the term “language learning strategies”. In spite of these slight differences in terminology, a number of main features were accepted, and shared by them. Oxford (1990,p.9) showed her viewpoint by listing twelve characteristics as follow:

- All LLS provide learners with greater opportunities to communicate using meaningful and contextualized language. This helps them to become active participants in such authentic interaction and aid the development of the communicative competence.
- LLS encourage autonomous learning. This autonomy enhances learners’ self-direction which is essential for the active development of ability in a new language.
- LLS expand the role of teachers. Their role is not limited any more to imparting knowledge to passive learners but rather new varied and creative roles of teachers; identifying students’ learning strategies, conducting training on learning strategies and helping learners become more

independent. These changes strengthen teachers' roles making them more varied and more creative.

-LLS are problem-oriented since they are used to solve a problem, to accomplish a task, to meet an objective or to attain a goal.

- LLS are specific actions or behaviours accomplished by students to enhance their learning.

-LLS are not restricted to cognitive functions, such as those dealing with mental processing and manipulation of the new language. They also include metacognitive functions like planning, evaluation and arranging one's own learning, emotional, social and other functions as well.

- LLS offer direct and indirect support of learning. Direct learning strategies involve direct learning and use of the subject matter. While indirect strategies, including metacognitive, affective and social strategies, contribute indirectly to learning.

- LLS have some degree of observability. Not all strategies can be observed. For example, the act of making mental associations, which is an important memory strategy, cannot be observed. However, cooperating, a social strategy in which the learner works with someone else can be observed.

- LLS have some levels of consciousness. At the beginning, learners use them consciously to regulate and control their learning .However, after a certain amount of practice and use, they can become automatic.

- LLS can be taught and modified. This can be done through strategy training, which is an essential part of language education. Strategy training helps learners to become more aware of strategy use and more skilled at employing appropriate strategies.

- LLS are flexible; that is, they are not always in the same sequences or patterns. There is a variety and individuality in the way that learners choose and utilize those strategies.

- LLS are influenced by a variety of factors such as motivation, personality, gender, learning styles, etc.

1.3. Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies

Most of the classifications of LLS which has been made by different scholars (Wenden and Rubin 1987; O'Malley et al. 1985; Oxford 1990; Stern 1992; Ellis 1994, etc) reflected more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies. The differences are primarily due to different research tools (such as, interviews, or questionnaires) or measuring strategies at different language tasks and in different contexts (such as foreign language learning or second language acquisition or on learners with different L2 level of competence). Since this research work was based on Oxford's (1990) classification, it was discussed in details, while Rubin's 1987, O'Malley et al (1985), and Stern's (1992) classification were reviewed briefly.

1.3.1. O'Malley's (1985) Classification

O'Malley et al. (1985, p. 582-584) divided LLS into three main subcategories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, socio-affective strategies.

First, metacognitive strategies refer to strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after a task is accomplished. Advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production and self-evaluation are among the main metacognitive strategies.

Second, cognitive Strategies refers to strategies that deal with direct manipulation of the learning material itself. They are not restricted to specific learning tasks. Among the most important cognitive strategies are repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer and inferencing .

Third, socio-affective strategies are related to social-mediating activity and transacting with others. Cooperation and question for clarification are the main socio-affective strategies (Brown 1987, p. 93).

1.3.2. Rubin's (1987) Classification

As the pioneer in the field of LLS, Rubin (1987) drew a distinction between strategies contributing directly or indirectly to language learning. He categorized them into three types: learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies.

The first type contribute directly to the development of the language system constructed by the learner. This type is sub-divided into two main types, cognitive learning strategies and metacognitive learning strategies. The former refers to the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving tasks that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials (e.g., clarification, verification, guessing, inductive inferencing...). The latter, refers to strategies which are used to regulate language learning. They involve various processes as planning, prioritising, setting goals, and self-management.

The second type is used by learners when participating in a conversation in order to get meaning across especially, when getting confronted with misunderstanding by a co-speaker. They are then less directly related to language learning.

The third type refers to those actions undertaken by learners to practise their knowledge in social situations and which provide them with opportunities to be exposed to the target language. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute indirectly to learning (Rubin & Wenden 1987, pp .23-27).

1.3.3. Oxford's (1990) Classification

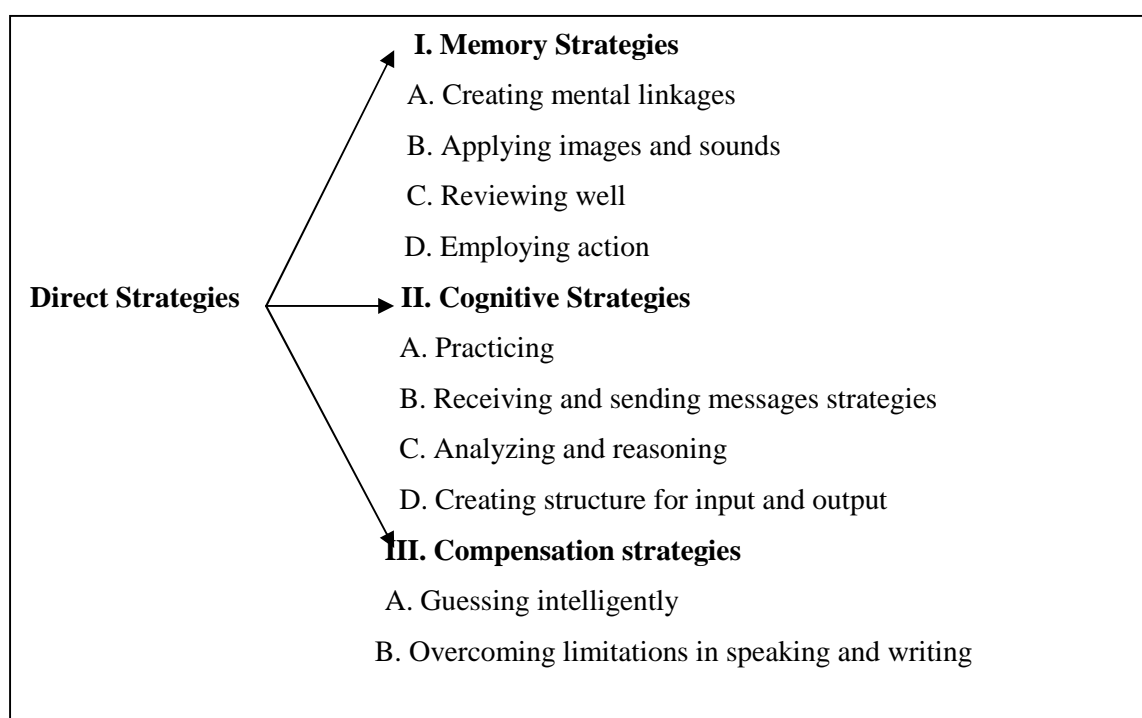
According to Oxford (1990, p.9), the goal of using LLS is to develop communicative competence. Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of LLS is divided into two major classes: direct strategies and indirect strategies. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups. Memory strategies,

cognitive strategies and compensation strategies are subgrouped under the direct strategies, whereas metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies are subgroups of the indirect strategies.

1.3.3.1. Direct Strategies

According to Oxford (1990), direct strategies are specific language learning strategies which directly involve the target language. Direct strategies are sub-divided into three groups: memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies (as shown in *figure 1.1.* below). The main feature of all these direct strategies is that they require mental processing of the language.

Figure 1.1: Direct Strategies (Oxford, 1990)



1.3.3.1.1. Memory Strategies

According to Oxford(2003), memory strategies are used for storing information into memory and retrieving it. Memory-related strategies help learners to link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding. Many memory-related strategies help learners learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms), while other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds ,a combination of sounds and images (e.g.,

the keyword method), body movement, mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a page or blackboard). She further explained these set of strategies as follow:

-Creating Mental Linkages

They are related to classifying language material into meaning units, mentally or in writing; relating new information to existing ones or relating one piece of information to another in order to create associations in memory as word-based or as a semantic map; and, finally placing a word or phrase in a meaningful sentence, conversation or story in order to remember it by linking with a context.

-Applying Images and Sounds

These strategies are about linking new language information to concepts that have already memorized by using visual imagery in the mind or in actual drawing; making an arrangement or turn the words into visual image which has a key concept and a center and the related concepts around; remembering a new bit of information using auditory and visual connections and remembering new language information making use of the sounds.

-Reviewing Well

Reviewing the new language material in carefully divided intervals. At first, reviewing is done together, and then more widely spaced apart.

-Employing Action

These strategies involve a sort of meaningful movement. They relate a new expression to a physical feeling or sensation, like the bitter taste then deal with using creative techniques, especially by moving or changing something to remember new target information.

1.3.3.1.2. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies involve strategies like practicing, analyzing expressions, summarizing, etc.

The common feature they all have is that they enable the learner to manipulate or transform the

target language. For this reason, cognitive strategies are seen as essential for learning a new language. According to Oxford (1989, 1990), cognitive strategies are the most popular strategies among language learners, and in the studies she conducted or supervised, these strategies were the most frequently used by learners. Oxford (1990) stated that there are four sets of cognitive strategies: Practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning and creating structure for input and output.

-Practicing

Strategies for practicing are commonly accepted among the most important cognitive strategies since the more learner practise, the more proficient they will be. These strategies involve repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing.

-Analyzing and Reasoning Strategies

According to Oxford (1990), these strategies consist of skills like reasoning deductively, analyzing expression, analyzing contrastively, translating and transferring. Learners apply these strategies in order to use general rules and use them in new target language situations.

-Creating Structure for Input and Output

Taking notes, summarizing and highlighting are included in strategies for creating structure. They are; making a summary or abstract of a longer unit and using a variety of emphasis techniques such as underlining to focus on important information.

1.3.3.1.3. Compensation Strategies

Compensation strategies are the strategies used by learners to compensate their limitation in learning a new language either for comprehension or production. As Oxford (1990) indicated, compensation strategies serve as “auto fillers” in learning a language where information gaps occur. These strategies help learners to produce spoken and written expressions in the target language and to become more fluent in their prior knowledge. She further claimed that learners who reported to use more compensation strategies sometimes communicated better than learners

who are not. There are two sets of compensation strategies: guessing intelligently and overcoming limitation in speaking and writing.

-Guessing Intelligently

These strategies are about using linguistic and non-linguistic clues to guess the meaning of what is read or heard in the target language, in the absence of the complete knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and other language elements (Oxford, 1990).

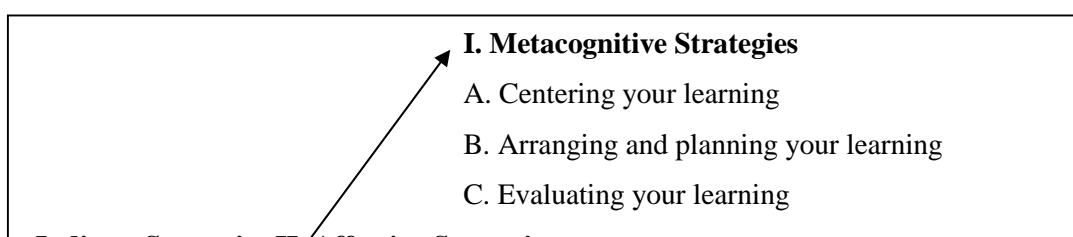
-Overcoming the Limitation in Speaking and Writing

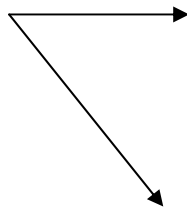
There are eight strategies of overcoming difficulties in speaking and writing. They are respectively related to using the mother tongue for an expression without translating it; asking someone for help to provide the missing expression; using physical motion, such as mime and gesture; avoiding conversation when difficulties are anticipated; choosing the topic of conversation in order to direct communication; altering the message by omitting some items of information; making up new words to communicate the desired idea; getting the meaning across by describing the concept or using a word that means the same thing (Oxford, 1990).

1.3.3.2. Indirect Strategies

They are called indirect strategies because they contribute indirectly to the learning process (Oxford, 1990). However, they are interconnected with the direct strategies and they are useful in all language learning situations and the four skills of language (reading, writing, listening and speaking). Indirect strategies are further separated into three subgroups: metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

Figure 1.2: Indirect Strategies (Oxford, 1990)





1.3.3.2.1. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies are those strategies that go beyond cognitive devices and enable learners to coordinate their own learning process. Oxford (1990) believed that metacognitive strategies are very important for successful language learning. Students who sometimes get overwhelmed by the novelty of the target language, like unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing and overlapping rules need these strategies. Consciously using metacognitive strategies, students can regain their focus. Below are subgroups of metacognitive strategies:

-Centering Learning Strategies

These strategies are used to center learners' conscious attention on certain language tasks, activities or materials. Under these strategies overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention and delaying speech production to focus on listening are subgrouped.

-Arranging and Planning Learning

These strategies are interrelated with organizing, setting goals and objectives for language tasks, planning for them and seeking practice opportunities to achieve better results in language learning.

-Evaluating Learning

They help learners to assess their language performance. These strategies result in identifying one's own errors in both understanding and producing the new language then evaluating the progress in the target language.

1.3.3.2.2. Affective Strategies

According to Oxford (1990), by using affective strategies learners can gain control over factors related to emotions, attitudes, motivations and values. There are ten skills listed under three sets of affective strategies. Lowering anxiety, self-encouragement, taking emotional temperature. Below are discussed these sub-clusters.

-Lowering Anxiety

These strategies deal with reducing the amount of anxiety as perceived by learners when learning a new language. Physical and mental skills are involved in these strategies. These are using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation, using music and using laughter as means for relaxation when learning a new language (Oxford, 1990).

-Self-Encouragement

According to Oxford (1990), self-encouragement plays a very important role in motivating learners from inside more than appreciation from others does. This can be generated by making positive statements to themselves to boost their self-confidence, taking risks wisely in language situations despite the possibility of making mistakes that must be tolerated with good judgment; and rewarding themselves when they achieve their goals.

-Taking Emotional Temperature

This strategy used to help learners understand and assess their feelings, motivation and attitudes and relate them to language tasks. According to Oxford (1990), learners can control their affective factors better if they know how they are feeling and why they are feeling that way. Involved in this strategy, listening to body, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary, and discussing feelings with someone else as skills of this affective strategy. They respectively refer to paying attention to signals given by the body, such as stress, tension, worry,

fear or anger; using a checklist to discover feelings and attitudes related to language learning; writing a diary or journal to keep track of events and feelings in the process of language learning; and talking with another person like a friend or a teacher to discover and express feelings about language learning (Oxford, 1990).

1.3.3.2.3. Social Strategies

Social strategies help the learner to work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. It is, therefore, impossible to discriminate language from social interaction. Oxford (1990). There are six skills listed under three sets of social strategies. They are asking questions, cooperating with others and empathizing with others. Below is the diagram that shows the clusters of the social strategies.

-Asking Questions

These strategies refer to asking for help from more proficient users of the target language either teachers, peers or native speakers to get clarification, verification or correction and provide learner with valuable feedback (Oxford, 1990).

-Cooperating with Others

This skill stresses the importance of cooperating with others in language learning either with teachers, peers or native speakers of the target language. This step provides learners with self-worth, social acceptance and improve language skills. Oxford (1990) stresses its importance as it reduces competitiveness and rivalry and increase the chance of authentic communication.

-Empathizing with Others

Being empathic means being able to understand other people's emotions and feelings. Social strategies, increasing awareness of other's thoughts and feeling, developing cultural understanding are useful strategies that can help learners to increase their ability to empathize. (Oxford, 1990).

1.3.4. Stern's (1992) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

According to Stern (1992, pp.262-266), there are five main language learning strategies. Management and planning strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative - experiential strategies, interpersonal strategies and affective strategies.

First, management and planning strategies are related to learners' intention to direct their own learning. When learners get help and advice from their teachers, they can take charge of the development of their own programme. In other words, they must decide what commitment to make to language learning, set themselves reasonable goals, decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, monitor progress and evaluate their achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectations (Stern 1992, p.263).

Second, cognitive strategies are operations used in learning or problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Clarification, verification, guessing, inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization and monitoring are examples of the cognitive strategies.

Third, communication strategies are techniques used by learners to keep the flow of the conversation. These strategies include techniques such as circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition and explanation (Stern 1992, p. 265).

Fourth, interpersonal strategies give opportunities to learners to be exposed to the target culture via communicating with native speakers and cooperating with them. These steps help learners to monitor their own development and assess their own performance (Stern 1992, p. 265-266).

Fifth, affective strategies are very important especially when learners may not feel comfortable towards learning a foreign language or may have negative feelings about the native speakers of the target language. They are used to face up the emotional difficulties and to overcome them. Good language learners try to create associations of positive affect towards the foreign language and its speakers as well as towards the involved learning activities (Stern 1992, p. 266).

1.4. Previous Research into Language Learning Strategies

1.4.1. Successful and Unsuccessful Language Learners

Over the years, different researchers have employed a variety of approaches to identify language learning strategies. The gathering of data about successful and unsuccessful language learners was one of the most frequently used approaches. In the study of the good language learner, (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Rubin and Thompson, 1994) isolated some characteristics of good language learners in terms of personal characteristics, styles, and strategies by means of observing students in classrooms, talking to good language learners and eliciting observations from teachers. They believed that good language learners take responsibility for their own learning, Organize information about language, Create opportunities for practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom, learn to live with uncertainty by not getting confused and by continuing to talk or listen without understanding every word, use memory strategies to bring back what has been learned, make errors work for them and not against them, use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of the first language in learning a second language, use contextual cues to help them in comprehension and learn to make intelligent guesses. The stated aim for Rubin's et al research (1975) was to make such strategies available to less successful learners so that they could increase their success rate.

Similarly, in an investigation of the relationship between language learning strategies and success in language development by speakers of other languages, Wong Fillmore (1982) found that good language learners use more social strategies. She reported that good language learners "spent more time than they should have during class time socialising and minding everyone else's business" (p.163).

O'Malley *et al* (1985) concluded that, higher level students reported greater use of metacognitive strategies. However, different results were achieved in other pieces of research done by Bialystok (1981) and by Huang and Van Naerssen (1987). They indicated that strategies related to functional practice were associated with proficiency, while Ehrman and Oxford (1995)

discovered that cognitive strategies such as looking for patterns and reading for pleasure in the target language were the strategies used by successful students.

In contrast to the above mentioned studies, Green and Oxford (1995) found that higher level students do not report using only one type or other types of language learning strategies but rather they report using all kinds of strategies more frequently than do lower level students. Additionally, researchers have also given attention to observe what unsuccessful language learners do and, perhaps therefore to shed light on what should be avoided by learners. In their study of two unsuccessful learners, Vann and Abraham (1990, p.191) concluded that, although their students appeared to be active strategy users, they "failed to apply strategies appropriately to the task at hand". Porte (1988) reached a conclusion when he interviewed 15 under-achieving learners in private language schools in London; he concluded that most unsuccessful learners in his study, while reporting frequent use of language learning strategies, reported using strategies which were the same as, or very similar to, those they had used at schools in their native countries.

1.4.2. Factors Affecting Strategy Choice

In spite of the interesting insights, the picture which emerges from the above-mentioned studies is far from unified. Possible reasons for this lack of unity might include the different contexts of the studies, the different research methods used, or the varying nature of the language learners themselves. Researchers, therefore, have used another approach in which they study the influence of learners' variables on their choice of language learning strategies to give answers to the many unanswered questions which characterise the language learning strategy field. Some variables that have been reported to influence the choice of LLS are discussed below:

1.4.2.1. Motivation

The effects of motivation on language learning strategy use were highlighted when Oxford and Nyikos (1989) surveyed 1,200 students studying various languages in a Midwestern American university in order to examine the kinds of language learning strategies the students

reported using. They found that among all the variables measured in their study, the level of motivation had the most powerful influence on reported use of LLS. The results indicated that the most motivated learners used these strategies significantly more often than did the least motivated learners.

1.4.2.2. Gender

Many studies have been conducted with respect to gender-related differences in LLS use. In an investigation of learning strategy use of 55 students learning English with different cultural and linguistic background done by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), mean differences revealed that females use strategies more frequently than males. Female participants reported using social and metacognitive strategies most and memory strategies the least. While males favoured the use of metacognitive and compensation strategies most and affective strategies the least. Similarly, Ehrman and Oxford (1989) in their study of adult language learners found that when compared with males, females reported significantly greater use of LLS in four categories: general study strategies, functional practice strategies, strategies for searching and communicating meaning, and self-management strategies.

In a sharp contrast, Tran (1988) and Wharton (2000) designated in their studies that males were likely to use a variety of learning strategies more than females. Whereas in other studies done by Grace (2000) investigating gender differences in vocabulary retention and access to translations for beginning language learners in computer assisted language learning, the findings support no significant differences between females and males on their short term memory and long-term retention scores that when they were given bilingual multiple-choice tests. Moreover, there were no significant differences in the amount of time males and females spent looking up translations. Ehrman and Oxford (1990) also reported that the number and kind of strategies used by females were similar to those used by males.

1.4.2.3. Proficiency level

Oxford and Crookall (1989) asserted that students with higher proficiency level tend to use strategies somewhat differently from those with a lower proficiency levels. They pointed out that successful learners use appropriate strategies better than unsuccessful ones. Techniques for organizing, for handling emotions and attitudes, for cooperating with others in the learning process, for linking new information with existing schemata, and for directly engaging in learning use are techniques which are reported using by good students. Here, the main focus is not on the number of strategies employed but on the appropriacy of the strategies with respect to the nature of the task, to the learning material, to goals, etc.

This view can be supported with Vann and Abraham's (1990) findings. In their study learners were asked to complete four tasks: an interview, a verb exercise, a close passage, and a composition. After the completion of the tasks, they compared the strategies used by their unsuccessful learners with the ones used by successful learners. They found that their unsuccessful learners were very similar to their successful learners in their range of strategies. However, when they were compared to each other with respect to the task demands, the unsuccessful learners were found to be active strategy users, yet they often failed to use the strategies appropriate to the task at hand.

1. 4.2.4. Age

Generally speaking, the studies conducted in the field with respect to learning strategies and age (e.g., Chamot and El-Dinary, 1999, Vann and Abraham, 1990) revealed that young learners were more flexible users of strategies and more effective at monitoring and adapting their strategies in comparison to their elder counterparts. The good young learners in those studies reported a variety of strategies they tried for a particular task, indicating that they recognised the need for flexibility in their use of strategies to achieve the language learning tasks.

Although the evidence regarding the effects of age on language learning is "far from clear or conclusive" (Spolsky, 1989, p.92), it is a common belief that children are superior to adults as language learners (Bellingham, 2000).

1.4.2.5. Learning Style

Learning style is a broader concept of how learners learn and what their views on learning are. It has been well recognised that learning strategy use is tied to learning style (Cohen, 1998; Griffiths, 2013). Rossi-Le (1989, p.73-75) found, for example, that auditory learners frequently used memory and metacognitive strategies, while strategies for authentic language use are less used.

1.4.2.6. Teaching Methods

It is commonly believed that students' LLS choices are affected by the teaching methods (Oxford 1990, pp. 18-21, Politzer 1983). According to Oxford (1990), the grammar-translation method helps learners to use memory or practice strategies, and communicative instructional methods help them to use social strategies. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) also found that adult students who were learning a foreign language for professional reasons used communication-oriented strategies when their teachers used communicative teaching methods.

Teacher's awareness of LLS choice also helps the learners to be encouraged to use certain strategies more or control their choices of LLS according to which strategies the teachers want their learners to use.

1.5. The Effectiveness of Language Learning Strategies

During the language learning process, a number of tasks need to be accomplished, different problems need to be solved and huge amount of information need to be processed by language learners in language classrooms. With the aim to facilitate this process, learners use different language learning strategies. These specific actions give language teachers valuable clues about how their students assess the situation, plan, select appropriate skills so as to understand, learn, or remember new input presented in the language classroom.

According to Fedderholdt (1997, p.1), the appropriate use of a wide variety of LLS by the language learner will enhance his language skills. For instance, metacognitive strategies improve the organization of the learning time, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation whereas cognitive

strategies help solve new problems. Developing skills in these areas can help the language learner build up learner autonomy whereby he can take control of his own learning.

Oxford (1990), and Hsiao and Oxford (2002) believed that using different portions of strategies in the class, especially to learn a target language, will help learners to focus more on the main goals and become self-directed as they will depend more on their knowledge. However, teachers should work as facilitators and advisors; rather than just knowledge providers.

Moreover, Oxford (1990, p.1) proposed that: Strategies are essential for developing communicative competence. Appropriate LLS result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence. Besides, teaching these strategies to learners and training them to use them appropriately and effectively make instructors good language teachers (Lessard-Clouston 1997,p.3).

Conclusion

Being good or not, LLS strategies result in shaping the way language learners proceed their own learning. In other words, not all language learners use the same good LLS or should be trained in

using and developing the same strategies to become successful learners, since factors like age, gender, personality, motivation, self-concept, life-experience, learning style, excitement, anxiety, etc affect the way in which language learners learn the target language.

Introduction

The emphasis of learning has shifted from the narrow concern of developing learners' linguistic competence to the need for developing communicative competence. Since then, learners have

been challenged to speak the target language spontaneously in various social contexts. To meet this challenge, attention has diverted to studying the role of effective variables that can hinder the process of learning a second/foreign language. Among these variables, learners' anxiety has been recognised as an important area of investigation in second language acquisition because of its negative effects on students' performance and success.

This chapter was devoted to explore different definitions of anxiety, foreign language anxiety as a specific type, in addition to its perspectives, forms and components. Also, it shed light on the description of three stages of language learning: input, processing, and output with relation to anxiety to point out why students make mistakes and face linguistic difficulties when learning and using the target language. Besides, this section addressed the effects of such a problem on the four skills (listening ,speaking, writing and reading) and took a look at cues and signs that teachers may decode to recognise anxious students and how to create a low-anxiety classroom by adopting specific techniques and behaviors.

2.1. Definition of Anxiety

A plethora of definitions ranged from simple to more complex was associated with the term anxiety, each of which dealt with it from a different perspective. In its simplest definition, psychologists described anxiety as a state of apprehension; a vague of fear that is only indirectly associated with an object, an uncomfortable emotional state in which one perceives danger, feels powerless, and experiences tensions in the face of an expected danger (Blau 1955, Tanveer 2007, Young 1991). While a more complex definition of anxiety is given by Spielberger (as cited in Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008, p. 27). He stated that "anxiety is an unpleasant emotional state which is characterized by subjective feelings or tension, apprehension and worry, and by activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system that accompanies these feelings". The latest approaches to anxiety are attempting to propose a definition of anxiety which would be distinguished from the definition of fear. It was claimed, that although anxiety and fear coexist before conscious awareness, fear has the function of moving the organism away from the danger,

while anxiety does the opposite, it moves the organism closer to the danger or preventing the organism to enter the dangerous situation (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008).

The important aspect of anxiety is the way in which an individual processes a threatening situation. The level of anxiety depends on the individual's assessment of the situation which they believe to be threatening and their way of dealing with this situation. This view of anxiety was proposed by Pekrun (1992) who defined anxiety as a "sociobiological phenomenon experienced as a foreboding dread or threat resulting from the individual's appraisal of a situation and of their capacity to deal with it" (as cited in Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008, p 28).

For a clearer picture of anxiety, two anxiety models were described by Piechurska-Kuciel (2008): Interference and skills deficit model. As for the first model, Morris and Liebert (1967) proposed that it consists of two components: 1) worry, which is a cognitive concern of the individual's performance, and 2) emotionality; an emotional reaction to stress. Regarding the second model of anxiety, skills deficit, it implies that people with poor study skills are likely to perceive anxiety and, consequently, have weaker results. That is, when an anxious person has good study skills, he is likely to perform better than an anxious person with poor study skills (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008).

2.2. Anxiety Perspectives

Anxiety can be inspected in different areas, this is why it has been investigated from three perspectives. MacIntyre & Gardner (1991) explained these three perspectives; the first perspective is trait perspective. Spielberger (1983) referred to trait anxiety as a stable predisposition to become nervous in a wide range of situations. People with high level of trait anxiety are generally nervous people; they lack emotional stability. On the contrary, people with low trait anxiety are emotionally stable and tend to be calm and relax (Goldberg, 1993).

The second perspective considers anxiety as a state anxiety. It is evoked whenever a person perceives stimulus or situation as harmful, dangerous or threatening to him (Spielberger, 1992).

It has a cognitive, emotional and behavioural effect on the learner. In terms of cognition, people

experience state anxiety and are more sensitive to what other people are thinking of them. Concerning its effect on emotion, people feel energized or agitated but anything above a minimal level of anxiety is regarded as obnoxious arousal. While in terms of its influence on behaviour, people all the time think of the way they behave and tend to evaluate it, assess the real and imaginary failures and constantly attempt to find ways to escape from the embarrassing situation (Carver & Scheier, 1986).

The third perspective is the situation specific approach to anxiety which is aroused by a specific type of situation or event such as public speaking, test-taking, or class participation. This perspective focuses on the respondents' reactions in specific, well-defined situations such as public speaking or writing examinations (Ellis, 1994).

2.3. Definition of Foreign Language Anxiety

The concept of language anxiety was first proposed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) in their paper "Foreign Classroom Language anxiety". They defined language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning experience" (p.128). Their definitions differentiated between anxiety in general and the anxiety which is specific in the context of language acquisition. Also, they stressed the importance of a formal language learning environment, in which learners can produce their thoughts, feelings of inadequacy and fear of failure. Similarly, MacIntyre (1999, p.27) defined foreign language anxiety (FLA) as "the worry and the negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language".

2.3.1. Forms of Foreign Language Anxiety

It is crucial to understand the role of anxiety in the learning process because it ranks high among the factors that can influence language learning. Anxiety can both assist and hamper students' learning. According to MacIntyre (1995a), anxiety plays different roles in language learning processes. The benefits of moderate levels of anxiety should not be ignored as it can provide an impetus to performing a task or achieving an objective. So, anxiety can take two forms:

debilitating or facilitating. The former has positive effects on the learner and can provide an impetus to performing a task or achieving an objective. It motivates learners, facilitates their learning and it also keeps students on alert (Scovel, 1978). However, Horwitz (1990) found that this form of anxiety is only helpful for simple learning tasks. The latter, includes the interference of harm feelings such as worry and fear with the learning process (Sellers, 2000). In Oxford's opinion (1999a), debilitating anxiety weakens learners' performance in various ways, both indirectly through worry and self-doubt and directly by reducing participation and creating overt avoidance of the language

Despite the fact that some researchers found in a few cases that high anxiety is associated with positive outcomes mainly high tests scores (e.g., Brown, Robson and Rosenkjar, 2001), the predominance of the evidence supports the debilitating effect, especially for speaking activities.

2.4. The Interference of Language Anxiety and the Language Learning Process

Studies on FLA revealed ambiguous results since the experimental research conducted in the area was inadequate. For a time it was believed that anxiety might have both a facilitating and debilitating effect on L2 acquisition. However, subsequent research has indicated, that it has debilitating effects (Gardner, 2008, p. 37). The findings of MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) also showed that there was significant negative correlation between language anxiety and performance on a vocabulary learning task. According to Tobias' (1986) model of the effects of anxiety on learning, anxiety could interfere with learning at three stages: input, processing and output.

2.4.1. Input

The input stage consists of the individual's first exposure to a stimulus. If anxiety is aroused during the input stage, some internal reactions are induced, individual's attention may be distracted, fewer stimuli may be encoded, and repeated exposure to the task may be necessary to overcome the effects of the anxiety.

According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), students with high levels of anxiety at the

input stage may ask for their foreign language instructors to repeat sentences more often than do their low-anxious peers, or they may have reread material in the foreign language on several occasions to compensate for missing or inadequate input. In Krashen's opinion (1985) input is considered the basic stage of language learning. He asserted in his 'Input Hypothesis' that "speech cannot be taught directly but emerges on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input". (p.3) Because of anxiety and lack of confidence (i.e., learners' affective filter), the comprehensible input is not fully exploited. Input anxiety is more likely to cause miscomprehension of the message sent by the interlocutors, which may lead to the loss of successful communication and an increased level of anxiety.

2.4.2. Processing

Onwuegbuzie et al. (2000) defined processing anxiety as "apprehension which students experience when performing cognitive operations on new information". (p. 476). Cognitivists believed that learners by using cognitive sources have to process information and to pay attention to produce any linguistic aspect. Therefore, limited processing mental capacity may cause anxiety; conversely, anxiety may also lead to restricting this operational capacity of the mind. This recursive relationship was explained by MacIntyre (1995) as he clarified:

"A demand to answer a question in a second language class may cause a student to become anxious; anxiety leads to worry and rumination. Cognition performance is diminished because of the divided attention and therefore performance suffers, leading to negative self-evaluation and more self deprecating cognition which further impairs performance, and so on". (p.92).

Furthermore, processing anxiety can also explain the difficulty learners feel in remembering and retrieving vocabulary items while communicating in the target language. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) found a significant negative correlation between language anxiety and the ability to repeat a short string of numbers and recall vocabulary items. This shows that

anxiety can limit the use of both short and long term memory.

2.4.3. Output

The output stage depends upon the successful completion of the previous stages: input and processing. At this stage learners experience anxiety when they are asked to demonstrate their ability to use previously learned material (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). According to Tobias (1977), manifestation of output anxiety takes place after the completion of the processing stage and before its effective reproduction as output. Similarly, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) claimed that high levels of anxiety at this stage might hinder the students' ability to speak or to write in the foreign language.

To sum up, language learning is a cognitive activity that relies on encoding, storage, and retrieval processes. Anxiety can interfere with each of these creating a divided attention scenario for anxious students. Anxious students focus on both the task at hand and their reactions to it. For example, when responding to a question in a class, the anxious student focuses on answering the teacher's question and evaluating the social implications of the answer while giving it" (MacIntyre, 1995, p. 96).

2.5. Components of Foreign Language Anxiety and Related Causal Factors

When students are exposed to several negative experiences in a foreign language context, they can feel anxious, be discouraged, lose faith in their abilities, escape from participating in classroom activities, and even give up the effort to learn a language well. Horwitz et al. (1986) stated that the language anxiety is mostly grounded in the skills of speaking and listening. They also stated that language anxiety appears when an individual is evaluated in academic and social context. Therefore, they have identified three related performance anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

2.5.1. Communication Apprehension

Most of research in this area is based on McCrosky's (1977) definition of communication apprehension which stated that "an individual's level of fear or anxiety is associated with either

real or anticipated communication with another person or persons” (p.78). Similarly, Horwitz et al (1986) defined it as a feeling of shyness occurs when communicating with people. It results when learners are unable to sufficiently express their mature thoughts and ideas. Besides, language learners experience communication apprehension when they find difficulty in understanding others or in being understood (Horwitz et al, 1986).

According to Friedman (1980), communication apprehension may be specific to only a few settings (e.g. public speaking) or may occur in almost everyday communication situations, or may even be part of a general anxiety trait that arises in many facets of an individual's life. Quietness, shyness, reticence and general traits of personality can trigger communication apprehension (McCrosky, 1977). According to Friedman (1980), when individuals inhibit participating in discussions, shyness or reticence will occur in spite of their desire to verbalize the process.

Similarly, Daly (1991) presented some explanations about the development of communication apprehension offering an insight into the issue of understanding what causes language anxiety for ESL/EFL learners. Firstly, he explained that genetic legacy may contribute to communication apprehension, meaning that children are born with certain personality predispositions towards communication apprehension. Secondly, reinforcement and punishment may lead to increase one's negative attitude towards the act of communication. He asserted that quite individuals or those who avoid communicating with others, are greeted with negative reactions from others from early childhood in response to their attempt to communicate so that they develop the idea that staying quiet is more highly rewarded than talking. This can suggest that negative reactions to the learners' participation by language instructors can reinforce their fear of making mistakes and future attempts to communicate. Thirdly, Daly (1991) focused on the acquisition of adequate communication skills from early childhood. For him; children who get greater opportunities to experience talking are more likely to be less apprehensive than those who receive less opportunities of communication. The last perspective he emphasized is that children who have

been exposed to appropriate social-interactive models of communication are generally less apprehensive than those who have been exposed to inadequate or less interactive models.

2.5.2. TestAnxiety

When students have a fear of failure in a test, especially when they have poor performance in previous tests, they feel anxious. This type of performance anxiety is referred to as test anxiety (Brown, 1994). Those students develop a negative stereotype about tests and have irrational perceptions in evaluative situations even the brightest and more prepared students often do so. According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), test anxious students have false beliefs in language learning. These students habitually put impractical demands on themselves and feel that anything less than perfect test performance is a failure.

Young (1991) claimed that test anxiety would affect foreign language learners with low levels of oral proficiency more than those with high levels of proficiency. So, test anxious learners will doubtlessly suffer from stress and anxiety. It is important to note that oral testing has the potential to provoke both test and oral communication anxiety simultaneously in susceptible students.

2.5.3. Fear of NegativeEvaluation

The students' fear of negative evaluation refers to avoidance of evaluative situations and the expectation that others will evaluate them negatively. According to Horwitz et al. (1986) the person who has a strong fear of negative evaluations may be very sensitive to others views in the classroom (teachers, native speakers, fluent L2 speakers, and peers). In a same vein, Chan and Wu (2004) defined fear of negative evaluation as apprehension about others evaluation, distress over their negative evaluations, and expectations that others would evaluate oneself regularly. This construct is broader in scope than test anxiety since it is connected to test-taking situations and other social evaluation situations as well such as interviews, oral presentations, or speaking contests (Horwitz et al. 1986). Besides, it is proposed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) that fear of negative evaluation is closely related to

communication apprehension. When students are unsure of what they are saying, fear of negative evaluation occurs and they may doubt about their ability to make a proper impression (Chan and Wu,2004), this fear results in classroom passive students.

In short, all the three components are strongly linked to learners' 'self' which is at risk of failure or being negatively evaluated in any test-like situation, or a situation which requires communication. This threat to one's sense of 'self' will frequently occur in the language classroom.

2.6. Correlates of Foreign Language Anxiety

The correlates of foreign language learning anxiety have been a major focus of research. One area of research has examined learner variables such as self-esteem, beliefs, gender, learning styles, motivation, and personality factors among others (e.g., Bailey, Daley, and Onwuegbuzie, 1999; Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar, 1996; Campbell, 1999; Dewaele, 2002; Ehrman and Oxford, 1995; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1992). Another area of research has investigated situational variables, for example, course activities, course level, course organization, instruction environment, and instructor behavior (Jackson, 2002; Oh, 1992; Oxford, 1999a; Powell, 1991; Samimy, 1989; Spielmann and Radnofsky, 2001; Young, 1991).

2.6.1. Correlates Associated with Learners' Variables

2.6.1.1. Self Perceptions

According to Horwitz et al. (1986, p.128), perhaps no other field of study poses as much of threat to self-concept as language study does. Self-concept is "the totality of individual's thoughts, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes and values having reference to himself as object" (Laine, 1987, p. 15). This self-concept forms the basis of the distinction, made by Horwitz et al. (1986, p. 128), between language anxiety and other forms of academic anxieties. They posited, "the importance of the disparity between the 'true' or 'actual' self as known to the language learner and the more limited self as can be presented at any given moment in the foreign language would seem to distinguish foreign language anxiety from other academic anxieties such as those

associated with mathematics or science”.

The term self perception or self-esteem refers to what the one thinks of himself (Mackie 2007). This thinking of the self can be either positive or negative and it has been found that this variable can be strongly linked with language anxiety (Laine, 1987, p. 15). In Krashen's words (1980, p. 15, as cited in Young, 1991):

“The more I think about self-esteem, the more impressed I am about its impact. People with low self-esteem worry about what their peers think; they are concerned with pleasing others. And that I think has to do a great degree with anxiety”. (p. 427).

In other words, individuals who have high levels of self-esteem are less likely to be anxious than are those with low self-esteem (Horwitz et al, 1986, p.129).

2.6.1.2. Learners' Beliefs about Language Learning

In response to what learners' self-concept is exposed to, they may generate some particular beliefs about language learning and its use. According to Horwitz et al. (1986, p. 127), certain beliefs about language learning also influence student's tension, learning experiences as well as actions in the class. Some beliefs are likely influenced by the learners' previous experiences which could be positive or negative. A negative learning experience might lead learners to embrace irrational and unrealistic conceptions about language learning. Horwitz noted some of these conceptions (1988, cited in Ohata, 2005, p. 138) as follow:

- Some students believe that accuracy must be sought before saying anything in the foreign language.
- Some attach great importance to speaking with excellent native L1-like accent.
- Others believe that it is not good to guess an unfamiliar second/ foreign language word.
- Some hold that language learning is basically an act of translating from English or any second/foreign language.
- Some view that two years are sufficient in order to gain fluency in the target language.

- Some believe that language learning is a special gift not possessed by all.

To recap, the perfectionist nature of learners lead to these erroneous beliefs about language learning which can in turn contribute greatly to creating language anxiety in students (Young, 1991).

2.6.1.3. Language Proficiency

A significant correlation was found between anxiety and proficiency in several studies (Aida, 1994; Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997). High proficiency students differ from low proficiency students in terms of language anxiety; low proficiency students may have more anxiety than their counterparts (Young, 1991). Additionally, FLA negatively correlates with performance in oral tests (Phillips, 1992), reading comprehension (Saito, Horwitz & Garza, 1999), the production of vocabulary (Gardner, Moorcroft & MacIntyre, 1987), listening comprehension and short-term memory (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a), and writing proficiency (Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999).

The recent review by Sparks and Ganschow (2007) exhibited that FLA is closely linked to learners' native language skills. Accordingly, "students with the highest levels of anxiety about FL learning may also have the lowest levels of native language skills; especially in reading and spelling" (p. 277).

2.6.1.4. Motivation

Motivation was defined by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) as:

"the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out". (p. 65)

As one of the pioneering researchers in second language acquisition (SLA) to focus on motivation, Gardner (1985, p. 50) defined motivation in terms of four aspects: 1) a goal, 2) effortful behavior to reach the goal, 3) a desire to attain the goal and 4) positive attitudes

toward the goal, i.e., by goal, he meant a stimulus that gave rise to motivation.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) suggested that the degree of motivation to learn a language is associated with levels of anxiety. High levels of motivation result in low levels of anxiety while low levels of motivation lead to high levels of anxiety. Motivated students are more interested in courses, they enjoy learning, and pay attention to every detail to gather an important potential of input that is why they tend to be successful.

2.6.1.5. Learning Strategies

In order to facilitate learning and make it easier, students follow specific steps which are called learning strategies (Bailey et al., 1999, p.65). According to Warr and Downing (2000), learners who use good learning strategies may be more motivated and less anxious in learning foreign language. Moreover, Mueller (1981) concluded in his examination of the interaction between learning strategies and anxiety that learners with high anxiety level may lack useful strategies in language learning; they encode information less, attend to less environmental cues, process material less effectively, experience more cognitive interference, and lose working memory more easily. In contrast, learners with low anxiety level may use more learning strategies, especially cognitive strategies (e.g., rehearsal, organization, elaboration).

2.6.1.6. Personality Trait

As it has been discussed previously, FLA is partly related to an individual's personality (Dewaele, 2007; Dörnyei, 2005; Young, 1991). According to Gregersen and Horwitz's (2002) study, high-anxiety learners and perfectionists are similar in some characteristics. Both of them have higher standards for their English performance, a greater tendency towards procrastination, fear of negative evaluation, and a higher level of concern over their errors. These characteristics may evoke learners' negative feelings and low sense of success in FL learning.

Chu (2008) confirmed that shyness has a positive correlation with anxiety in FL classroom. In a study conducted on Taiwanese students, he stated that the interaction between FLA, willingness to communicate, and shyness, create an impact on them. Although a number of

studies have already been undertaken examining the relationships between personality and anxiety, it is still not clear whether such a relationship exists (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999).

2.6.1.7. Social Anxiety

Social anxiety occurs when interacting with others in different social situations. As a result, different feelings of self-esteem, judgement evaluation and scrutiny can be evoked automatically (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). According to Leary (1983), social anxiety consists of speech anxiety, shyness, stage fright, embarrassment, social-evaluative anxiety, and communication apprehension. When individuals experience social anxiety they are vulnerable to make errors because it seems difficult for them to make positive social impressions when speaking a new language.

According to MacIntyre & Gardner (1989, as cited in Horwitz & Gregersen, 2002), errors in social settings are mostly overlooked if they do not interfere with meaning because people consider it impolite to interrupt and correct somebody who is trying to have a conversation with them. In the classroom environment, feedback on errors is provided frequently; this leads many learners to frustration and embarrassment by making them conscious about their deficiencies and difficulties.

2.6.1.8. Gender

Some language anxiety studies have investigated the difference between female and male learners in terms of language anxiety levels and achievement. Elkhafafi (2005) found that female students often have higher levels of anxiety than males in academic settings and in general Arabic language. However, no statistically significant differences were seen between the sexes in Arabic listening anxiety. In another study done by Aida (1994), no statistically connection was found between language anxiety in learning Japanese and gender, but in another study conducted in Chinese high schools, males were found to be more anxious in English classes than females (Zhao, 2007).

2.6.2. Correlates Associated with Situational Variables (Instruction)

Instructional factors related to FLA include instructors' beliefs about language teaching, classroom procedure, competitive environment, and the test-taking situation. Firstly, Instructors' beliefs about language teaching were found to be a source of anxiety. Young (1991) stated that there would be a higher level of anxiety when instructors think that they should play the role of the boss to conduct their students' performance rather than the role of a facilitator or when they look to consider each mistake done by the students to be corrected. So, every teacher should consider these beliefs for effective alleviation of language anxiety in learners.

Secondly, different activities in the classroom procedure, particularly, those that demand students to speak in the FL in front of the whole class are said to provoke anxiety. For instance, Koch and Terrel (1991) found that students get more anxious when called upon to respond individually, rather than if they are given a choice to respond voluntarily. Furthermore, students were found to be more relaxed to speak the target language when paired with a classmate or put into small groups. Young (1991) found that more than sixty-eight percent of her subjects reported feeling more comfortable when they did not have to get in front of the class to speak. Price (1991) provided further support; she interviewed 10 highly anxious American university students who learned French. The results indicated that all of the learners felt speaking the language in class is the greatest cause of anxiety. They feared of being laughed at, making a fool of themselves, or being ridiculed.

Thirdly, competitive environment can create higher levels of anxiety among learners. In most occasions, language learners compare themselves to their classmates or to an idealized self-image, which they can rarely attain. If those learners keep thinking about their weaknesses and their higher level of anxiety in comparison to the others' level, they are bound to remain anxious, what may have a negative effect on their performance. According to Bailey (1983) anxiety is particularly important because of the related trait of competitiveness which is often the driving force for worry. As Brown (1994) put it, facilitative anxiety and competitiveness are closely related since they lead to success (Bailey 1983, as cited in Oxford, 1999a).

Forthly, test-taking situation is one of the specific situations which cause more anxiety for students (Aida, 1994; David, 2008). In Ohata' (2005) investigation, the results showed that the subjects have a fear of taking tests, especially tests with oral performance because they experience fear and worry about the consequences of getting a bad grade. Furthermore, it was assumed that factors as perceptions of test validity, time limit, test technique, test format, length, testing environment and clarity of test instructions influence the students 'reactions to tests (Young, 1999).

Finally, other factors like learners' capacity, task difficulty, the fear of getting bad grades and lack of preparation for a test make learners worried. This is why learners with high levels of anxiety have less control of attention (Sarason, 1980). According to Chastain (1975), low test anxiety was highly related to greater success.

2. 7. The Effect of Foreign Language Anxiety on the Four Skills

Language anxiety is likely to affect learners during the process of learning. Thereby, it interferes within and during the acquisition of the four skills. Spolsky (1989) determined that anxious learners write, speak, and participate less than relaxed learners in language classes.

-On Listening

A number of learners suffer from anxiety when listening to the foreign language. In Krashen' opinion (1982), anxiety formed an 'affective filter' that interfered with an individual's capacity to receive and process oral messages successfully (Krashen, 1980, cited in young, 1991).

It was reported in a study conducted by Horwitz et al (1986) that many students were anxious when listening to the L2, and found difficulties in setting apart the sounds and structures of a target language message. One student in his study said that he heard "only a loud buzz" when his instructor was speaking. Other anxious students had problems with comprehending the content of L2 messages and with understanding their teachers in the "extended target language utterances" (p. 126).

Vogely (1998) found that speed delivery, bad diction, variety of accents and teachers who speak too quietly are sources of arousal of listening comprehension anxiety in students within classroom activities. Additionally, the complex nature of exercises, unknown vocabulary difficult syntax and unfamiliar topics can create listening comprehension anxiety. Moreover learners may also feel anxious when they do not know what is required of them in the listening activity or why. Some students claimed that they needed the help of some visual aids to manage with the listening task. Students reported feeling anxious if they could only listen to texts once or twice before having to respond.

- On Speaking

The speaking skill is extremely anxiety-provoking to many language students more than the other skills. Horwitz et al (1986) noted that students who are apprehensive about making mistakes in front of others “seem to feel constantly tested and they perceive every correction as a failure” (p.130). Besides, anxious students react in different ways when speaking or when they are asked to speak by the teacher in the foreign language; they suffer of distortion of sounds, inability to reproduce the intonation and rhythm of the language, ‘freezing up’ when called on to perform, and forgetting words or phrases just learned or simply refusing to speak and remaining silent” (Young, 1991, p. 430).

In addition, classroom activities and the learning/teaching environment seem to have a direct impact on students’ anxiety and on their performance in speaking. The majority of Young’s (1990) learners of Spanish indicated that they felt less uncomfortable in speaking activities when they came to class prepared. anxiety can hinder the development of the speaking skills and influence the students’ performance when speaking a foreign language. Daly (1991, as cited in Von Worde, 2003) compared fear of speaking in front of others to other phobias. She stated that this fear exceeded fear of snakes, elevators, and heights (p. 3).

- On Reading

Students who had higher levels of foreign language anxiety were also more reading-

anxious. This anxiety arises in different situations. In a study conducted by Saito et al (1996, p. 213), it was found that many students, especially those who tended to translate every word when approaching a text, felt anxious when they face difficult words in the text they are reading or when they were asked to read about cultural aspects. The negative effect of FLA on the reading skill is investigated by Sellers (2000); the results showed that students suffering from greater anxiety would retrieve fewer input from a reading text, and were encountered with cognitive interference more than less anxious readers. Furthermore, they were more preoccupied by irrelevant thoughts and lacked concentration on the task, which resulted in inferior understanding of the text.

- On Writing

Some researchers have undertaken the task of looking for links between language anxiety and the writing skill. According to Cheng (2002), anxiety in L2 writing appeared to be quite strongly correlated to L2 speaking anxiety, but no statistically significant correlation was found between foreign language writing anxiety and native language writing anxiety. Language anxiety in writing in the first language did not seem to be linked to anxiety in writing in the second language; Cheng posited that the non significant low correlation between L1 and L2 writing anxiety suggested that these two anxiety constructs are different from each other.

2.8. Manifestation of Foreign Language Anxiety

SLA researchers and foreign language teachers have cleared up a number of symptoms and behaviours manifested in anxious learners. Because of the negative consequences of language anxiety, learners react negatively in different situations such as responding less effectively to language errors (Gregersen, 2003, cited in Gregersen, 2007); engaging in negative self-talk and sitting at the back of the classroom in an attempt not to be called on by the teacher, having unrealistic high performance standards (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002); freezing up in role play activities and participating infrequently. Students with a high level of debilitating anxiety are less interpretive of more concrete messages. Besides, they usually forget certain

language points during tests either written or oral. They also had difficulties in discriminating the sounds and structures of a foreign language message; they over-learn their lessons but without any improvement in grades (Horwitz, et al., 1986).

Additionally, FIA is manifested through prosodic (stress and intonation pattern) paralinguistic (non verbal) features of vocal communication and visual non-verbal cues (Harrigan et al. 2004, as cited in Grgersen, 2007). Some characteristics were figured out by Gregersen (2007) in her examination of nonverbal behaviour of anxious and non-anxious language learners. According to her, anxious learners manifested limited facial activity, including brow behaviour and smiling, maintained less eye contact with the teacher, and were more rigid and closed with their posture.

2.9. Creating a Low- anxiety Classroom

To reduce anxiety, researchers and classroom practitioners have suggested various ways. According to Young (1991), creating the right environment by developing a relaxed atmosphere for language learning is believed to be helpful for learners. By concentrating on communication rather than being distracted by worry and fear of negative evaluation, learning a second/foreign language becomes easier. Accordingly, these views and suggestions to cope with anxiety are grouped into three categories: students' strategies for coping with anxiety, creating a friendly and supportive learning environment and computer-mediated approach. These categories are discussed briefly as follow:

2.9.1. Students' Strategies to Cope with Anxiety

Dealing with anxiety is not an easy task for students. Besides making the learning context less stressful, students with high level of anxiety need help to cope with the existing anxiety. At the first place, teachers must help the students to acknowledge their feeling of anxiety and then teach them specific methods to reduce the anxiety level (Horwitz et al, 1986). When students recognise their level of anxiety and understand that it is normal to experience this feeling, teachers can have an opportunity to create an open discussion with students and to educate them

about what anxiety is, and how anxiety can affect the students, both academically and socially. In Foss and Reitzel's opinion (1988), fear and worry about learning a new language may indicate to students that they experience anxiety as many other students do, and that their teachers support them and understand their worries as a result they will feel less stressful and relaxed (as cited in Phillips, 1991).

Kondo and Yong (2004) identified 70 basic tactics that students used to reduce their anxiety. These 70 tactics were clustered into five strategy types: preparation, relaxation, positive thinking, peer seeking and resignation. Each type is explained as follows:

-Preparation

It is an attempt to control anxiety by improving learning and study strategies such as studying hard, asking questions, asking for help, reading more carefully, and creating quality summaries of notes. These strategies would likely increase the students' confidence of the academic material, thereby reducing the anxiety associated with class.

- Relaxation

It involves strategies to reduce the physical symptoms of anxiety which would include taking deep breaths, a mental focus on relaxing, and pretending to be calm.

- Positive Thinking

It is distinguished by its calming function of decreasing the problematic mental processes that cause the students' anxiety. Such examples include trying to be confident, thinking positively, imagining giving a great performance, and downplaying the importance of the task at hand.

- Peer Seeking

It involves the students' willingness to look for classmates who may have the same problems of understanding the class or appear to have problems controlling their anxiety. This tactic aids the students to realize that they are not alone in experiencing anxiety and may help

reduce the anxiety produced by comparisons.

- Resignation

Students can reduce their anxiety by giving up. Such students may stop paying attention, sleep in class, and demonstrate other typical avoidance behaviours.

2.9.2. Creating a Friendly and Supportive Learning Environment

Price (1991) found in her interviews with highly anxious language students that teachers play a significant role in either alleviating or increasing students' anxieties. One of the important steps teachers can take toward reducing anxiety levels in the classroom is to develop a relaxed atmosphere where students feel safe. Reyes and Vallone (2008) illustrated that in order to lower students' affective filters so that more language acquisition can take place, it is important for teachers to provide patience, support, and a stressfree classroom environment. Learners need to feel they are accepted and valued before they will share their ideas and take the necessary risks that accompany the language learning process.

According to Gregersen and Horwitz (2002), instructors are more helpful when they work as facilitators by helping to create a low-stressful and friendly learning environment rather than as authority figures whose main concern is to evaluate student performance and this raises the affective filter and can inhibit learning. Similarly, Young (1990) recommended that instructors create a warm environment by having a good sense of humor and displaying friendliness and patience with students. However, if humor is to be used in the classroom, it should relate to the topic at hand and should not mock or make fun of anyone in the classroom (Powell & Anderson, 1985).

Furthermore, several researchers recommended using gentle methods of error correction to avoid embarrassing students, such as modeling correct responses rather than directly pointing out errors (Phillips, 1999; Price, 1991; Worde, 2003; Young, 1992). Others recommended using communicative activities in which Error correction can take place within the context of the

conversation placing emphasis on meaning rather than correct grammatical form to minimize the anxiety and embarrassment that students may feel while speaking in class (Horwitz, et al., 1986; Phillips, 1991; Young, 1991, Ariza, 2002; Price, 1991; Young, 1992). For example, when correction is necessary, modeling can be employed by the teacher by rephrasing the students' comments in the appropriate form (Phillips, 1991). Phillips (1999) explained one strategy that, during communicative activities, the teacher can make note of students' errors and then review common mistakes with the whole class without signaling out any individual students. Similarly, Hadley suggested in her investigation with Young (1992) that teachers should let students know they are free to express themselves with mistakes without penalty and that effectively communicating a message, so, even if not grammatically accurate, they will be rewarded. Furthermore, teachers should always provide positive reinforcement and encouragement to students when possible (Price, 1991; Wong, 2009).

In terms of classroom competition, students generally get worried and pressured for comparing themselves to others. This anxiety can be reduced when students of similar levels can be grouped together and offer them appropriate materials for their level of language competence (Yan & Horwitz, 2008). Further support is given by Yan and Horwitz (2008), they preferred class activities that encourage cooperation rather than competition. Also, adequate time for pair or group discussion could be allowed before oral responses are required. Oxford (1994) found that cooperative learning can not only lower anxiety in the language classroom, but also increase learners' motivation.

Additionally, Holbrook (1987) proposed a number of activities to overcome anxiety and improve presentation skills including informally questioning students concerning curricular topics about which they are knowledgeable, reading speech transcripts and listening to master (native) speakers-playing charades, and presenting speeches without eye contact such as role plays. While Wong (2009) drew attention to avoiding certain practices that cause tension for students such as pop quizzes, highly competitive activities, and requiring students to speak in

front of the class without advance preparation. These kinds of activities force students to be competitive and make individual differences in performance noticeable. Instead, teachers can give enough time to his students to completely comprehend the work, practice it in groups then do it individually. Kitano (2001).

Furthermore, anxiety can be reduced if teachers speak more slowly and use the students' native language in order to provide comprehensible input, clarification and giving assignments in lower level classes. Besides, using familiar topics to students is believed to be interesting for increasing their motivation and engaging them in discussion. (Worde, 2003, Reyes and Vallone, 2008, Young, 1992).

2.9.3. Computer-mediated Communication Approach

It was shown in literature that computer-mediated communication (CMC) kills boredom among learners, motivates them to engage in meaningful communication in the target language and leads to effective language learning (Brown, 1994; Hanson-Smith, 2001; Meskill & Ranglova, 2000). Its focus is not on the teacher but on the learner, it makes him responsible of his own learning by controlling learning content and learning process (Fotos & Browne, 2004).

Research showed that a well-designed CMC activity can encourage students to notice and modify output content and structure, enhance motivation, reduce anxiety, foster learner autonomy, and promote cooperative learning (Beauvois, 1998; Godwin-Jones, 2003; González-Bueno, 1998; Kern, 1995). Furthermore, CMC creates, especially for those who are shy or less confident, a more relaxed language atmosphere, by reducing social-context clues such as gender, race, and status, and nonverbal cues such as facial expressions and body language, (Hanson-Smith, 2001; Sproull & Kiesler, 1991). It also gives individuals a large space where they can express their own thoughts and feeling. In contrast to traditional classroom settings, CMC learners do not have to compete with their classmates for the instructor's attention (Sproull & Kiesler, 1991). In addition, a study of Meunier (1998) found that 87% of learners reported to experience low FLA in online discussions, one of the computer-mediated communication (CMC)

methods.

Additionally, both the studies of Beauvois (1998) and Warschauer (1996) revealed that students who participated less in the oral classroom could become active contributors in the electronic setting. Teachers can implement asynchronous CMC (e.g., email exchanges) as well as synchronous CMC (e.g., chat, instant messengers) to build an anxiety-free setting, which enables learners to express themselves more openly at their own pace (Arnold, 2007). In recent years, studies (Beauvois, 1998; Dubreil, 2006; Freiermuth, 1998; Kern, 1995; Warschauer, 1996; Wright, 2003) have indicated that CMC may decrease FL communication apprehension because it can create a social and communicative space where FL learners feel less inhibited and thereby decrease tension and apprehension.

Conclusion

The existence of FLA was proved in the previous studies. The latter was showed that foreign language anxiety does not only refer to feelings of discomfort when learning a language but it can have also negative influences on the learning process and language acquisition. So, providing students with help and enough support to deal with that anxiety, will lead to more engagement in the classroom. Besides, educational settings have to strive to make foreign language learning a more pleasant experience, which in turn will increase students' interest and make it a more successful endeavour as well.

Introduction

The present chapter presents the practical part of this research work which firstly, investigates whether or not there is a significant relationship between LLS strategies and FLA among EFL Algerian university students, secondly, whether there is a significant relationship between categories of LLS strategies and thirdly, whether there is a significant difference between high and low anxious students in terms of their use of LLS. The chapter begins with an overview of the research design and methodology used to carry the study. Then, it switches to define the population, the sample and the fundamental research tools used to collect data. Finally, a detailed description and analysis of the students' questionnaires are presented together with the discussion of the main findings.

3.1. Research Design and Methodology

Two approaches were used to conduct this research work; quantitative and qualitative. The design of this study is *ex post facto* since the target participants were later purposely assigned to two groups (highly anxious and low anxious groups). As such, the researcher has no control over what has already happened to the participants. The approach, which is opted for when analyzing data, is descriptive, in which a correlation method is used. As Hatch and Farhady (1981) claimed,

“Correlational designs are the most commonly used subsets of *ex post facto* design. In correlational designs, a group of students may give data on two variables, the distinction between independent and dependent variable is not well defined. It is arbitrary to call one or the other the independent variable. However, it is usually the case that the investigator may be more concerned with one than the other and may therefore label the first the independent variable and the second the dependent variable” (p.27).

Accordingly, in this study foreign language anxiety is taken as an independent variable and language learning strategies as a dependent one.

3.2. Population and Sampling

The sample of interest when conducting this research consists of **100** third year students of English as a foreign language at the University of Mohammed Seddik-Ben Yehia, Jijel, and representing **34.60** of the whole population which estimated at **289** students. This sample is selected randomly based on the fact that third year students spent more years learning English; they have experienced and been encountered to different uncomfortable situations where they had to deal with different levels of anxiety and as a result, they resorted to LLS use .

3.3. Data Collection

3.3.1. Procedure and Setting

The present study was carried out during the second semester of the academic year **2017/2018**. It started by administering two questionnaires to EFL students at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University – Jijel. The students were asked to indicate their level of FLA and their extent of LLS use. Based on the students' total scores, they are classified into high and low anxiety groups. To investigate the difference between both groups, descriptive statistics was used. Accordingly, to measure the significance of the statistical difference between means of both groups, the independent samples t-test is employed. Additionally, a correlation analysis is conducted to test, statistically, the possible significant relationship between the two variables. In the last part of the SILL, students were asked to respond to four -open ended questions to shed light on their perceptions about the relationship between the two variables.

3.3.2. Research Instruments

3.3.2.1. Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were administered to 100 third year students at Mohammed Saddik Ben Yahia University – Jijel. The first questionnaire is the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and the second one is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

3.3.2.1.1. Description of the Questionnaires

a) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

The FLCAS was created by Horwitz (1986, p.559) “to assess the specific anxiety experienced by students in the foreign language classroom. It is a self-report measure that assesses the degree of anxiety”. It is a 5-point Likert scale consisting of 33 items, of which eight items were for communication apprehension (1,9,14,18,24,27,29,32); nine items for fear of negative evaluation (3,7,13,15,20,23,25,31, 33); five items for test anxiety (2,8,10,19,21). As for the remaining 11 items (4, 5,6,11,12,16,17,22,26,28, 30), they were put in a group named anxiety of English classes.

In this research work, the scale was adapted and modified to a 4- point scale in order to serve the context of the study; 21 items were selected, of which eight items were for communication apprehension(1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8); six items for fear of negative (9,10,11,12,13,14) and seven items test anxiety (15,16,17,18,19,20,21). For each item, the students were required to respond by either strongly agree (4pts), agree (3pts), disagree (2pts) or strongly disagree (1pt). (See Appendix A) The score range of this scale is from 21 to 84. The higher the total anxiety scores are, the more anxious the student is.

b) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)**-Part A****-Measuring the extent of Use of Language Learning Strategies**

The SILL was designed, as an instrument for assessing the frequency of language learning strategies use by students at the defense language institute, Foreign Language Center in Monterrey, California. The revised two versions of the SILL appeared in Oxford's (1990) appendices. One of these instruments consisted of 80 items and the other one had 50 items. The former is used for learners whose native language is English while the latter is most appropriate for learners of English as a second or foreign language. The 50-item questionnaire is a 5-point Likert scale which includes six categories of LLS: Memory strategies, cognitive

strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

In this study, this questionnaire as well was adapted to suit the sample and the context of the study. It consists of two parts; the first part is made up of 25 items, of which four items were for memory strategies(1, 2, 3, 4),six were for cognitive strategies(5,6,7,8,9,10,11),four for compensation strategies(11,12,13,14),five for metacognitive strategies(15,16,17,18,19),three for affective strategies(20,21,22),and three for social strategies(23,24,25).All items were answered on a four point scale of always, usually,sometimes and never.(SeeAppendix A). A subject's endorsement in "Always" was equated with **4**, "Usually" with **3**, "Sometimes" with **2**, and "Never" was equated with **1**. The score range of this scale is from 25 to 100. The higher the total LLS scores is, the higher user of LLS the student is. The second part, however, consists of three open-ended questions that would backup the students' understanding and reflect their perceptions of both LLA and LLS.

3.3.2.1.2. Administration of the Questionnaire

After being instructed on how to fill in the questionnaires, the SILL and the FLCAS were attached to each other and then administered directly to 100 third year EFL students. Twenty (20) questionnaires were completed by some students at home while 80 questionnaires were completed during class time. The questionnaires were collected within 10 days.

3.4. Data Analysis

After the administration of the questionnaires, the data gathered was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. First, a descriptive analysis was applied to calculate the means (*M*) and the standard deviations (*SD*) of the students' scores on FLCAS and SILL to determine their general level and the extent to which LLS are used by all the students. Second, the mean (*M*) and standard deviation (*SD*)the students got on each item in the FLCAS were computed and analysed in terms of the level of students' anxieties (three types) and the sources of their anxiety. Third, students were classified in either a high or a low

anxiety group by a *median split procedure* based upon their total score on the FLCAS. Fifth, the independent samplest- *test* was used to look for any statistical significant differences between the means of the two mentioned groups in terms of their use of LLS. Finally, the frequency of using LLS by both groups was computed and the correlation analysis was runusing Pearson-product-moment correlation coefficient (*r*)either to cofirm or to reject the assumptions which state that there is a significant relationship between FLA and LLS, there is a statistical significant correlation between the six categories of LLS and FLA, and there is a significant difference between highly and low anxious students.

3.4.1. Descriptive Analysis

a) The Students'General Level of Anxiety

To find the general state of language anxiety among third year English university students, data were gathered from the FLCAS and described statistically using SPSS. Mean and standard deviation of the students' scores were calculated. The results are shown below in

Table 1.

Table 1

Mean and Standard Deviation of the StudentsScores on their FLCAS

N	Median	Min	Max	M	S.D
100	52.5	21	84	65.23	23.3

Based on the total scores of 100 students on their FLCAS which were ranging from minimum **21** to maximum **84**, the median point was **52.5**. Consequently, if the mean is equal or above the median point, the level of anxiety falls in a higher range and if the mean is lower than the median point, the level of anxiety falls in a low range. In the present study, as it is shown in **Table1**, the scores mean was higher than the median point ($M=65.23$, $S.D=23.3$) which means that third year EFL students experience a high level of anxiety.

b) The Students' General Extent of Use of Language Learning Strategies

To measure the extent to which LLS were used by students, the mean and the standard deviation scores of the subjects on the SILL are calculated. The results are presented in **Table 2**.

Table 2

Mean and Standard Deviation of Students' scores on their SILL

N	Min	Median	Max	M	S.D
100	25	62.5	100	45.22	20.27

Table 2 indicates that the students' mean scores on the SILL was ($M=45.22$, $S.D=20.27$). The score range of this scale is from minimum 25 to maximum 62.5 out of 100 points. This suggested that the mean was lower than the median point ($Median=62.5$), which means that the students' extent of use of LLS fell in a low range of use.

c) Analysis of the Students' Level of Anxiety in each item of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale.

After analyzing the frequency of the students' responses on each item, the mean and the standard deviation of each item on which students answered were calculated. Visual inspection of the means revealed that the level of anxiety of the target students was very high in seven items out of 21 items. The results are shown in **Table 3**.

Table 3*Mean and Standard Deviation of each Item in FLCAS*

Items	M	S.D
1. I worry about making mistakes when speaking English in class.	2.70	.99
2. I never feel quite sure of myself while I am speaking English.	2.60	1.04
3. I tremble when knowing that I would be called on to speak English.	2.70	1.05
4. I feel less confident when communicating with fluent English speakers.	2.65	1.10
5. I start to panic when I have to speak English without any preparation.	2.74	1.01
6. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is	2.79	1.07
7. It embarrasses me to volunteer first to speak English in class.	2.79	1.08
8. I find it hard to look the audience in the eye while speaking English.	2.75	1.04
9. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	2.60	0.88
10. I usually expect that others will evaluate me negatively when I speak.	2.56	1.05
11. I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	2.78	1.10
12. I rarely worry about what kind of impression I am making on people.	2.51	1.07
13. I often worry that I will say or do the wrong things in class.	2.50	.98
14. I feel afraid if the other students will notice my nervousness.	2.64	.99
15. I worry while I am taking a test.	<u>3.50</u>	1.22
16. While taking a test, I always think that my classmates are better than I am.	<u>3.02</u>	1.12
17. When I know that I will take a test, I do not feel confident and relaxed.	<u>3.01</u>	1.09
18. I feel worried when I study for a test.	<u>2.99</u>	1.00
19. The more I work, the more confused I become.	<u>2.98</u>	1.06
20. I feel pressured by time limits during the test	<u>3.20</u>	1.10
21. Even if I am well prepared, I feel nervous during tests in my language class	<u>3.42</u>	1.20

From **Table 3**, it can be seen that the significant items where the anxiety level was very high are **item15** (Worry while taking a test; $M=3.50, S.D=1.22$), **item21** (Feeling nervous during tests even with preparation; $M=3.42, S.D=1.20$), **item20** (Feeling pressured by time limits during test; $M=3.20, S.D=1.10$), **item16** (Thinking that other students will do better during test; $M=3.02, S.D=1.12$), **item 17** (Lack of self-confidence during tests; $M=3.01, S.D=1.09$), **item 18** (Worry when revising for tests; $M=2.99, S.D=1$), **item19** (Worry about the consequences of failing English class; $M=2.98, S.D=1.06$). This suggests that the students suffer highly from test anxiety even with previous preparation, either during the test or even when revising for it. They also usually feel pressured by time limits and think that the others will do better than them.

Regarding **item 6** (getting upset when being unable to understand what the teacher is saying), **item 7** (Being embarrassed to volunteer first to speak English in class), **item 8** (Finding it hard to look at the audience in the eye while), **item5** (Starting to panic when I have to speak English without any preparation speaking English), **item3** (Trembling when knowing that I would be called on to speak English), **item1** (Worry about making mistakes when speaking English in class), **item4** (I feel less confident when communicating with fluent English speakers and **item2** (Never feeling self-confident while speaking English), they received lower means compared to the previous ones. The means range was $M=2.60 - 2.70$, ($S.D=1.04 - 1.08$). This means that even students' level of anxiety when communicating was also high but lower than anxiety perceived from tests.

Concerning **item11** (Feeling afraid that other students will laugh when speaking English), **item2** (feeling that the other students speak English better), **item 14** (Feeling afraid if the other students will notice my nervousness), **item 10** (expecting negative evaluation when speaking), **Item 12**, (worry about what kind of impression made on people) and **item 13** (worry of telling or doing the wrong things in class), they recorded lower scores in comparison to others. The means range was (from $M= 2.50$ to $2.78, S.D=.88$ to 1.10). This suggests that, students

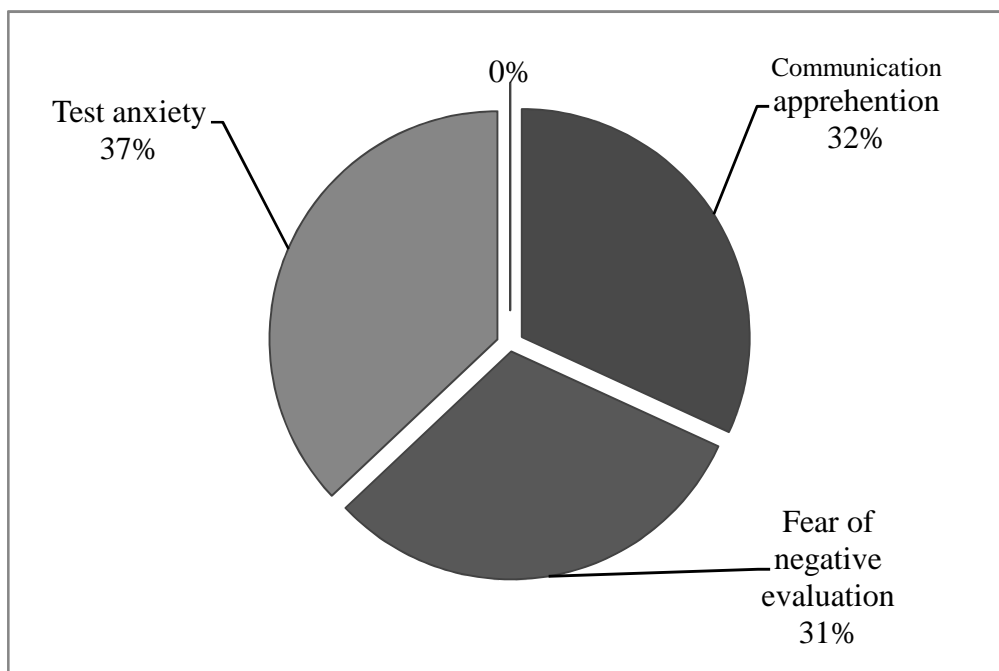
perceived a lower level of anxiety when they received negative evaluation from others in comparison to other situations. At this point, among the other items included is fear of negative evaluation, the students have a serious fear of being laughed by others or noticed as being nervous. ($M=2.78, S.D=1.10/M=2.64, S.D=.99$)

In sum, the participants reported the highest anxiety level in tests ($M=3.13, S.D=1.20$) followed by communication apprehension ($M=2.69, S.D=1.07$) and fear of negative evaluation ($M=2.63, S.D=1.06$). This may suggest that the reason behind this is the concern to achieve higher grades in tests.

This study then, can categorize four factors which may most easily provoke the students' FLA. These are: (1) test anxiety, (2) oral work and communication in English class, (2) lack of self-confidence, and (3) fear of negative evaluation (See figure 3).

Figure 3

Level of Anxiety in the three Components of Foreign Language Anxiety



d) Analysis of the Students' Frequency of Use on each Item of Strategy Inventory For Language Learning

After analyzing the frequency of **100** students' responses on each item of LLS, the mean and the standard deviation of each item on which students answered were calculated. Visual inspection of the means revealed that the extent of using LLS by third year students was very high in seven items out of the 25 items. The results are shown below in **Table 4**.

Table 4*Means and Standard Deviations of Items on Strategy Inventory for Language Learning*

Items	M	S.D
1. I think of the relationship between what I have already known and new things I learn in English.	2.58	1.04
2. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page or on the board.	2.58	1.01
3. I over-learn my lessons repeatedly to memorise them.	2.53	1.04
4. I use diagrams and mind maps to help me remember long and difficult lessons.	2.53	1.07
5. I try to talk like native English speakers.	2.45	.99
6. I practise the sounds of English repeatedly.	2.55	1.01
7. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English.	2.40	.98
8. I read for pleasure in English.	2.25	.78
9. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	2.45	1.02
10. I first skim an English passage then go back and read it carefully.	2.45	1.03
11. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English,I use English gestures.	2.00	.70
12. I read English without looking up every new word.	2.00	.70
13. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing	2.10	1.01
14. To understand unfamiliar English words, I try to guess their meaning from the context.	2.20	1.03
15. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	2.72	1.11
16. I make my schedule so to have enough time to study English.	2.50	1.07
17. I look for people I can talk to in English.	2.66	1.10
18. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	2.55	1.05

19. I prepare for speaking tasks in advance.	2.58	1.05
20. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making mistakes.	2.20	.99
21. I write down my feelings/ desires/ fears in a language learning diary.	2.25	.99
22. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	2.26	0.99
23. I practice English with other students	2.05	0.88
24. I ask for help from my teacher or my classmates.	2.02	0.85
25. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers	2.00	0.85

As it can be noticed from **Table 4**, a set of seven strategies was reported to be highly used by students in comparison to the other strategies; **item 15** (Trying to find out how to be a better learner of English; $M=2.72, S.D=1.11$), **item 17** (Looking for people I can talk to in English, $M=2.66, S.D=1.10$), **item 19** (Preparing for speaking tasks in advance $M=2.58, S.D=1.05$) **item 1** (Thinking of the relationship between what I have already known and new things I learn in English, $M=2.58, S.D=1.04$), **item 2** (Remembering new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page or on the board, $M=2.58, S.D=1.01$), **item 18** (Looking for opportunities to read as much as possible in English, $M=2.55, S.D=1.05$), **item 4** (Using diagrams and mind maps to help me remember long and difficult lessons, $M=2.53, S.D=1.07$) and **item 3** (Over learning lessons repeatedly, $M=2.53, S.D=1.04$). These strategies derive from two different sub-groups of the SILL, metacognitive strategies (**15, 17, 19**) and memory strategies (**1, 2, 3, 4**). The mean score range was (from **2.55 to 2.77**).

As for **item 6** (practising the sounds of English repeatedly), **item 8** (reading for pleasure in English), **item 9** (Writing notes, messages, letters, or reports in English), **item 10** (skimming first an English passage then go back and read it carefully), **item 7** (watching English language TV shows spoken in English and **item 5** (trying to talk like native English speakers), they stem from

cognitive strategies. The items means scores range from **2.25 to 2.55**. This suggests that they are used less frequently than metacognitive and memory strategies.

However, **item 22** (Talking to someone else about how I feel when learning English), **item 21** (Writing down my feelings /desires/fears in a language learning diary) and **item 20** (Encouraging myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making mistakes) are grouped under affective strategies. They received a mean score range from **(2.20 to 2.26)**. This means that these students use them less frequently than metacognitive, memory and cognitive strategies.

For **item 14** (Trying to guess meaning of unfamiliar English words from the context in order to understand them), **item 13** (If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing), **item 12** (Reading English without looking up every new word), and **item 11** (Using English gestures when missing words during a conversation in English), they stem from compensation strategies, the scores means range was from **2 to 2.20**. This indicates that the students do not use these strategies as frequently as they use other sets of strategies.

The last three items; **item 23** (Practicing English with other students), **item 24** (Asking for help from teacher or classmates) and **item 25** (Trying to learn about the culture of English speakers), which they belong to social strategies, are said to be the least frequent use of LLS.

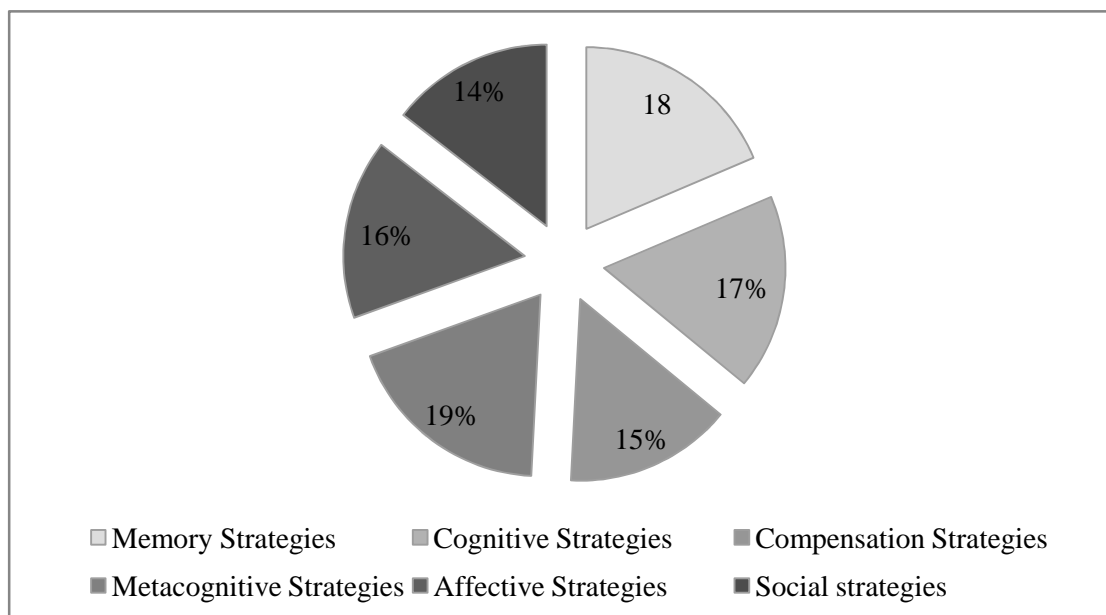
All in all, metacognitive strategies and memory strategies ($M=2.60$, $SD=1.20$ and $M=2.59$, $S.D=1.04$ respectively) are highly used in comparison to other strategies. They were ranked first and second respectively. Cognitive strategies were on the third rank ($M=2.42$, $S.D=.96$) while affective strategies were ranked fourth with a mean of ($M=2.23$, $S.D=.99$). The strategies which were bottom ranked were compensation and social strategies respectively with means of ($M=2.07$, $S.D=0.86$ and $M=2.02$, $S.D=.86$).

The frequent use of metacognitive strategies can be explained by the students' desire to become more responsible for their learning. Memory strategies were also reported to be used most frequently since they may help and support students when having tests especially that they have a higher level of test anxiety. Thus, using diagrams, making associations, focusing on the location

of the information on the page or on the board can support them widely. While in terms of affective, compensation and social strategies, they were avoided by the students what may explain their higher level of anxiety.

Figure 4

Extent of use of language learning strategies



e) Classification of Students in Anxiety Groups

- Median Split Procedure

To place students in the corresponding anxiety group, ordinal measurement is used. Assigned numbers with arithmetic value are used from 1 to 4 to refer to the four points given to the scale; strongly agree refers to 4, agree refers to 3, disagree refers to 2, and strongly disagree refers to 1. Students rated 4 are ordered higher than those with 3 and those rated 3 are ordered higher than those with 2 and so on. Based on this type of measurement, and since the FLCAS consists of 21, the score range is from 21 to 84. In order to classify the subjects into either a high or a low anxiety group, the median split procedure was used in which the median point is taken into account. To find this point, total scores were classified in an ascending order then the average was calculated. It was found that the median score of anxiety for this sample is 52.5. Therefore, students with 52.5 and above are considered as highly anxious and those with scores lower than 52.5 are considered a low level of anxiety.

Table 5*Students' Anxiety Level in English*

Levels of anxiety	N	Percentage	Total Scores
High anxiety group	56	56%	55-72
Low anxiety group	44	44%	33-51

Table 5 shows that **56** students representing **56%** of the whole sample felt highly anxious with a score ranging from **55 to 72**, and **44** students representing **44%** of the whole sample belong to low anxiety level group with a score ranging from **33 to 51**. This means that the number of highly anxious students of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia exceeds the number of low anxious students.

e) Statistical Difference between High and Low Anxiety Students in terms of their Strategy

Use

-Measuring Anxiety Levels

After classifying the subjects into either high or low anxiety group, the means and the standard deviations of each group on the FLCAS were calculated. The results are shown in **Table 6**.

Table 6*Means and Standard Deviations of High and Low Anxious Group on FLCAS*

Items	High		Low	
	M	S.D	M	S.D
1	3.53	0.57	2	.50
2	3.50	0.57	1.33	0.35
3	3.53	1.02	1.43	0.50
4	3.28	1.03	1.34	0.45
5	3.51	1.07	1.59	0.60
6	3.44	1.06	1.77	1.70
7	3.39	1	1.79	0.35
8	3.42	1	1.86	0.60
9	3.17	0.99	1.75	0.50
10	3.12	0.99	1.63	0.35
11	3.44	1.09	1.72	0.19
12	3.30	1.06	1.72	0.65
13	3.25	1.02	1.65	0.67
14	3.25	1	1.52	0.62
15	3.35	1	1.68	1.58
16	3.64	1.12	1.22	0.50
17	3.64	1.10	1.20	0.35
18	3.48	1.12	1.56	0.15
19	3.58	1.25	1.47	0.48
20	3.62	1.15	1.50	0.89
21	3.60	1.10	1.97	0.99
Total	72.04	21.31	33.7	12.97

As it can be noticed from data presented in Table.8, the high anxious group had a mean of **72.04** and a standard deviation of **21.31** on their FLCAS, while low anxious group recorded a mean of **33.7** and a standard deviation of **12.97**.

- **Strategy Use Frequency by High and Low anxious Students**

After classifying the subjects into either high or low anxiety group, the mean and the standard

High	Low
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deviation of each group on the SILL were calculated. The results are shown in **Table 7**.

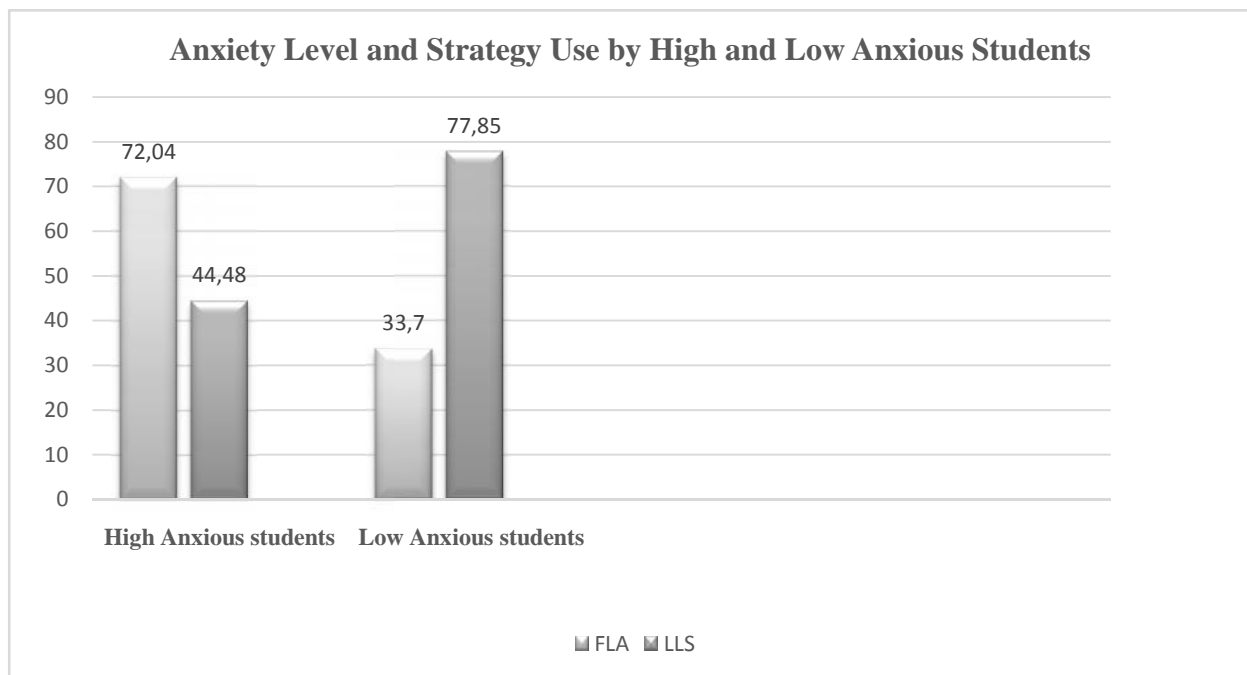
Table 7

Mean and Standard Deviation of High and Low Anxious Groups on SILL

	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>S.D</u>
1	1.82	0.81	3.09	1.26
2	1.87	0.81	3.08	1.23
3	1.94	0.96	2.86	1.26
4	2.01	0.94	2.93	1.24
5	1.37	0.61	3.38	1.27
6	1.57	0.73	3.25	1.33
7	1.51	0.76	3.25	1.25
8	1.44	0.73	3.31	1.27
9	1.55	0.82	3.27	1.26
10	1.64	0.84	3.15	1.23
11	1.67	0.57	2.90	1.23
12	1.76	0.78	3.04	1.25
13	1.69	0.65	3.04	1.29
14	1.57	0.59	2.95	1.27
15	2.14	0.94	3.29	1.26
16	2.21	1.03	3.29	1.28
17	2.05	1.01	3.15	1.31
18	2.16	1.02	3.29	1.28
19	2.25	0.89	3.34	1.29
20	1.92	0.91	3.18	1.29
21	2.08	0.87	3.06	1.31
22	1.96	0.85	3.09	1.30
23	1.39	0.62	2.90	1.32
24	1.60	1.41	2.95	1.27
25	1.32	0.47	2.86	1.30
Total	44.88	20.62	77.85	31.94

Table 7 indicates that the highly anxious group had a mean of **44.88** and a standard deviation of **20.62**, while the low anxious group recorded a mean of **77.85** and a standard deviation of **31.94** on their SILL. Those highly anxious students who had a mean of **72.04** and a standard deviation of **21.31** on their FLCAS reported using less strategies than low anxious students who had a mean of **33.7** and a standard deviation of **12.97** on their FLCAS (See figure 5).

Figure 5.

Anxiety level and strategy use by high and low anxious students

- **The Independent –samplet.Test**

To investigate the statistical significance difference between the two groups on their SILL, the independent sample *t.test* was used. **The Independent –Samples t.test**, also called the **unpaired t-test** compares the means of two independent groups in order to determine whether there is statistical evidence that the associated population means are significantly different. To calculate the *t* value, it is important to clarify the different steps one goes through (See appendix C). The results are shown in **Table 8**.

Table 8.

Table 8 indicates that low anxiety group made use of strategies more frequently than high anxiety group. As it is shown, mean strategy use within each strategy category is higher for low anxiety students compared with that of high-anxiety students. The observed *t-value* in each category is greater than the tabulated T -value (4.96 1, 98, 8.24 1.98, 6.66 1.98, 4.85 1.98 5.02 1.98, 6.78 1.98) which suggests that the results are statistically significant. Given that the

observed T-value is greater than the critical value, the study's assumption stating that there is a significant difference between high and low anxious students in terms of their use of language learning strategies is confirmed.

T-test in each Strategy Category Used by High and Low Anxiety Groups

LLS	High-Anxiety		Low-Anxiety		T-value	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Memory	7.64		3.52	11.91	4.99	4.96
Cognitive	9.44	4.49	19.61		7.61	8.24
Compensation	6.69	2.59	11.93		5.04	6.66
Metacognitive	10.81	4.89	16.36		6.42	4.85
Affective	5.96	2.63	9.33		3.90	5.02
Social	4.31	2.5	8.71		3.89	6.78

(2-Tailed significance)

*p .05, **p .01***P .001, ****p .0001

It should be restated that a standard of **P .05** was used to determine the statistical significance. *t* is the most widely used in social research. To evaluate the obtained *t value*, it is necessary to use the *t-distribution* table. The degree of freedom (**df**) and the alpha level (**p**) must also be known. To obtain the degree of freedom, the following formula must be used ($df=N_1+N_2-2$), in which **N1** refers to high anxiety group and **N2** refers to low anxiety. Thus, the degree of freedom in the present study is ($56+44-2=98$). At **98** degrees of freedom and **.05** level of significance, the tabulated *t value* which corresponds to a 2-tailed test is **1, 98**.

f) Usage of Strategy Categories

-High-Anxiety group

To investigate the frequency of strategy use by high anxious students, descriptive statistics is used to calculate the mean strategy use in the six strategy categories by high anxious students.

Table 9

Mean Strategy Use in Six Strategy Categories by High-Anxiety Students

Strategy Category	M	SD	Order of usage
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Memory	1.98	0.88	2
Cognitive	1.91	0.74	3
Compensation	1.67	0.64	4
Metacognitive	2.16	0.97	1
Affective	1.57	0.87	5
Social	1.43	0.83	6

Table. 9 shows that all means of the six strategy categories fall within a range from **1.98 to 2.16** which is low based on the median point (*Median point=2.5*). The highest frequency belongs to that of metacognitive strategies ($M=2.16, SD=.97$) followed by memory strategies ($M=1.98, SD=0.88$), cognitive strategies ($M=1.91, S.D=0.74$), compensation strategies ($M=1.67, S.D.=0.64$), while the lowest frequency belongs to that of affective strategies ($M=1.57, S.D=0.87$) and social strategies ($M=1.43, S.D=0.83$).

- Low-anxiety Group

To determine the frequency of strategy use, the mean and the standard deviation in six strategy categories used by low anxious students were calculated.

Table 10

Mean of Strategy Use in Six Strategy Categories by Low-Anxiety Students

Strategy Category	M	S.D	Order of usage
Memory	2.98	1.095	
Cognitive	3.26	1.262	
Compensation	2.99	1.084	

Metacognitive	3.27	1.28
Affective	3.11	1.13
Social	2.90	0.99

As it is shown in **Table 10**, all means of the six strategy categories fall within the range of **2.90** to **3.26**, which is considered as a high range of use based on the median point ($Medianpoint=2.5$). The highest frequency belongs to that of metacognitive strategies ($M=3.27, S.D=1.28$), followed by cognitive strategies ($M=3.26, S.D=1.26$), affective strategies ($M=3.11, S.D=1.1$), compensation strategies ($M=2.98, S.D.=1.08$), memory strategies ($M=2.98, S.D=1.09$) and social strategies at the end ($M=2.90, S.D=0.99$).

To sum up, among the six categories of SILL, **metacognitive strategies** were found to be the most frequently used by low-anxiety and high-anxiety groups. The lowest frequency was equal for both groups as well; the use of **social strategies**. The second most frequently used strategies by high anxious group were **memory** strategies, whereas for low anxious students, they were **cognitive** strategies. Besides, **compensation** strategies received the fourth rank which is the same order in both groups. While in terms of **affective** strategies, low anxious group reported using them more frequently than the other group. They received the third and the fifth ranks respectively. This suggests that, the low use of **social** strategies by both groups may lead to an increase in students level of anxiety. This high level of anxiety among the students at university of Mohammed Seddik Ben-yehia may not overcome unless they cooperate with others, ask for help from teachers and peers, learn about the culture of native speakers and so on. Furthermore, affective strategies may be the key for high anxious group to deal with their anxiety. Positive thinking, exchanging negative feelings with others, writing down diaries in which feelings, desires and fears are expressed may help the students to deal with FLA. At this point, it is not that much difficult to use such strategies, students need just to raise their level of awareness towards those strategies.

3.4.2. Correlation Analysis

a) Foreign Language Learning Strategies and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

To investigate the relationship between the FLCAS and SILL, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was run. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (PPMCC) or the bivariate correlation is a measure of the linear correlation between two variables X and Y . It has a value between $+1$ and -1 , where 1 is total positive linear correlation, 0 is no linear correlation, and -1 is total negative linear correlation.

Table 11.

Correlation between Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and Language Learning

Strategies Use

		SILL	FLCAS
	Pearson Correlation	1	-,966**
SILL	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	100	100
	Pearson Correlation	-,966**	1
FLCAS	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	100	100

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The findings in **Table.11** demonstrates that foreign language anxiety correlates negatively and significantly with the extent of strategy use ($r=-.96, p 0.01, n=100$). This supports an inverse relationship between foreign language anxiety and the extent of strategy use. In other words, students with high levels of anxiety tended to use strategies less frequently than students with low levels of anxiety and students with low levels of anxiety tend to use strategies more frequently than the others.

To investigate the relationship between different categories of LLS and the level of foreign language classroom anxiety, another correlation analysis was calculated. The results are shown in **Table. 12.**

Table 12

Pearson Correlation between Categories of Language learning strategies and Foreign Language Anxiety

As it is shown in **Table 12**, there is a negative and significant correlation between different categories of LLS and English foreign language anxiety. The highest significant correlation belongs to that of cognitive strategies and FLCAS ($r=-0.94^{**}$, $p<.01$, $n=100$). The lowest correlation was found between **memory** strategies and FLA ($r=-0.82^{**}$). Also, **affective**

		FLCAS	Memory strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Compensation Strategies	Metacognitive Strategies	Affective Strategies	Social Strategies
FLCAS	Pearson Correlation	1	-.826 ^{**}	-.947 ^{**}	-.910 ^{**}	-.900 ^{**}	-.839 ^{**}	-.874 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Memory Strategies	Pearson Correlation	-.826 ^{**}	1	.797 ^{**}	.786 ^{**}	.800 ^{**}	.721 ^{**}	.731 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Cognitive Strategies	Pearson Correlation	-.947 ^{**}	.797 ^{**}	1	.897 ^{**}	.877 ^{**}	.835 ^{**}	.843 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Compensation Strategies	Pearson Correlation	-.910 ^{**}	.786 ^{**}	.897 ^{**}	1	.890 ^{**}	.794 ^{**}	.837 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Metacognitive Strategies	Pearson Correlation	-.900 ^{**}	.800 ^{**}	.877 ^{**}	.890 ^{**}	1	.782 ^{**}	.814 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Affective Strategies	Pearson Correlation	-.839 ^{**}	.721 ^{**}	.835 ^{**}	.794 ^{**}	.782 ^{**}	1	.755 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Social Strategies	Pearson Correlation	-.874 ^{**}	.731 ^{**}	.843 ^{**}	.837 ^{**}	.814 ^{**}	.755 ^{**}	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

strategies correlates negatively with FLA with approximately the same coefficient as memory strategies ($r=0.83^{**}$). **Compensation** and **metacognitive strategies** approximately and respectively have the same correlation with FLA. ($r=-0.91^{**}$, -0.90^{**}). In addition, there was a statistically significant correlation between **social** strategies and FLA ($r=-0.87^{**}$).

To sum up, even when the correlation coefficient differs from one category to another, there is a significant negative correlation between FLA and the six categories of LLS. In other words there is an inverse relationship between FLA and the different categories of LLS, i.e., the more anxious the student, the less frequently he uses the six categories and vice versa.

Part B:-Opinions and Suggestions

This section consists of open-ended questions regarding the relationship between FLA and LLS. The first question sought to provide the students' perspectives on the major reasons of feeling anxious. In the second question, students were asked to determine how their level anxiety is manifested, whereas in the third question, students were required to mention other strategies they use to cope with FLA.

Q1. In which situation do you feel anxious?

Students reported that the main situations in which they feel more anxious are when:

- 1- Taking a test, with or without preparation.
- 2- Speaking in front of the class without preparation in advance.
- 3- Communicating with others in English.

Q2. What makes you feel anxious in class?

As far as this question is concerned, students reported different answers as such:

- 1 - Fear of looking incompetent.
- 2 - Worry of making mistakes.
- 3 - Worry of being laughed by other students.
- 4 - Worry of being unable to understand the teacher' questions.
- 5- Worry of pronouncing inaccurately.
- 6- Worry of being negatively evaluated either by the teacher or by the student.
- 7- Negative self-assessment; thinking that whatever his /her answer is, it is not worth mentioning compared to his/her classmates answers.
- 8- Worry of looking weird or funny because of the accent or the pronunciation.

Q3. What changes can be noticed when you are anxious?

In terms of this question, they reported the following changes and noticeable signs either in their body or behaviour: "I forget whatever I know", "I speak with a low voice", "I get red", "My hands shake", "I want to end up my speech very quickly", "I get confused"...

Q4. What other language learning strategies do you use to cope with in FLA?

As for this question, a distinction was made between low anxious students and high anxious ones. On the one hand, low anxious students provided the following answers:

1- They use compensation strategies to cope with anxiety as perceived when having an oral presentation. For instance, they fill gaps they have on their linguistics knowledge with supplementary knowledge or translation to the mother tongue; one of the students stated "*I sometimes switch into Arabic when I lack the vocabulary to express myself by asking my teacher how we say such a word in English*".

2- They use cognitive strategies that help them to retrieve information and fill in the gaps they lack in linguistic knowledge. One student of them stated "*When I have to prepare a conversation; I practice the conversation several times, then, I memorize the pronunciation and the grammar, so that I finally can repeat the conversation fluently*". Further, they use repetition of what they hear several times to enhance their listening skills. They claim that they listen to English songs and watch English TV shows to improve their pronunciation and enrich their vocabulary as well. One student said: "*I listen repeatedly to native speakers. When I don't understand a word, I go back and listen again until I get its meaning and accurate pronunciation*".

3- They use memory strategies such as associating the new information with the information they already have internalized.

4- They control their own learning by using schedules to plan their study time. Also, they always look for opportunities to get in touch with English speakers so that their speaking skills will be enhanced.

7- They do not procrastinate their activities, they revise their lessons repeatedly.

8-They usually use relaxation techniques and positive self-talk to boost their confidence especially when they are going to perform a presentation or a role play,

9- They use many other strategies including: note-taking, summarizing, wordgrouping, associating, and translating in preparing compositions. They reported that they used notetaking before writing; they designed outlines and kept in mind the expressions, words, or structures studied in class to use them for writing assignments.

High anxious students, on the other hand, provided different answers. They stated that they focus on: preparation in advance, memorization, repetition, over-learning, translation and watching TV shows. Some of them, however, reported that they are generally unaware of the strategies they use, the only strategy they usually use is memorization though reported by them as not appropriate for all the tasks at hand.

3.4.3. Discussion of the Results

The main objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between FLA and the use of LLS among third year students of English at Mohamed Seddik Ben Yehia –Jijel. So, the results were discussed to answer the following basic research questions:

1. Is there any relationship between the extent of language learning strategy use and the level of English language anxiety?
2. Do learners who have a relatively higher anxiety level differ from those who have a relatively lower anxiety level, in terms of their use of LLS?

In the present study, the results indicated the existence of different levels of FLA among 3rd year students of English as foreign language at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia. Generally speaking, the students' general level of anxiety fell in a high range based on the median point; 56% of them experience a high level of anxiety, whereas 44% of them experience a low level. As far as the categories of FLCAS, test anxiety received the higher mean followed by communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation. It can be said that the reason behind this is the concern to perform tasks perfectly in order to achieve higher grades. These

impractical demands the students put on themselves lead them to feel that anything less than perfect is a failure. Therefore, compared with other language anxieties, test anxiety is ranked on the top. This ranking leads to raising several questions about tests validity; ways and situations of administration of the tests at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, perhaps accurate future investigations in that particular area might bring answers to this pertinent finding.

Moreover, it was found that the frequency of LLS use by the target sample fell in a low range which may correlate with their high level of anxiety. Besides, the assumption stating that “there is significant difference between high and low anxiety groups in terms of their use of LLS”, was confirmed. The independent t-test which was used to compare the two groups reinforced the results obtained from their means.

Furthermore, the rank orders of strategy use were different for high and low anxiety groups. For the former, metacognitive strategies ranked first and memory strategies received the second place while for the latter, it was metacognitive strategies that ranked first and cognitive strategies that ranked second. As for high anxiety group, cognitive strategies ranked third which means that these strategies are also favoured by this group as by the other. However, in terms of memory strategies, it seems that low anxiety students do not focus on them to ease their learning. This category received the place before the last. This may lead to raise a question concerning the degree of effectiveness of these strategies in dealing with FLA in comparison with others. As far as affective strategies are concerned, high anxiety students reported using them less frequently in contrast to low anxious group. They received the fifth and the third rank respectively. Additionally, compensation and social strategies received the fourth and the sixth ranks respectively for both groups. Thus, there is a pressing need on the part of the students to be instructed and trained directly or indirectly about employing all the strategies with more consistence on the last social strategies. The reason is that, even those called low-anxiety group were named this compared with high –anxiety students. They themselves have some degree of anxiety, and effective use of social strategies would help them enjoy the process of learning

more than before. Therefore, instructors should make students aware of different forms of strategies and opportunities and tell them that strategies are not limited to just metacognitive or memory ones. Students also have to examine other strategies to become actively involved in the process of their own learning.

Further, the results corroborated previous research on language anxiety. As such, the hypothesis of the study, i.e, **there is a significant relationship between FLA and the extent of strategy use** was confirmed at .0001 level of significance ($r = -0.96, p < 0.01$). The correlation that was found between the two variables was negative. This means that the decrease of FLA leads to an increase in the use frequency of LLS and the increase in FLA results in a decrease of the use frequency of LLS. In other words, when students feel highly anxious, they use fewer strategies and when they feel less anxious they use more strategies. Further, the assumption that claims that there is a significant relationship between categories of LLS is confirmed. This suggests that the more anxious the students the less frequently they use the six categories of LLS and the low anxious they are the more frequently they use all the subsets of LLS.

In comparing their suggestions and answers to open-ended questions, it was found that highly anxious students generally fail to facilitate their learning and enhance their skills. Additionally, the strategies they use, are inappropriate for the language tasks at hand. This leads to the conclusion that it is not only the question of the most frequently used LLS but rather it is also a question of appropriateness of the strategy for a particular activity and consciousness when using it. In contrast, students with low levels of anxiety were found generally as able to control their learning better than the others and they could have the ability not only for using the strategies appropriately or consciously but rather for creating the ones that suit their interests and needs. On the other hand, since anxiety has two facets; either affecting learning positively or negatively, its importance as a psychological construct is always evident being supported by statistical data or not. Thus, rejecting any association between anxiety and the extent of strategy

use based on moderate correlation seems to ignore the human element within the anxiety/language-learning framework.

3.4.4. Limitations of the Study

Two limitations within this study are worth noting. First, not all students gave responses to all open-ended questions. This could be attributed to an unwillingness to share specific or personal information and this may contribute to the lack of validity of the two questionnaires. Therefore, some significant findings may have been lost. Second, a major limitation is that language learning strategies were not investigated directly, using classroom observation, but rather, they were based on perceptions of students (using questionnaires).

Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to investigate the relationship between LLS and FLA among university students. In this perspective, two questionnaires were analyzed, compared and contrasted. The analysis of both questionnaires showed that there is a significant relationship between FLA and the extent of use LLS, there is a significant correlation between categories of LLS and FLA and there is a significant difference between high and low anxious students in terms of their use of LLS. Accordingly, the effectiveness of using LLS to ease the process of learning was highlighted. When students most frequently use LLS they can deal with their level of anxiety. Consequently, positive results in language learning can be achieved.

General Conclusion

Throughout this research work, the main concern was the investigation of the relationship between language learning strategies and language anxiety among the Algerian university students of English as a foreign language. FLA is a complex issue which is not an isolated part of language learning. When learning a foreign language, learners experience anxiety either when communicating with others, having fear of negative evaluation or when taking a test. This feeling affects negatively the learning process and hinders student's achievement in language learning. In order to cope with foreign language anxiety, the use of LLS is very effective. In an attempt to investigate these two variables, the relationship between them was investigated based on the three hypotheses claiming that: 1) there is a significant relationship between FLA and the use of LLS and 2) There is a significant relationship between FLA and categories of LLS. 3) There is a difference between high and low anxious students in terms of their use of LLS.

Basing our research work on the above three hypotheses, three main chapters were designed. The first chapter was devoted to present a common sense of language learning strategies, main features, categories, previous research related to their use and ended up by demonstrating its effectiveness in foreign language learning. In the second chapter, a clear understanding of FLA was afforded through defining it, exhibiting its type, forms, components and presenting the correlates associated with it. At its end, ways to create a low anxiety classroom were presented. In terms of the third chapter, it encompasses the field of investigation. The information was gathered through a questionnaire on foreign language anxiety and another one on language learning strategies which are both administered to students of English as foreign language at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia. This was followed by an analysis and an interpretation of the results. The findings of the questionnaires confirm the three assumptions. The results revealed that there exists an inverse relationship between FLA and LLS as there is a significant difference between students with a high level of anxiety and those with a low level in terms of their use of LLS, i.e., low anxious students are likely to make more use of strategies than high anxious students.

3.4.5. Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings obtained from this research, it is of benefit to shed light on some pedagogical implications which would be of considerable value for teachers to employ in their teaching or for any concerned part to reduce learners' anxiety.

- Training Teachers in Strategy Instruction

Before training students on the use of LLS, it is worth mentioning that teachers themselves should be instructed in implementing strategy instruction in their everyday pedagogical practices. By taking training courses, teachers will be aware of the strategies their students need, and they will be able to expose their students to the strategies which will help them to experience a more effective learning process.

- Identification and Use of the Appropriate Strategies

Since there are different variables that can affect the choice of strategy, teachers and students need to be trained on identifying the strategies that best fit each learning style and preference through strategy instruction. Since social strategies are reported to be the least commonly used by both high and low anxious students, explicit training in this category is necessary. Students will get more opportunities to be exposed to the target language when they are trained on how to ask questions for clarification or correction, on how to cooperate with peers or more fluent speakers, on how to be empathic and on how to develop their awareness towards others' thoughts. For this purpose, encouraging collaborative activities and creating a healthy classroom environment would produce positive language learning outcomes, help students to reach their study objectives and become more independent and effective language learners.

- Teacher's Guidance and Encouragement

For successful language learning, students need to be guided and encouraged by teachers to use learning strategies, since most of them are not aware about LLS efficiency in lowering their level of anxiety and to master the language. Thus, teachers should help them to discover the joy of learning a foreign language in an anxiety free environment.

- **Motivating Learners**

Creating a motivating classroom is of great importance to English learning. It was proved in previous studies that students with higher motivation are less anxious. Thus, teachers should motivate their students by creating teaching materials and designing tasks that suit their learning styles, enhance positive attitudes towards the target language, increase their expectancy of success.

- **Creating a low Anxiety Classroom Atmosphere.**

Creating a free or a low anxiety classroom atmosphere or environment is significant in reducing anxiety. To do so, teachers can use different strategies that are believed to be useful for that purpose. Firstly, they can increase the amount of students' participation by encouraging collaborative activities. Secondly, teachers should use non-threatening ways to correct students' errors. Some non-threatening ways to correct students' errors are self-correction, peer-to-peer correction, and group correction. Thirdly, teachers should provide learners with interesting and moderate tasks and materials that cater for their interests and needs. Tasks difficulty should match their appropriate zone of proximal development. Fourthly, teachers should pay attention to individual differences. Factors such as self-efficacy, personality trait, motivation, communicative competence, proficiency, and learning habits are thought to influence students' FLA. So teachers should introduce these factors into their instruction. Besides, when facing students who tend to be more anxious or more sensitive to others' evaluation, teachers should be empathic, friendly and patient giving them more positive feedback and encouragement, and let them feel relaxed and be confident to express themselves.

- **New Evaluation Methods**

The present findings show that students are suffering from test anxiety more than communication apprehension or fear of negative evaluation. Most of them have this feeling even when they are well prepared. To help those students, teachers need to go beyond the use of

traditional tests, many other effective assessing methods are also effective, e.g., role-plays, self-reflections, observations, video productions, or portfolios.

- **Helping Students Build a Healthy Self-perceived Proficiency in English.**

Teachers should develop students' self-beliefs by fostering their successful learning experiences, giving them positive feedback, and offering opportunities for them to share their peers' successes. In addition, teachers' instruction of effective language learning strategies, such as effective self-regulatory practices, can lead to stronger self-efficacy and increased FL achievement.

3.4.6. Suggestions for Further Research

Engaging in this research has disclosed that suggestions in pursuit for future research should be of crucial importance to provide new insights and visions especially with regard to the field of foreign language learning and teaching. On the basis of the findings, beneficial suggestions and considerations are summarized in what follows:

-Future research could profit from an investigation involving classroom observation to see if learners' level of anxiety decreases when the teacher creates a comfortable atmosphere in the classroom.

- Research may be continued by making an experimental design to examine the extent to which anticipation of language learning strategies can lower learners' anxiety.

-This study can be continued by assessing how other factors both within and outside the classroom can affect Algerian language learners' use of LLS and as a result affect their language achievement.

-Variables such as learning styles, age, self-perception, risk taking, gender, learning style language background etc and their relationship with each other should be considered.

-In this research work, the learners' levels of anxiety and strategy use were analyzed providing a general idea of the negative correlation between the two at one moment in time. However, the effect of one (the extent of use of learning strategies) on the other (language

anxiety) was not measured. To learn more about this relationship, a much narrower focus is needed.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Students Questionnaires

With the aim of investigating the relationship between foreign language anxiety and the use of language learning strategies, two questionnaires are used. The first is a foreign language classroom scale and the second is a strategy inventory for language learning. I would be so grateful if you could respond to the items addressed subsequently.

Questionnaire One: Foreign Language Classroom Scale (FLCAS)

- **Instruction:** On a four point scale that includes the labels strongly agree **SA**, agree **A**, disagree **D**, and strongly disagree **SD**, please read carefully each statement and respond by ticking the response that best reflects your opinion. Please be completely open and honest in your responses.

Statements	SA	A	D	SD
1. I don't worry about making mistakes when speaking English in class.				
2. I never feel quite sure of myself while I am speaking English.				
3. I tremble when knowing that I would be called on to speak English.				
4. I feel less confident when communicating with fluent English speakers.				
5. I start to panic when I have to speak English without any preparation.				
6. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is saying.				
7. It embarrasses me to volunteer first to speak English in class.				
8. I find it hard to look the audience in the eye while speaking English.				
9. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.				
10. I usually expect that others will evaluate me negatively when I speak.				
11. I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak English.				

<p>12. I rarely worry about what kind of impression I am making on people.</p> <p>13. I often worry that I will say or do the wrong things in class.</p> <p>14. I feel afraid if the other students will notice my nervousness.</p> <p>15. I worry while I am taking a test.</p> <p>16. While taking a test, I always think that my classmates are better than I am.</p> <p>17. When I know that I will take a test, I do not feel confident and relaxed.</p> <p>18. I feel worried when I study for a test.</p> <p>19. The more I work, the more confused I become.</p> <p>20. I feel pressured by time limits during the test.</p> <p>21. Even if I am well prepared, I feel nervous during tests in my language class.</p>				
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Questionnaire Two: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

-Part A: Measuring the extent of language learning strategies use

- **Instruction:** On a four point scale that includes the scale labels: Always **A**, Usually **U**, Sometimes **S**, Never **N**, please read carefully each of the following statements and respond by ticking the response that best reflects your opinion. Please be completely open and honest in your responses.

A/

Items	A	U	S	N
<p>1. I think of the relationship between what I have already known and new things I learn in English.</p>				
<p>2. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page or on the board.</p>				
<p>3. I over-learn my lessons repeatedly to master them.</p>				

4. I use diagrams and mind maps to help me remember long and difficult lessons.
5. I try to talk like native English speakers.
6. I practise the sounds of English repeatedly.
7. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English.
8. I read for pleasure in English.
9. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
10. I first skim an English passage then go back and read it carefully.
11. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures
12. I read English without looking up every new word
13. If I can't think of an English word, I use word or a phrase that means the same thing
14. To understand unfamiliar English words, I try to guess their meaning from the context.
15. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
16. I make my schedule so to have enough time to study English.
17. I look for people I can talk to in English.
18. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
19. I prepare for speaking tasks in advance.
20. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making mistakes.
21. I write down my feelings/ desires/ fears in a language learning diary.
22. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

23. I practice English with other students.				
24. I ask for help from my teacher or my classmates.				
25. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.				

-Part B:Open-Ended Questions

Q1. In which situation do you feel anxious?

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Q2.What makes you feel anxious in class?

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Q3. What changes can be noticed when you are anxious?

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Q4.What other language learning strategies do you use to cope with in FLA?

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Thank you so much in advance for your cooperation!

APPENDIX B

Students' Scores on Foreign Language Anxiety Scale and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning.

A- Students' Scores on Foreign Language Anxiety Scale

Foreign Language Anxiety Scale																					
Ss/ Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3
2	3	3	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	2	4	4	3	3	4
3	4	3	4	4	4	2	3	4	2	3	3	4	2	2	4	4	2	4	3	4	3
4	2	4	4	3	3	4	2	3	4	2	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3
5	3	4	3	4	4	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	3	4	3	2	4	3	3	3	4
6	3	4	2	4	4	3	2	4	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	3
7	4	4	2	3	3	4	2	4	4	3	4	2	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	4
8	3	4	4	4	3	3	2	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	2	4	3	3	3	3	4
9	4	3	4	2	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	4
10	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	2	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	3
11	3	2	4	4	4	3	2	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3
12	4	3	4	3	3	4	2	4	4	2	4	3	2	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4
13	4	4	3	3	4	2	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
14	3	3	2	4	3	4	2	4	2	3	2	4	4	2	3	4	3	3	4	4	4
15	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	4	4
16	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3
17	4	3	3	4	3	3	4	4	2	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	3
18	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4
19	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	2	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3
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21	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4
22	4	3	4	2	4	3	4	2	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4
23	4	3	4	3	2	3	4	4	2	3	4	3	4	3	2	4	4	4	4	3	3
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26	4	4	4	4	3	3	2	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3
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46	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	2	3	2	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	4
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52	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3
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56	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4
57	4	3	2	1	1	3	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	1	1
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86	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	1	3	2	3	3	3	2	1	2	2	1	3	2
87	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	3	1	2	4	2	1	1	1	3	3
88	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	2	3	4	3	4	4	2	4	1	1	1	1	2	2
89	3	1	1	2	3	1	1	2	1	1	4	2	1	4	1	1	1	2	1	1	3
90	3	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	3	1	4	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2
91	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	4	1	4	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	3
92	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	4	1	3	1	2	3	2	2	2	3	1	2
93	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	2	4	3	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1
94	3	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	3	3	3	1	1	4	4	1	1	1	1	1	3
95	3	2	2	1	1	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	4	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
96	2	3	3	1	1	2	3	3	1	2	1	3	1	4	2	1	1	2	2	1	2
97	2	3	2	1	2	3	2	4	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
98	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	4	2	2	4	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	2
99	3	3	2	2	2	1	1	3	1	1	3	2	2	1	3	1	2	1	1	2	1
100	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	3	2	1	3	1	1	2	1	1	1

B-Students' Scores on Strategy for Language Learning Strategies

Ss/Items Strategy Inventory For Language Learning Strategies																									
1	2	1	4	3	2	2	2	1	4	1	2	1	2	1	3	1	3	1	2	1	1	3			
2	1	3	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	2	1	1	2	1
3	3	2	4	2	2	2	1	3	1	1	3	1	2	2	3	4	1	1	3	1	3	3	1	1	1
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APPENDIX C

The independent-Samples -T test Formula

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2} = \frac{(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2)\sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2)N_1N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1S_1^2 + N_2S_2^2)(N_1 + N_2)}}$$

Where, N_1 : **High** anxious students / N_2 : Low anxious Students / \bar{X}_1 : Mean of group one / \bar{X}_2 : Mean of low anxious students / S_1 : standard deviation of high anxious students / S_2 : Standard deviation of low anxious students.

1. Statistical Difference between The Use of Memory Strategies by High and Low Anxious Group

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2} = \frac{(\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2)\sqrt{(N_1 + N_2 - 2)N_1N_2}}{\sqrt{(N_1S_1^2 + N_2S_2^2)(N_1 + N_2)}}$$

$$\bar{x}_1: 9$$

$$\bar{x}_2: 5.80$$

$$N_1: 56$$

$$N_2: 44$$

$$S_1^2: 9.98$$

$$S_2^2: 4.45$$

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2} = 98$$

$$T_{98} = \frac{(9 - 5.80)\sqrt{(56 + 44 - 2)5644}}{\sqrt{(56S_1^2 + 44S_2^2)(56 + 44)}}$$

$$T_{98} = -5.67$$

2. Statistical Difference between The Use of Cognitive Strategies by High and Low Anxious Group

$$\bar{x}_1: 11$$

$$\bar{x}_2: 8.25$$

$$N_1: 56$$

$$N_2: 44$$

$$S_1^2: 16$$

$$S_2^2: 10.98$$

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2} = 98$$

$$T_{98} = \frac{(11 - 8.25)\sqrt{(56 + 44 - 2)5644}}{\sqrt{(56S_1^2 + 44S_2^2)(56 + 44)}}$$

$$T_{98} = 3.68$$

3. Statistical Difference between The Use of Compensation Strategies by High and Low Anxious Group

$$\bar{x}_1: 18.16$$

$$\bar{x}_2: 12.52$$

$$N_1: 56$$

$$N_2: 44$$

$$S_1^2: 32.60$$

$$S_2^2: 23.52$$

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2 = 98}$$

$$T_{98} = \frac{(18.16 - 12.52)\sqrt{(56+44-2)5644}}{\sqrt{(56S_1^2 + 44S_2^2)(56+44)}}$$

$$T_{98} = 5.23$$

4. Statistical Difference between The Use of Metacognitive Strategies by High and Low Anxious Group

$$\bar{x}_1: 11.29$$

$$\bar{x}_2: 8.10$$

$$N_1: 56$$

$$N_2: 44$$

$$S_1^2: 16$$

$$S_2^2: 9.79$$

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2 = 98}$$

$$T_{98} = \frac{(11.29 - 8.10)\sqrt{(56+44-2)5644}}{\sqrt{(56S_1^2 + 44S_2^2)(56+44)}}$$

$$T_{98} = 4.34$$

5. Statistical Difference between The Use of Affective Strategies by High and Low Anxious Group

$$\bar{x}_1: 15.5$$

$$\bar{x}_2: 10.47$$

$$N_1: 56$$

$$N_2: 44$$

$$S_1^2: 23.04$$

$$S_2^2: 17.89$$

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2 = 98}$$

$$T_{98} = \frac{(15.5 - 10.47)\sqrt{(56+44-2)5644}}{\sqrt{(56S_1^2 + 44S_2^2)(56+44)}}$$

$$T_{98} = 5.47$$

6. Statistical Difference between The Use of Social Strategies by High and Low Anxious Group

$$\bar{x}_1: 8.18$$

$$\bar{x}_2: 5.69$$

$$N_1: 56$$

$$N_2: 44$$

$$S_1^2: 8.46$$

$$S_2^2: 1.82$$

$$t_{N_1 + N_2 - 2 = 98}$$

$$T_{98} = \frac{(8.18 - 5.69)\sqrt{(56+44-2)5644}}{\sqrt{(56S_1^2 + 44S_2^2)(56+44)}}$$

$$T_{98} = 5.25$$

APPENDIX D

Table : t-test

		Critical Values for <i>t</i>				
<i>p</i>		.10	.05	.02	.01	.001
<i>df</i>	1	6.314	12.706	31.821	63.657	636.619
	2	2.920	4.303	6.965	9.925	31.598
	3	2.353	3.182	4.541	5.841	12.941
	4	2.132	2.776	3.747	4.604	8.610
	5	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032	6.859
	6	1.943	2.447	3.143	3.707	5.959
	7	1.895	2.365	2.998	3.499	5.405
	8	1.860	2.306	2.896	3.355	5.041
	9	1.833	2.262	2.821	3.250	4.781
	10	1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169	4.587
	11	1.796	2.201	2.718	3.106	4.437
	12	1.782	2.179	2.681	3.055	4.318
	13	1.771	2.160	2.650	3.012	4.221
	14	1.761	2.145	2.624	2.977	4.140
	15	1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947	4.073
	16	1.746	2.120	2.583	2.921	4.015
	17	1.740	2.110	2.567	2.898	3.965
	18	1.734	2.101	2.552	2.878	3.922
	19	1.729	2.093	2.539	2.861	3.883
	20	1.725	2.086	2.528	2.845	3.850
	21	1.721	2.080	2.518	2.831	3.819
	22	1.717	2.074	2.508	2.819	3.792
	23	1.714	2.069	2.500	2.807	3.767
	24	1.711	2.064	2.492	2.797	3.745
	25	1.708	2.060	2.485	2.787	3.725
	26	1.706	2.056	2.479	2.779	3.707
	27	1.703	2.052	2.473	2.771	3.690
	28	1.701	2.048	2.467	2.763	3.674
	29	1.699	2.045	2.462	2.756	3.659
	30	1.697	2.042	2.457	2.750	3.646
	40	1.684	2.021	2.423	2.704	3.551
	60	1.671	2.000	2.390	2.660	3.460
	120	1.658	1.980	2.358	2.617	3.373

Résumé

La présente étude a pour but d'investiguer la relation entre le degré d'utilisation des stratégies d'apprentissage des langues et l'anxiété provoquée par l'apprentissage de la langue étrangère chez les étudiants de la troisième année anglais à l'université de Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia- Jijel. Elle vise également à examiner la différence entre les participants ayant des niveaux élevés et faibles d'anxiété par rapport à leur utilisation des stratégies d'apprentissage. Cette étude est basée sur l'hypothèse suivante : Il existe une relation significative entre l'anxiété provoquée par l'apprentissage de la langue étrangère et les stratégies d'apprentissage des langues, ainsi qu'il existe une différence significative entre les étudiants à haut et à faible niveau d'anxiété en termes d'utilisation des stratégies d'apprentissage des langues. Les instruments utilisés consistent en deux questionnaires. Le premier questionnaire est une échelle d'anxiété provoquée en classe de la langue étrangère. Il est développé par Rebecca Oxford (1990) pour mesurer le niveau d'anxiété telle qu'elle est perçue par les apprenants tout en prenant part à des cours d'anglais. Le deuxième questionnaire est un inventaire des stratégies d'apprentissage des langues, développé par Horwitz (1986). Il est conçu pour mesurer le degré d'utilisation des stratégies d'apprentissage des langues. Les deux questionnaires sont adaptés pour servir le contexte de la présente étude dont les participants sont 100 étudiants de la troisième année anglais à l'Université Mohammed Seddik Ben Yehia à Jijel, en Algérie. Les résultats obtenus ont révélé une corrélation négative et significative entre le niveau d'anxiété provoqué par l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère et l'utilisation de la stratégie. Dans l'intervalle, le test t a montré une différence significative entre les deux groupes ayant des niveaux élevés et faibles d'anxiété par rapport à l'utilisation des stratégies. Autrement dit, le plus les étudiants sont anxieux, le moins ils utilisent des stratégies. De plus, les résultats ont montré que parmi les étudiants ayant une anxiété élevée, les stratégies métacognitives et de mémorisation ont été rapportées comme les plus utilisées, alors que les étudiants ayant un niveau faible d'anxiété ont déclaré fréquemment utiliser les stratégies métacognitive et cognitive.

Concernant les stratégies sociales, il est apparu qu'elles étaient les stratégies les moins utilisées par les deux groups.

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى العلاقة بين مدى استخدام طلاب السنة الثالثة بقسم اللغة الانجليزية في جامعة محمد الصديق بن

يحيى- جيجل- ستراتيجيات تعلم اللغة والقلق عن تعلم لغة أجنبية تهدف أيضا ق بين

الذين يعانون من مستوى ع نضرائهم ممن يعانون من مستوى أقل منه من حيث استخدامهم للاستراتيجيات .

ه فرضية التي فحواها: هناك علاقة بين استراتيجيات تعلم أجنبية

أيضا، أن هناك بين الطلبة مستوى منخفض من حيث استخدامهم للاستراتيجيات.

لهذا الغرض ، تم استخدام استبيانين الاستبيان الأول هو عبارة عن مقياس يشعر به الطلبة في القسم

تعلمهم ل الأجنبية، تم تطويره من قبل ريببكا أكسفورد (1990) الاستبيان الثاني هو جرد لاستراتيجيات تعلم اللغة

وضعه من قبل هورويتز (1986) من أجل قياس مدى استعمال استراتيجيات تعلم اللغة. تجدر الإشارة هنا انه قد تم تعديل

الاستبيان من أجل التماشي مع سياق الدراسة الحالية أما عن العينة فهي تتألف من 100 بالسنة الثالثة بقسم اللغة الانجليزية

. أظهرت النتائج المتحصل عليها وجود ارتباط سلبي كبير بين الناتج عن تعلم اللغة الأجنبية

واستخدام استراتيجي هذا وقد أثبت ، ، فرق كبير بين الطلبة الذين يعانون من ديد والطلبة الذين

يعانون من قلق منخفض من حيث استخدامهم للاستراتيجيات أنه كلما كان الط

هلاستراتيجيات . كما أظهرت النتائج أن الطلبة الذي يعانون من مستوى عالي من القلق يستعملون استراتيجيات ما

واستراتيجيات الذاكرة بشكل أكبر. أما الطلبة الذين يعانون من مستوى أقل من القلق فهم يستعملون بشكل

أكبر استراتيجيات ما وراء المعرفة و الاستراتيجيات المعرفية. أما فيما يخص الاستراتيجيات الاجتماعية ، فقد تبين أنها من

الاستراتيجيات الأقل استعمالا من قبل المجموعتي .