DETERMINANTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY IN A JAPANESE EFL UNIVERSITY CLASSROOM AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO NATIVE LANGUAGE USE BY STUDENTS

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Declaration & Word count

I hereby declare that, except where explicit attribution is made, the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own.

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Abstract

This research was conducted to investigate foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) among Japanese college students taking English as a foreign language (EFL), focusing mainly on the relationship between FLCA and first language (L1) use in English task-based classes. Factors possibly affecting FLCA, such as gender, proficiency level, enthusiasm, self-confidence, and teacher-type preference, were also investigated to obtain a holistic picture. A cross-sectional research design with a mixed-methods approach (questionnaires, classroom observations and interviews) was adopted.

Japanese EFL college students were found to have various degrees of FLCA. Overall, students with the highest anxiety levels were females (who felt stronger self-consciousness and peer pressure), beginners, and those who had poorer comprehension, showed less enthusiasm, studied less at home, spoke less English outside class, had lower self-confidence, took fewer risks, exhibited a higher desire to use Japanese in class, and preferred bilingual Japanese-native teachers (BJNT). However, even students who were enthusiastic about studying English sometimes had higher anxiety, which was considered to be facilitative in nature on the basis of the existing literature. Beginners wanted to use more L1 than advanced-level students for clarification, but advanced-level students also needed L1 for understanding difficult materials.

Higher enthusiasm was important for reducing anxiety and increasing self-confidence. Interestingly, although higher self-confidence was important for reducing anxiety, higher proficiency, rather than higher self-confidence, affected the amount of L1 use by students. The finding that the more English students spoke outside class, the less anxious they became suggests that students need more practice speaking TL to decrease their anxiety. However, even students with higher enthusiasm who took optional classes sometimes wanted to use L1 in class.

Qualitative observations lent support to quantitative findings and helped to explain a number of interesting phenomena. The implications and limitations of the study are discussed, together with suggestions for further research.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Chapter 5

List of Figures

Chapter 3

Chapter 4

Chapter 5

Glossary of Abbreviations

BENT = bilingual English-native teachers

BJNT = bilingual Japanese-native teachers

CA = communicative anxiety

EFL = English as a foreign language

ESL = English as a second language

FL = foreign language

FLA = foreign language anxiety

FLCA = foreign language classroom anxiety

FLCAS = foreign language classroom anxiety scale

FLRA = foreign language reading anxiety

FLWA = foreign language writing anxiety

L1 = first language

L2 = second language

MENT = monolingual English-native teachers

SLA = second language acquisition

TL = target language

WTC = willingness to communicate

ZPD = zone of proximal development

Introduction

A few years ago, while working as a lecturer in a Japanese university, I witnessed a conflict between a teacher and a student over the use of first language (L1) in an English class. A male student used Japanese and the teacher reprimanded him because students were supposed to follow an English-only policy in class. The teacher wanted students to adhere to this rule, but the student felt this was too strict, given his limited English speaking ability. The student thought that moderate use of Japanese should be allowed in order to help him to maximize his comprehensible input, thus allowing him to be fully engaged in class activities. As a result, the student became reluctant to attend this particular teacher's class and sometimes stayed away altogether, losing all enthusiasm for the subject. I saw there was a gap between what the Japanese teaching system offered and the way students wanted to learn - a conflict I felt it was important to address. This provided me with the incentive to begin looking at the relationship between L1 use and target language (TL) use in order to find a way of resolving some of the problems existing between students and teachers.

On looking into this issue further, I found that L1 use has, in fact, been successfully integrated into language learning activities and is a valuable tool available to teachers (Cook, 2010), despite the ongoing debate regarding the proper balance between TL and L1 use in second and foreign language acquisition (Macaro, 2001a). Some researchers have reported lower levels of anxiety in learners who use TL more (Levine, 2003; Liu, 2006) and others have found that some L1 is effective for reducing anxiety (Harumi, 2011; Rivers, 2011). With regard to the cognitive domain, which focuses on the development of students' intellectual abilities and skills, and the affective domain, which focuses on the development of students' attitudes, feelings and values, no clear consensus has emerged concerning the relationship between L1 and TL use. Although what constitutes a proper balance between L1 and TL use remains to be addressed, the present study was focused on aspects of the cognitive domain as well as mainly the affective domain, as the two are closely interrelated when considering the issues responsible for student anxiety in the context of EFL.

I considered that students might need to use L1 as a last resort when they cannot understand what teachers are saying or lack the appropriate English vocabulary for expressing what they want to say. When participating in pair/group work during lessons,

students can reduce their anxiety quickly with L1 help, but they soon lose self-confidence and become more anxious if they fall into the habit of using L1 because they feel this does not help them improve their English ability. Therefore, students have to free themselves of such L1 reliance and gradually adopt "frequent use of TL", as mentioned by Levine (2003), in order to reduce fundamental speaking anxiety and heavy L1 use over time. Additionally, the relationship between anxiety and L1/TL use has never been considered holistically in the context of Japanese EFL, although other researchers have looked at the relationship between anxiety and motivation (Gardner, 1985; Yan & Horwitz, 2008), self-confidence levels (Young, 1990), FL proficiency (Ahmad, 2009; Kitano, 2001), gender (Elkhafaifi, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004), and L1 use (Rivers, 2011). Therefore, I considered that an investigation of this issue might be productive, and yield some interesting findings. It is to be hoped that investigating the detailed interactions between FLCA and these variables in the Japanese EFL context will produce important implications for the teaching of English in Japan.

More specifically, I considered that the areas investigated in this study would be significant from several aspects. Firstly, my findings might help to fill some of the existing gaps in the literature, i.e. 1) whether there are gender differences in FLCA, 2) whether lower-proficiency students need more L1, and 3) whether frequent use of TL can reduce FLCA. More details of the research rationale and research questions are given in Chapter 1(see 1.4 Rationale for the present research and the issues investigated). Secondly, by comparison with previous research, this study examined more closely and holistically the relationship of FLCA to variables such as L1 use, gender, TL proficiency, enthusiasm, self-confidence, and teacher-type preference, which may affect the acquisition of FL, especially in terms of the affective domain. It was anticipated that the information revealed in this way would lead to more effective solutions for reducing FLCA, with important implications for teachers and universities. My underlying rationale was to explore whether the English-only policy implemented in most Japanese universities is truly the most effective strategy for EFL education of Japanese college students. It is obvious that students need to use TL for improvement of their language acquisition, and this assumption underlies the ban on L1 use in universities. In Japan, however, speaking anxiety is a big problem in task-based English classes. Students become anxious during pair/group work, and this has a detrimental effect on their performance, causing them to become silent, or even developing an inferiority complex

in some cases. Clearly, therefore, it is important to get to the root of FLCA and find solutions for it.

This thesis is organized around six chapters: The Introduction (the present chapter) outlines my incentive for conducting this research based on my past experience and the literature review, the significance of the study, and the organization of the thesis. Chapter 1 (Review of the literature) gives an overview of previous studies on anxiety and L1/TL use in the field of applied linguistics, and on the basis of the literature explains the research rationale and the three research questions I have formulated. Chapter 2 (research methods and design) provides an overview and explains the justification for the methodological approach I adopted, giving details of my initial pilot study and the participants involved.

Chapters 3-5 present the findings of both my quantitative and qualitative studies. The findings of the two empirical investigations are linked and discussed in each chapter. Chapter 3 (Results: Reasons for FLCA among Japanese EFL college students) provides a broad view of anxiety exhibited by the target students by looking at the interactions between anxiety and factors such as L1/TL use, gender, TL proficiency, enthusiasm, self-confidence, and teacher-type preference in order to grasp the realities of this type of anxiety. Chapter 4 (Results: Factors linked to L1 use among Japanese EFL college students) focuses mainly on the holistic connection between FLCA and L1 use in the context of Japanese EFL. As previous research had led to inconsistent opinions on whether differences in TL proficiency level might affect L1 use, I thought it important to examine this issue in more detail by focusing on FLCA and considering other factors that might impact on L1 use. Chapter 5 (Results: Frequent use of English out of class among Japanese EFL college students) examines the effect of frequent TL use on student anxiety, since it has never been examined whether more TL use can help to reduce Japanese student anxiety and the types of effects it would have on the students. Chapter 6 (Conclusion) summarizes the key findings, with reference to the original objectives of the research outlined in the Introduction, together with their implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 1: Review of the literature

This chapter presents a literature review relevant to my research on anxiety, focusing on the relationship of L1 use with other variables in the field of Applied Linguistics. Although there has been much work in this area in recent years, controversy still exists. Key gaps in current knowledge are: 1) whether there is a difference in anxiety between genders, 2) whether beginners are more anxious than advanced-level students, and 3) whether frequent use of TL can reduce student anxiety. As highly anxious students tend to use L1 more, clarification of these issues may point the way to methods of reducing L1 use.

An overview of anxiety studies is given in Section 1.1; an overview of studies focusing on L1/TL use in Section 1.2; a summary is provided in Section 1.3; and Section 1.4 outlines my rationale for the present research and the issues investigated.

1.1 Overview of anxiety studies
1.1.1 Research on anxiety

At an early stage of studies on anxiety in language learning, Curran (1961), a clinical psychologist, observed that learners of a second language (L2) experienced threatening feelings, and on that basis developed the 'Counselling-Learning' model. This approach advocates that successful foreign language (FL) learning can be achieved by reducing learners' inhibitions through overcoming their defensive behavior. Curran was a pivotal figure in early foreign language anxiety (FLA) research and his initial ideas were followed through by subsequent FLA researchers. Asher (1966) developed the Total Physical Response (TFR) language teaching method whereby learners responded to orders, commands and instructions physically, rather than orally. Later, Lozanov (1978) developed the Suggestopaedia approach, which employed dialogues and situations accompanied by music and visual images. In line with these trends suggesting that relaxation exercises can make learning more comfortable and effective, Krashen (1981) proposed the "affective filter hypothesis", which advocated that although a moderate degree of anxiety could be helpful for language acquisition, students with low anxiety might acquire TL more smoothly. As higher motivation, higher self-confidence and lower anxiety are related to successful second language acquisition (SLA) (Krashen, 1982), pedagogical goals should supply optimal input as well as creating an environment that

can lower the affective filter through the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Krashen's hypothesis aroused considerable interest in the affective variables of L2 teaching and learning, and had a strong influence on communicative teaching approaches (Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001). However, early studies of the relationship between anxiety and achievement produced confusing and mixed results because of the variety of anxiety types (Horwitz, 2010; Scovel, 1978).

Scovel's (1978) study of anxiety and language learning is recognized as pivotal because he attributed the inconsistent results of early anxiety studies to imprecision in the conceptualization and measurement of anxiety, and placed emphasis on carefully defining the type of anxiety. Scovel cited Kleinmann's (1977) study as a good example of how anxiety is not a simple and unitary construct, but rather a cluster of affective states, and defined two basic drives: 'facilitating anxiety', which "gears the learner emotionally for approach behavior" and 'debilitating anxiety', which "stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behavior" (p. 139), with each type of anxiety playing a cooperative role in the interplay and function of language learning. Oxford (1999) agreed with the concepts of both "debilitating anxiety" (harmful) and "facilitating anxiety" (helpful). According to Horwitz (2010, p. 154), the concept of anxiety is itself multi-faceted, and psychologists have differentiated a number of anxiety types, including trait anxiety (a disposition to feel stress, worry and discomfort), state anxiety (fear, nervousness and discomfort induced temporarily by situations perceived as dangerous), achievement anxiety (fear of failure in school), and facilitative-debilitative anxiety. Additionally, Horwitz has suggested that FLA can be categorized as a situation-specific form of anxiety (trait anxiety that recurs over time in a situation such as public speaking) in foreign language classes or during tests (defined by MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

Phillips (1992) has stated that speaking anxiety may have a debilitating impact on learners' ability to speak a TL. He researched 44 students of French in the USA (9 males and 35 females; age range 17-21 years), who were assessed using the foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986) and an oral French exam. The findings suggested that foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) had modest effects on performance in the oral test, but that anxiety had a significant psychological effect on language learners because their affective reactions and attitudes seemed to influence their future decision on whether they kept studying the TL.

16

In other words, learners with strong anxiety were reluctant to continue studying TL. Therefore, teachers need to view FLCA as a serious problem and help students develop positive attitudes to FL learning.

Similarly, MacIntyre & Gardner (1994b) examined the relationship between anxiety and the input, processing, and output stages of language learning among 97 students of French at a Canadian university (24 males and 73 females). There were significant negative correlations between grades of attainment and scores on the input, processing, and output anxiety scales. They suggested a self-perpetuating cycle whereby continuous poor performance by students reinforced their anxiety, especially in the case of students who performed poorly early on in the course, ultimately leading to exam anxiety, which adversely affected their results. They also considered that anxiety might interfere with the development of language proficiency as well as the quality of any acquired performance. Therefore, they concluded that this early state of anxiety, and the links among the three stages of anxiety, should not be neglected, considering the potential effects of anxiety on cognitive processing in SLA.

The concept and the effects of debilitating anxiety have been dealt with in empirical studies. Phillips (1992) has cautioned that anxiety can have a strong negative influence on the motivation of students to study TL further, and MacIntyre & Gardner (1994b) have suggested that anxiety has detrimental effects on the development of language proficiency. Therefore, Horwitz (2000) believes that it is dangerous to negate the influence of anxiety reactions on language acquisition, and that teachers should place proper emphasis on dealing with anxiety. However, the findings of Lu & Liu (2011) and Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley (1999) suggest that facilitating anxiety can be important. The purpose of the research conducted by Onwuegbuzie et al. was to determine the demographic and self-perception factors that are predictors of FLA. Students who displayed higher anxiety were those who were older, high academic achievers, had never visited a foreign country, had not taken language courses in high school, had low expectations about current courses, had low perceived scholastic competence, and had negative perceived self-worth. Overall, the three significant factors that predicted FLA were students' expectation of their overall achievement in FL courses, perceived scholastic competence, and perceived self-worth, suggesting the importance of reducing their affective filter and building confidence and self-esteem in studying FL. Moreover,

the fact that high academic achievers tended to have higher anxiety suggests that they may have facilitating anxiety, and that this may help foreign language acquisition.

1.1.2 Establishment of FLCA/FLCAS and its stability

The study by Horwitz et al. (1986), which is that most often cited pertaining to FLA, described FLCA as a very particular kind of anxiety closely associated with language learning. They explained its uniqueness as the gap between mature thoughts and limited communication abilities, the cognitive awareness that comprehending others and expressing oneself will sometimes be problematic, and the consequential threat to the student's self-confidence. They also stated that "since speaking in the target language seems to be the most threatening aspect of foreign language learning, the current emphasis on the development of communicative competence poses particularly great difficulties for the anxious student" (p. 132). This is supported by Young (1992) who, after interviews with Krashen, Omaggio Hadley, Terrell, and Rardin, reported that all four interviewees recognized that speaking in foreign language classes possibly causes the greatest anxiety for language learners. Obviously, it seems to be important to have higher self-confidence in order to overcome anxiety. Yan & Horwitz (2008) agreed that self-confidence and motivation seem to be strongly interconnected with anxiety and added that lowering students' anxiety levels may be effective for enhancing their language learning motivation.

Considering that measurement of anxiety could be the first step towards solving the problem, Horwitz et al. (1986) developed the FLCAS including 33 items and used it to measure language learning anxiety, which reflected overall communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. They defined communication apprehension as "a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people", test anxiety as "a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure", and fear of negative evaluation as "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate them negatively" (pp. 127-128). The FLCAS has become the standard measure of language anxiety, helping language researchers and teachers to grasp the anxiety-provoking possibilities of language learning (Horwitz, 2001). At various times, Aida (1994), Elkhafaifi (2005), Gregersen & Horwitz (2002), Matsuda & Gobel (2004), Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley (1999), Pae (2013) and Phillips (1992) have used the FLCAS and acknowledged its

reliability and validity. Aida (1994) and MacIntyre & Gardner (1989) noted that FLCA can be considered a component of communicative anxiety and supported Horwitz et al.'s view that FLCA is tripartite in nature, although test anxiety did not emerge as an important factor in their study.

During the period when the FLCAS was being accepted, Horwitz et al. (1986) had lengthy arguments with Ganschow & Sparks (1996), who maintained that difficulties with L2 learning and the accompanying anxiety are explainable in terms of L1 learning disability. Ganschow & Sparks (ibid.) criticized the opinion of Horwitz et al. (1986) that anxiety becomes reduced as FL proficiency increases, or that anxiety is responsible for poor FL grades because the findings of Ganschow & Sparks (ibid.) and Sparks, Ganschow, & Javorsky. (2000) suggested that students with lower levels of L1 skill and FL proficiency had higher levels of FL learning anxiety. Furthermore, they pointed out flaws in the research methodology used by Horwitz et al. in that the latter had not used a comparison group to assess learner proficiency in both L1 and TL. In 1991, Sparks & Ganschow introduced to the FL field the Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis (LCDH), which advocates that FL learning is influenced by L1 ability (phonological/orthographic, syntactic, or semantic code-decoding skills) and provides the basic foundation for SLA. In response, Horwitz (2000) stated that anxious students, who have no learning difficulties in their native language, feel uncomfortable in using FL, based on her finding that about one-third of students in prestigious universities had FLCA. Therefore, in this context, it would be difficult to argue that all of the students would have cognitive disabilities. The fact that advanced/highly successful students also show FLCA would tend to refute the cognition deficit hypothesis proposed by Ganschow & Sparks (1996). Horwitz (2000) brought her rebuttal to an end by concluding that "Language learning is a complex interpersonal and social endeavor, and to reject the role of affective factors is myopic and ultimately harmful" (p. 258). Ganschow & Sparks (1996) reworked their argument, suggesting that L1 skill and L2 aptitude may affect anxiety level, and that the FLCAS may help to reveal preliminary signs of basic language problems. The argument put forward by Sparks & Ganschow also indicates that any research design should employ more than one method for collecting data in order to understand the individual situations, feelings and experiences of language students.

In a study of 453 American university students of Arabic, Elkhafaifi (2005) reported that there was a strong significant correlation between the FLCAS score and FL

listening anxiety. As reading and writing in FL can also be anxiety-provoking, Saito, Horwitz, & Garza (1999), and Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert (1999), have recently classified foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) and foreign language writing anxiety (FLWA), respectively, as being distinguishable from general FLCA, which was originally characterized with a strong speaking anxiety element in mind. Pae (2013) has agreed that anxieties arising from the four skills could be independent, and that speaking and listening anxieties have a more significant impact on the FLCAS than writing and reading anxieties.

Moreover, it is vital to check the stability (the reproducibility and validity) of the general FLCAS for different TLs, and to understand how student anxiety levels may change according to the TL, as most previous research has been conducted on students for whom English was the TL. A number of studies, outlined below, have addressed this issue across target languages (Japanese, French, Russian, and English) in general FLCA, and regarded it as independent of TL, thus confirming that the FLCAS is an effective tool for assessment of FLCA, being able to gauge anxiety correctly irrespective of the language being learned.

Aida (1994) replicated the study of Horwitz et al. (1986) with a non-Western language (Japanese) by observing 96 sophomore college students in the USA (56 males and 40 females; mean age 21.5 years; 64 native and 32 non-native English speakers). This revealed that the FLCAS is a highly reliable instrument for measuring the anxiety level of Japanese language learners, being independent of TL (the FLCAS showed no bias against the TL). Moreover, anxiety was closely related to four FLCAS factors: 1) speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, 2) fear of failing Japanese class, 3) comfort level in communicating with native Japanese speakers, and 4) a negative attitude toward Japanese classes. Although Aida was unable to prove a cause-effect relationship between anxiety and achievement in Japanese, she speculated that students who felt uncomfortable seeking help might have higher anxiety, and that their failure to seek help might result in lower achievement. Thus, in addition to help-seeking behavior, students' beliefs about their ability, self-esteem, and language learning strategies may also be related to anxiety.

Comparing three languages, Saito, Horwitz, & Garza (1999) investigated the stability of both general FLCA and FLRA by observing 383 university students in the USA who

were enrolled in French, Japanese and Russian courses. Participants completed both five-point Likert FLCA and FLRA scales, and a background questionnaire. They found that there were no significant differences in the FLCAS scores among language types, and that therefore general FLCA was independent of TL. However, FLRA varied significantly between groups, with Japanese language learners showing the highest anxiety level because of the complex and unfamiliar writing system. They also found that learners of French had higher FLRA than those of Russian learners. They interpreted this result as indicating that FLRA may be related to learners' previous language learning experience and motivation, as students of Russian were experienced learners and were more knowledgeable about the learning process, thus possibly making them less anxious and more motivated.

Finally, Rodriguez & Abreu (2003) investigated the stability of the general FLCA across English and French at two Western universities in Venezuela. In this study, 110 preservice language teachers (19 males and 91 females; age range 16 to 40 years; average age about 22 years) completed two Spanish versions of the FLCAS (one for each language). The results showed no statistically significant differences in general FLCA between English and French, but the participants showed somewhat higher anxiety in French. The authors attributed the latter result to their more extensive training in English before entering the university. However, they cautioned that stability research on FLCA was still limited, and that any conclusion related to stability would be premature.

The results of early studies of anxiety appeared not to be consistent because of the difficulty in defining it. However, considerable progress has now been made following the work of Horwitz et al. (1986), and their formulation of the FLCAS. In addition, as the FLCAS is considered to be valid and reproducible irrespective of TL (its stability has been tentatively confirmed), it is reliable for studies in this field.

1.1.3 Factors influencing FLCA

This section outlines some important factors influencing FLCA upon which the present research was based. There are three sub-sections: 1) sources of FLCA; 2) individual differences in FLCA; and 3) gender differences in FLCA. These sections focus on the following questions with reference to the literature: What are the causative sources of

anxiety? What kinds of individual differences may be related to anxiety? Are there any gender differences in anxiety?

1.1.3.1 Sources of FLCA

In an early study based on the learners' perspective, Bailey (1983) noticed that anxiety had two types of effect: if the anxiety increased efforts to study TL, then it was facilitating, whereas if severe anxiety inhibited students from learning TL, it was debilitating. In a diary study of 11 language learners in a French class, Bailey found that competitiveness with peers was one of the causes of anxiety, and suggesting the importance of awareness of proficiency progression for reducing anxiety.

Koch & Terrell (1991) also highlighted the importance of dealing with anxiety from a student perspective. They surveyed student reactions to Natural Approach Spanish college classes in the USA based on a questionnaire completed by 119 students (43 males and 76 females; age range 17 to 44 years). They found that activities in small groups and personal discussions made most students feel comfortable, whereas role-playing, problem-solving activities, and oral presentations made them anxious. They concluded that teachers cannot select activities, teaching methods, or techniques without considering the interests, affective reactions, and individual learning styles of their students, there being no simple solution for alleviating student anxiety. Their finding that students felt less anxious in small group works was important, leading to the proposal that researchers should identify factors and sources of speaking anxiety by trying to see things from students' perspectives.

As potential sources of anxiety, Young (1990) pointed out presentations, error corrections, self-confidence and peer pressure in a study of English L1 and Spanish L2 students. She investigated anxiety from a student perspective and identified the sources of anxiety through a questionnaire administered to 135 university-level and 109 high school students of Spanish in Texas. As she stated: "Findings in this study, such as students' fear of speaking in front of others, anxiety over making mistakes in front of their peers and instructors, and willingness to participate in activities that do not require them to be spotlighted, could be related to low self-esteem" (p. 550), it appeared that students with higher anxiety were more likely to have lower self-confidence. She also found that teacher-centered instruction made students more anxious, suggesting that pair/group

work would help to reduce anxiety. With regard to error correction, students believed their errors should be corrected, but feared being negatively evaluated. Therefore how, how often, and when teachers corrected their errors appeared to be important. As the students reported that they needed to practice speaking more in order to feel more confident about speaking in class, Young suggested self-talk (the act or practice of talking to oneself, either aloud or silently) as a particularly useful exercise for increasing motivation to practice speaking TL. Additionally, socio/psychological phenomena such as previous negative experiences with classmates and learning materials were found to associate with anxiety. Furthermore, from a careful investigation of FLCA literature, Young (1991) identified six potential sources of FLCA: "1) personal (individual) anxiety (low self-esteem) and interpersonal (peer pressure) anxiety (competitiveness); 2) learner beliefs about language learning; 3) instructor beliefs about language teaching; 4) instructor-learner interactions; 5) classroom procedures; and 6) language testing" (p. 427). Recognizing that sources of FLCA are inter-linked and may be partly a result of improper classroom practices, Young concluded that it is important for teachers to be conscious of student anxiety and to use anxiety-reducing strategies, creating a friendly, humorous, and less tense learning environment.

As a pioneer in the introduction of qualitative methods to the area of FLCA, Price (1991) interviewed 10 self-identified extremely anxious language learners. These learners became anxious when they had to speak TL in front of their classmates, made errors in pronunciation, and did not communicate as effectively as in L1. Students were aware of the discrepancy between effort and results because FL classes were more demanding and more difficult than other classes. Several interviewees recognized themselves as being perfectionists and had a fear of public speaking. Students had stressful classroom experiences to some degree, and had particular difficulty when changing their class from an easy to a fast-paced, demanding one. Price found that as the classroom can be a source of humiliation, fear and shame, teachers can alleviate student anxiety by remaining encouraging if mistakes are made, and by stressing that mistakes are an important part of the learning process; behaving like a friend and helping students is also more productive than acting as an authoritarian figure. It is also important to regard the classroom as a place for communicating and learning rather than a place for performance. Students need to be given positive feedback and encouragement, and it is useful if student insight can be brought into the teacher's decision-making process. Although Price raised many important points that could be potential sources of anxiety, the study participants were

extremely anxious students, and therefore the results could not be regarded as representative of all anxiety reactions.

In a new type of research, Gregersen et al. (2014) in the USA investigated anxiety in 6 intermediate-level L2 Spanish adult learners out of 18 volunteers using an idiodynamic approach focusing on participants' psychological viewpoints, emphasizing the role of personality in selecting stimuli and organizing responses. They selected the three most anxious and the three least anxious learners (all English speakers; 1 male and 5 females) using Horwitz's FLCAS. The participants were asked to wear a heart rate monitor during a presentation with a video recording and to complete a set of idiodynamic ratings of state language anxiety (see p.16) using computer software. Then they had a stimulated recall interview while watching the recorded video. Based on the results, improvised speaking practice, teachers' inconsideration towards students, time pressure, and whole-class lessons were highlighted as anxiety sources, which had the following interesting implications for teachers: 1) Provide students with extemporaneous speaking opportunities to prepare general ideas without memorizing scripts; 2) reinterpret students' psychological cues to convert debilitating anxiety into facilitative effort; 3) give students an immediate escape route (a few thoughtful seconds) to understand what to do next; and 4) increase activities like small group interactions or planned role play to bring comfort to an anxious situation. The findings of this scientific approach lend support to previous research proposals such as transfer from debilitating to facilitating anxiety, giving students an escape route, and increasing pair/group work in addition to new concepts such as providing students with improvising speaking practice.

1.1.3.2 Individual differences in FLCA

Focusing on individual differences in a search of the FLCA literature, Oxford & Ehrman (1993) found nine factors that were related to SLA: aptitude, motivation, anxiety, self-esteem, tolerance of ambiguity, risk-taking, language learning style, age and gender. As speaking was shown not to be the only anxiety-provoking activity, it was inferred that having higher self-confidence about attitude and learning ability, and lower perfectionism and higher tolerance for ambiguity might improve language performance. On this basis, they proposed that teachers should make efforts to create multisensory lessons appealing to many different student learning styles in order to enhance L2 learning motivation and

reduce anxiety, to develop self-esteem, tolerance of ambiguity and risk-taking ability, and to consider age and gender differences.

Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham (2008) conducted a large-scale online questionnaire survey involving 464 multilingual adults worldwide to study the effects of trait emotional intelligence and socio-biographical variables (age, gender, education level, number of languages known, age of start of acquisition, context of acquisition, frequency of use, socialization, network of interlocutors and self-perceived proficiency) on both communicative anxiety (CA) in the first language and FLA in the second, third and fourth languages. They found that learners who started acquiring a second or third language when they were young, and individuals who knew more languages and/or had higher emotional intelligence, had lower anxiety levels. Both frequency of language use and a higher level of self-perceived proficiency were also significantly linked to lower levels of CA and FLA. Moreover, the data for social variables led them to conclude that classroom-based language teaching and learning led to higher anxiety levels, whereas extensive social experience of communicating with native speakers can reduce anxiety, people tending to be more relaxed when talking with others they know well.

Liu & Jackson (2008) conducted a 70-item questionnaire survey among 547 freshman (430 males and 117 females) non-English major (science and technology) college students in China and found that more than one third of the students felt anxious in English classes and didn't want to take risks. The reasons were fear of being negatively evaluated, fear of public speaking, and test-related apprehension. Their WTC, FLCA and self-rated English proficiency were significantly correlated with each other. Namely, students with higher anxiety were those who started learning English at a later age, and had less WTC and lower self-rated English proficiency. They proposed that teachers should encourage students and help them increase their self-confidence and make efforts to maintain their interest and motivation to learn English, thus increasing their self-rated English proficiency. Additionally, it was considered that teachers should pay attention to reticent students and encourage them to interact in group/pair activities under a non-threatening environment, as they need to practice speaking English to improve their proficiency.

Gregersen & Horwitz (2002) conducted a survey of 8 (1 male and 7 females) second-year college students in Chile to establish the relationship between FLCA and perfectionism.

Four anxious and four non-anxious participants were videotaped for their performance and then audio-recorded during a one-on-one oral interview while reviewing the video. The researchers found that anxious students and perfectionists had similar characteristics: anxious language learners had unrealistic expectations, set higher standards for their performance, procrastinated, feared others' judgement of their English, and worried too much about making mistakes. For instance, although one of the interviewees had high English language proficiency, she was highly anxious and not satisfied with her performance, repeatedly saying that it could be better if she studied more. The more anxious learners tended to be greater perfectionists. The researchers proposed that anxious students should be taught that making errors is an acceptable process and part of the language learning experience, and that maintaining conversation is more important than becoming silent. The results from this small-scale study are supported by Dewaele (2017) who conducted an online questionnaire using three datasets (a large sample size) of 58 adult English L2 users, 69 Saudi EFL college students, and 323 Japanese EFL high-school students and confirmed statistically that perfectionism was related to FLCA.

1.1.3.3 Gender differences in FLCA

Gender-related anxiety research has examined whether there are differences in anxiety levels between males and females in communicative (especially speaking and listening) language learning classes. This has yielded conflicting results: females have variously showed higher anxiety levels than males (Dewaele, 2007; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau, & Dewaele, 2016; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2012), and lower anxiety than males (Kitano, 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Saito & Samimy, 1996), while in other studies no gender effect has been apparent (Aida, 1994; Dewaele & Al-Saraj, 2015; Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004).

Elkhafaifi (2005) examined anxiety in 233 students participating in Arabic language programs at 6 universities in the USA. The results showed that anxiety was negatively correlated with final grades and listening comprehension scores. Moreover, females were more anxious than males in terms of FL learning anxiety. Usually freshmen have the highest anxiety because anxiety declines once experience and proficiency have been acquired. Unexpectedly, however, sophomores who took the course as an elective reported the highest levels of listening-related anxiety. Elkhafaifi attributed this finding

to the increased degree of difficulty, such as the use of complex grammar and authentic materials, and the emphasis that was placed on communicative practice.

Dewaele et al. (2016) conducted a worldwide online questionnaire based on five-point Likert scales, an open-ended question and background information, focusing on gender differences in Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE) and FLCA through 1736 FL learners (449 males and 1287 females). They found that females felt more proud of their achievement, had more fun, and regarded language learning as interesting. Simultaneously, females were more worried about errors and were less confident in speaking. It was concluded that females were more emotional than males with both positive (enjoyment) and mild (a small effect size) negative (anxiety) emotions, and that these two emotions complemented each other while they experienced linguistic progress.

However, MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan (2002) reported the opposite: boys were more anxious. They examined sex and age effects on willingness to communicate (WTC), anxiety, perceived competence, and L2 motivation among 7th to 9th graders in a French immersion program in Canada. Among 8th and 9th graders, girls showed increased WTC and decreased anxiety, although boys were stable in terms of both WTC and anxiety among the three grades. However, the effect size for gender and for grade/gender interaction was very small. It was speculated that grade 9 girls especially might have already experienced the most anxiety-provoking time (puberty), which made them less anxious and more WTC.

Saito & Samimy (1996) investigated the relationship between FLCA and language performance at three different instructional levels amongst 257 college students (134 beginners: 75 males (M) and 59 females (F); 79 intermediates: 43 M and 36 F; and 44 advanced: 30 M and 14 F) learning Japanese in the USA. It was found that male students had lower self-perception and higher anxiety than females because they were afraid of making mistakes, experienced a stronger fear of being assessed negatively, and had lower self-perceived ability of speaking Japanese. Kitano (2001) who investigated the anxiety sources among 212 college students (100 beginners, 53 intermediate-level ones, and 59 advanced-level ones; 121 males and 91 females) of Japanese in the USA similarly found that the anxiety level of male students was higher when they felt less competent in spoken Japanese, while there was no relationship between anxiety and self-perception in female students.

With regard to the presence of a significant relationship between the genders, the findings of Matsuda & Gobel (2004) were also interesting. They investigated anxiety and predictors of performance in 252 college students (75 males and 177 females; 89 first, 85 second and 78 third-year students; age range 18 to 21 years) participating in EFL classes in Japan. A clear connection between higher self-confidence in speaking English and longer overseas experience was evident, but there was no significant relationship between gender and anxiety as a whole.

Anxiety studies have indicated the importance of investigating FLCA from a student perspective and examining the possible sources of FLCA. FLCA is closely linked to motivation, self-confidence, a fear of making presentations and mistakes and being negatively judged, time/peer pressure, teacher-centered instruction, and classroom atmosphere. Moreover, individual character differences such as self-perceived proficiency and perfectionism, and gender, also seem to be related to the level of anxiety.

1.1.4 Cultural factors influencing FLCA

FLCA varies according to culture (Woodrow, 2006). Oxford (1999) has reported that learner behavior is culturally dependent, and what may appear to be anxious behavior in one culture may be normal in another. Research on anxiety might have been biased because most such studies have been conducted in North America on non-native students learning English (e.g. MacIntyre et al. 2002; Young, 1990) and in other countries with English as TL (e.g. Carless, 2008; Fotos, 2001). Woodrow (ibid.) examined the relationship between L2 performance and speaking anxiety in Australia. The participants (139 males and 136 females) were learners taking intensive advanced EAP (English for academic purposes) courses before enrolling at university. The study findings indicated that L2 speaking anxiety could be a significant predictor of oral performance. The major cause of anxiety was talking with native speakers and giving oral presentations. One interesting finding of Woodrow was that there were differences between Confucian heritage learners such as Japanese, Korean, and Chinese students, who tended to be more anxious, and learners from other cultural backgrounds such as European and Vietnamese students, who tended to be less anxious. This is consistent with the findings of Horwitz (2001) that American FL learners had less anxiety than Korean EFL learners and more

anxiety than Turkish EFL learners. However, given the ongoing globalization in the modern world, these findings regarding cultural differences may depend more on individual differences.

1.1.4.1 Cultural factors influencing FLCA in Japan

With regard to cultural factors affecting FLCA in Japan, meticulous grammatical knowledge and in-depth reading skills became vital for the English education of Japanese secondary school students after the Second World War. However, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) began the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program in 1987 and incorporated oral communication into high school English courses from 1988 onwards (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). Currently, Japanese EFL education is becoming more communication-based, with both listening and speaking English lessons, as well as grammar and reading, than was the case previously, when students were taught using only the Grammar Translation method. Yet, despite more than six years of compulsory English instruction, most Japanese students are unable to engage in basic-level English communication (Wicking, 2010). Weschler (1997) has pointed out that while Japanese English education is becoming more communicative, an important debate has arisen about the proper balance between use of TL and L1 in order to improve speaking fluency. This debate has arisen because Japanese students seem to need L1 help, but most Japanese institutions ban L1 use in classrooms.

Harumi (1999) examined Japanese EFL students' use of silence through video-viewing sessions to understand the differences or similarities between Japanese and British students. The participants focused on particular extracts and interpreted EFL students' classroom silence during interaction with a native English teacher. Harumi's results suggested that most Japanese informants interpreted silence as face-saving, a difficulty-avoidance strategy, or a silent request for help. Conversely, their British counterparts interpreted silence as lack of interest, boredom, or laziness. This suggests that there is a clear cultural difference: Japanese students become silent when they feel anxiety and this is not necessarily a negative sign, whereas British students don't understand this feeling.

King (2013) investigated why Japanese university students become silent in L2 classes. He used a structured observation scheme known as the Classroom Oral Participation

Scheme (COPS) in 48 English classes in Japan over two months. He discovered a strong tendency among observation participants to remain silent in English learning lessons, and the five main reasons for this silence were disengagement, the use of teacher-centered methods, the use of nonverbal activities, confusion, and being hypersensitive to judgement by others.

The Japanese appear to have placed much importance on the expression 'silence is golden' coined by Thomas Carlyle, a British thinker/historian, and have developed a "silent culture". This view is supported by Harumi (2011), who conducted a questionnaire survey of 197 Japanese intermediate EFL students, 52 native English teachers, and 58 Japanese English teachers at Japanese universities. Harumi sought views from both students and teachers on classroom silence, including teachers' interpretation of students' silence, students' reasons for remaining silent, teachers' strategies to elicit responses from students, and students' expectation of teachers' teaching strategies. The causes, functions and meanings of silence were interpreted from a sociocultural perspective. Students kept silent because they lacked confidence in their proficiency, pronunciation, grammatical accuracy and their own ideas. One of the students' expectations of teachers was to help them by using L1 to overcome their silence.

1.1.4.2 Cultural factors influencing FLCA in non-Western countries other than Japan

It is worth examining the reasons why EFL learners other than those of Japanese nationality feel anxiety, as any regional or cultural similarities shared with Japan, or any specific differences, would be of interest. With regard to similarities with Japan, Carless (2008) has pointed out teachers' concern that learners may use L1 instead of TL in EFL contexts because of their shared L1. He investigated task-based activities through semi-structured interviews of learners' use of L1 among 10 teachers and 10 teacher educators in Hong Kong secondary school language classes and recognized teacher-centered instruction as one of the reasons why students were unwilling to speak TL. Therefore, it seemed that task-based activities were a good alternative for increasing students' self-confidence and motivation and reducing their anxiety. However, teachers had difficulty in getting students to use TL in group work and also monitoring them. In order to make students use TL, teachers should carefully assess task difficulty and also pre-teach relevant vocabulary because students tend to use L1 for unfamiliar topics and

complex cognitive situations, and also if there is a lack of planning time. In addition to Carless's study here, Ahmad's study (2009) in Malaysia and Kim's study (2011) in South Korea (see 1.2.3.1 L1 use and anxiety in beginners) also showed that EFL students wanted to use L1 when they became anxious.

Like Carless who mentioned task difficulty as one reason for students' L1 use to escape anxiety, Storch & Aldosari (2010) examined the relationship between English proficiency level, anxiety and L1 use among 36 Arabic-speaking college students (all male freshman) in an EFL class setting. They created three proficiency pairing types: high-proficiency pairs (H-H pair), mixed-proficiency pairs (H-L pair), and low-proficiency pairs (L-L pair), counted the number of L1 words and L1 turns focusing on L1 functions, and investigated whether factors such as proficiency pairing and task type affect the amount and functions of L1 use in pair work activity. They found that all of the pairs used L1 to only a limited extent, because the students seemed to grasp pair-work activity as a good opportunity to practice L2 speaking. Although this study found a correlation between L2 proficiency and L1 use, task type had more impact on L1 use than proficiency level. Storch & Aldosari concluded that student anxiety and consequent L1 use in Saudi Arabia seem to be affected by task type rather than other factors such as L2 proficiency or cultural factors.

In Yan & Horwitz's study (2008), however, regional differences and parental influence emerged as cultural factors affecting FLCA. They conducted an interview study to investigate 21 Chinese L1 and English L2 college students' perceptions of the sources and effects of anxiety during their English language learning. The participants ranged in anxiety from low through moderate, to high, and were aged 17 to 21 years. They used grounded-theory analysis (construction of theory through analysis of data) and identified factors associated with learner anxiety. As a result, twelve major thematic variables related to anxiety were identified: regional differences, language aptitude, gender, FLCA, language learning interest and motivation, class arrangement, teacher characteristics, language learning strategies, test types, parental influence, comparison with peers, and achievement. Immediate sources of anxiety included comparison with peers, learning strategies and language learning interest and motivation. These results reflected the sociocultural characteristics of EFL Chinese students, such as parental influence and individual feelings about personal ability in English, especially listening and speaking, according to regional differences. Due to regional social and cultural differences

involving dialects, education systems and economic development, students from rural areas felt poor at English, especially in comparison with Shanghai students, who have contact with English in their everyday life. They stressed that the interrelationship between anxiety and motivation could be a strong predictor of successful language learning because they are closely linked to learners' goals, expectations, and learning strategies. Their study had many common variables shared with other researchers, but for their students, L1 use was not related to anxiety as a major thematic variable, unlike students in other Asian countries.

Considering the cultural factors affecting FLCA highlighted by these studies, regional differences and parental influence were evident in Yan & Horwitz's study in China and L1 use in the context of EFL was evident in Harumi's studies in Japan, Carless's study in Hong Kong, Ahmad's study in Malaysia, and also Kim's study in South Korea. However, for Storch & Aldosari's students in Saudi Arabia, task type had much more influence on anxiety than proficiency level, and the students did not use much L1 when given proper materials. This suggests that task difficulty should be carefully considered in order not to force students to use L1, being congruent with Carless's opinion.

1.2 Overview of L1/TL use studies

As outlined in the previous section, variables related to anxiety such as L1 use or task type were considered to show cultural differences between East & South East Asian and Arabic-speaking countries. Especially, in EFL classes in Asia, it would appear that there is a close relationship between anxiety and L1 use. This is because both teachers and students have the same mother tongue and L1 use can be a quick solution to attaining a clear understanding and decreasing anxiety due to failure of comprehension or expression in TL. The question then arises as to whether L1 use can reduce student speaking anxiety or whether other variables have more impact in this respect. There has been continuous debate about whether only TL should apply or whether L1 use should be allowed in TL learning, and this issue is still controversial. Therefore, this section addresses both sides of the argument.

Critchley (1999) conducted a survey of 160 Japanese students in EFL classes at an international university. The survey used a bilingual questionnaire with two closed questions and two open questions about the necessity, reason, and purpose of teacher

bilingual support. Critchley found that 91% of the students wanted bilingual support from teachers to some extent, while 9% preferred English-only instruction. Students hoped to receive timely L1 support for comprehensible input and pedagogical interaction. L1 can be a useful resource for not only reducing anxiety, but also promoting L2 learning if judiciously applied in a single-nationality class (Cook, 2001), and banning L1 use can be detrimental to communication and L2 learning (Sampson, 2012). Therefore, an English-only policy may not be suitable in some EFL contexts. In order to demonstrate this, the objectives of L1 use and the relationship between L1 and TL should be examined in more detail focusing on a student's psychological perspective, in order to create a comfortable language learning atmosphere.

1.2.1 L1 use

L1 use is usually forbidden in Japanese EFL contexts, except for special situations such as instruction to very young learners and entrance exam preparation courses. Weschler (1997) states that this policy may have arisen from the false assumption that the Grammar Translation method should be replaced by communicative methodologies, and that there is no justification for advocating an English-only policy in EFL classes. Although L1 use seems to be beneficial, discussion over L1 use in English as a second language (ESL) has never reached a definite consensus (Auerbach, 1993). Moreover, no study so far has been able to demonstrate a relationship between L1 exclusion and L2 improvement. Therefore it seems important to establish some parameters for L1 use in FL classes, and to investigate the functions of L1 use within the classroom (Macaro, 2001a).

According to some researchers (Cook, 2010; Macaro, 2001b), L1 use can be successfully integrated into language learning activities and is a valuable tool available to teachers. The functions of L1 use by teachers are usually divided into three categories: promoting understanding, rapport building and classroom management. In detail, explaining new and difficult words or phrases (Lee & Macaro, 2013; Littlewood & Yu, 2011), teaching grammar (Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Liu et al., 2004; Song, 2009), clarifying comprehension (Deller & Rinvolucri, 2002), and giving translation (Atkinson, 1987; Grim, 2010; Klevberg, 2000; Weschler, 1997) are all areas where L1 is commonly used. Turnbull (2001) has suggested that students can understand teachers' explanations better with judicious L1 use, since L1 provides more salient and easily processed input, which in turn improves TL understanding. Atkinson (1987) proposes that translation can play an

important role in developing students' L2 learning. Some researchers (Carson & Kashihara, 2012; Swain & Lapkin, 2000) have concluded that L1 use should not be prohibited because its strategic use can be advantageous as a cognitive and psychological tool, a social tool for collaboration, and a pedagogical tool. Teachers can also use L1 for creating humor, giving praise, expressing opinions about cultural points, talking to individual students, and showing empathy and solidarity for rapport building. In classroom management, teachers tend to use L1 more when giving instructions about tasks, explaining administrative vocabulary, imposing discipline, and carrying out tests (Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005).

Fotos (2001) examined three interactive, problem-solving tasks among 53 Japanese university EFL students and found that the students used code-switching as a learning strategy. This kind of code-switching enhanced both L2 input and L2 output during interactive group tasks in such a way as to facilitate successful SLA. Fotos also mentioned that L1 has started to be accepted in English-speaking classes and that students' preference for L1 use seems to be related to two general applications: 1) for comprehension support such as lexical or content help about difficult aspects of TL and concentration on ongoing L2 tasks, and 2) for use as an affective filter such as promoting a positive classroom discourse community with peers, and to avoid becoming silent or feeling uncomfortable. Therefore, L1 use shall be discussed further in the context of these two general uses.

L1 use can help students increase their comprehension, which in turn reduces their anxiety. Basically, students like to use L1 more than teachers do, as McDonough (2002) has demonstrated in his research, which is unique in having compared perceptions from both sides. He described the difference between his own perceptions as both a language teacher (English) and a language learner (Greek). In order to examine the validity of his own perceptions, he administered a questionnaire to 25 EFL teachers and 10 teachers of other languages covering widely divergent contexts on the teacher side, and to 19 adult native English speakers studying Greek or French at evening classes on the student side. The results of the questionnaire mostly matched his own personal experience. Most teachers preferred communicative strategies such as pair work. Conversely, most students wanted to understand every word clearly by using a bilingual dictionary and preferred a traditional language learning system such as dictation, translation or grammar exercises. Unsurprisingly, therefore, use of L1 appears to suit students, but not teachers.

Although many teachers dislike students using L1, Storch & Aldosari (2010), in a study of 36 Arabic college students from two parallel EFL classes, showed that the students tended to use their L1 moderately in small groups or pairs, and that under these conditions L1 enhanced language learning. Therefore, they concluded that L1 should not be restricted or prohibited in EFL classes because it functions as a cognitive and psychological tool for promoting verbal interaction in private speech (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003), as a pedagogical tool, and as a social tool for collaboration. Brooks, Donato, & McGlone (1997) also found that L1 played a supportive role during tasks, and that the amount of L1 use was reduced as interaction improved over time. When learners participate in collaborative tasks, they may use L1 at least initially, but then eventually may be able to perform cognitively demanding tasks in TL when they have systematic opportunities to collaborate in both L1 and TL.

This idea has been supported by Butzkamm (1998) and Moore (2010). Butzkamm investigated code-switching in a bilingual (L1 German and L2 English) history class in Hamburg where L1 use helped learners (25 13-year-old girls and boys) to fully grasp the message, increase their confidence, stretch their TL productive abilities, enhance their overall communicative competence and produce richer discussion in terms of both form and content. Moore (2010) also examined classroom code-switching among elementary-level students and analyzed the roles and functions of L1 in L2 classes. It was found that code-switching drew attention to differences and the contrastive use of languages, which enhanced language awareness and broadened prior knowledge. In this sense, L1 use is beneficial for ensuring comprehension, developing students' linguistic skills, and increasing the fluidity of conversation. Importantly, mere exposure to TL is insufficient for students to internalize and process messages, and therefore students need to exploit their L1 as a quick and effective learning aid.

Rivers (2011) examined semi-structured conversation diaries and two in-class activities to obtain insight from 21 Japanese university students. He examined when and why learners wanted to use their L1, and found it was useful for clarifying tasks they were expected to complete, preparing for discussions in class, saving time in making their viewpoints understood, avoiding becoming anxious and then reticent, and creating a good rapport. The learners admitted that they felt less anxious when they were free to use L1. This project led Rivers to conclude "When language learners are given increased linguistic autonomy and are supported in analyzing and making informed language

choices, they are able and willing to accept the responsibility which such a position affords" (p. 112). Students want to involve themselves in activities by using TL more positively, but unsatisfactory proficiency such as a lack of vocabulary or phrases to explain their ideas may prevent them from using TL. Therefore, as a natural shortcut, students invariably use L1 for increasing their comprehension and in turn reducing their anxiety.

With regard to L1 use for rapport building to reduce anxiety, Ghorbani's (2011) study found that students did not use much L1, but when they did so, the purpose was to inject humor and develop stronger bonds among classmates. Moreover, L1 use helps to increase enthusiasm (Alegria & Garcia Mayo, 2009), reduce anxiety, build self-confidence, and encourage speaking TL (Mak, 2011), enabling students to perform better in L2 classrooms. L1 use by teachers reportedly helps Japanese students to come out of their shell and reduce nervousness (Ohata, 2005).

Brooks-Lewis (2009) investigated 256 Spanish-speaking adult learners in Mexico who were asked to write learning diaries in Spanish and an essay in English about their experience with the course, and to complete questionnaires in Spanish. The research findings supported the use of L1 for reducing anxiety, creating an appropriate learning environment, taking sociocultural factors into account, utilizing learners' prior knowledge and experience, enhancing learner-centered language learning, raising learners' awareness of both differences and similarities between L1 and TL, promoting a positive learning attitude, and developing learner autonomy. The learners preferred to use L1 because it enabled them to understand more of what teachers told them, participate in class activities, develop confidence, feel a sense of achievement, and raise self-awareness. Brooks-Lewis also concluded that L1 use represents a compassionate approach that takes learners' opinions into consideration and shows respect for learners' identity because their mother tongue is treated as equally important and they aren't forced to use the TL.

Similarly, Edstrom (2006) found that L1 use was more effective than maximum use of TL in situations such as communicating feelings about cultural issues, and showing respect to students because teachers can understand what they are capable of. L1 use was effective when students could not explain their inner thoughts, and this created a good rapport in the classroom. In order to understand students' feelings and to show them respect, some researchers have proposed that teachers should acquire students' L1. According to

Barker (2003), teachers will gain some advantages from learning students' L1 because they can more easily see things through students' eyes and realize how hard it is to learn a new language as an adult. Barker adds that it is important not to insist on an English-only policy when students want their teacher to use their L1, especially in an EFL context. Likewise, on the basis of a questionnaire survey of 290 Japanese students at pre-intermediate, intermediate, advanced and postgraduate EFL levels, Burden (2000) has proposed some practical ideas for teachers in learning about their students' culture and L1, as contrastive analysis can sometimes predict or solve potential problems. In that study, students wanted teachers to use TL in communicative classes, but also wanted teachers to have knowledge about their L1 and use it for explaining difficult aspects of TL usage.

Among studies conducted from a socio-cultural perspective, Anton & DiCamilla (1999) examined ten adult beginners (L1 English) in a six-week intensive Spanish class and found that students scaffolded their interactions with each other, constructed a shared perspective in order to define the task, and externalized inner speech as a cognitive tool for solving problems through collaboration among classmates using both TL and L1. Their study was based on Vygotsky's (1978; 1981) zone of proximal development (ZPD), which is defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). They concluded that language is not a device separated from our thoughts, but that "Language and thought are bound together, language being the principal semiotic system that mediates our thinking, both within individuals and between individuals" (p.245). This is consistent with Wells (1999), who agreed that ZPD can create the kind of interaction needed for learning, give students different learning opportunities regardless of their knowledge, and expand new learning possibilities. Similarly, Brooks & Donato (1994) asserted that L1 is significant because its use during TL conversations is considered a common psychological process, speaking being a cognitive activity, and thinking and speaking being closely linked. L1 use can facilitate TL production, solve task-related problems such as establishing procedures for performing tasks and negotiating meanings, sustaining interactions, and creating a shared social environment through speaking activities.

However, Guk & Kellogg (2007) have doubted whether group/pair work is applicable in countries such as South Korea, where teachers reject the ZPD concept because the class is teacher-centered and they see their job as one of teaching the whole class together. They found that the features of student-student interaction were more L1 use, salient errors, negotiation and confirmation of word meanings, longer and more complex sentences, and concerns about conversation flow. Conversely, the features of teacher-student interaction were more TL use, more accuracy, more metalanguage, shorter sentences, concern about grammar, and use of commands. They concluded that student-student interaction in both TL and L1 can cause internalization through scaffolding among learners because they use L1 and grasp word meanings through discussion, whereas teachers can help learners perform better and organize an appropriate social environment for learning.

Based on a wide range of empirical evidence, Hall & Cook (2012) have concluded that own-language use has been increasingly accepted in English classrooms for explanation, classroom management and rapport-building. Cook (2010) has stated that L1 use not only helps to preserve bilingual identity and understand other cultures and other ways of thinking through language comparison and contrastive analysis, but also provides learners with faster and more productive explanations, makes them more motivated and less alienated, and helps to foster a good rapport between teachers and students. In short, L1 use quickly gives students a comfortable escape from troubling situations through comprehension support, which reduces anxiety, increases enthusiasm, self-confidence and risk-taking, and then leads to successful SLA. Additionally, L1 use may create a collaborative, unthreatening learning environment among classmates where students can experience positive emotion. Therefore, judicious use of L1 should be encouraged rather than denied because it is one of the strategies naturally used in teaching and learning. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that more TL use offers students more opportunity to practice speaking TL, thus helping to improve TL proficiency, especially productive skills such as speaking. Therefore, the following discussion will focus on the advantages of TL use.

1.2.2 TL use

Despite some beneficial functions of L1 in FL classes, such as being an efficient teaching and learning tool and a conversational lubricant (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Brooks-Lewis, 2009), interesting and different insights have been provided by some

studies on the relationship between anxiety and language choice. With regard to L1 use as a last resort, some researchers (Carless, 2008; Levine, 2003) have proposed more TL exposure and practice both in and out of class for reducing anxiety and improving TL speaking fluency. Although it should be pointed out that debating the precise ideal degree of TL/L1 use was not the purpose of the present study, it would be an interesting topic for further research.

Increased use of TL might help to increase communicative competence. Some researchers (Harbord, 1992; Polio & Duff, 1994; Stern, 1996; Turnbull, 2001) have considered that too much L1 use can undermine the purpose of improving communicative competence in EFL classes, as L1 overuse may decrease student contact with TL. MacDonald (1993) has stated that TL use is advantageous in that it can give students more confidence, enjoyment, satisfaction and enthusiasm, even if they have limited language ability, thereby increasing their speaking fluency. In order to use TL more, Neil (1997) has suggested that teachers can utilize other practical strategies such as slower and clearer speech, repetition, and basic vocabulary. This has also been supported by Chaudron (1988), who considered that the use of substitute words, references, exemplification, scaffolding, visual aids, written support, mime and gesture was beneficial. As the students in Kraemer's (2006) study were required to learn grammar at home and practice it in class, there was little use of L1 grammar explanations in class. Willis (1981) suggests that through exclusive use of TL, students may be unconsciously practicing a number of language skills, learning how to listen and select keywords, and beginning to think in English for themselves, thereby reducing the amount of interference from L1.

Carless (2008) has maintained that L1 use is "a humanistic and learner-centered strategy" (p. 336), but that too much L1 dependence may discourage TL communication. Therefore, some specific strategies were proposed, such as appointing monitor students to encourage TL use by classmates, giving a reward to groups who use TL, and recording their activities to check for L1 use. Moreover, it is vital for teachers to persuade all students not to overuse their L1 by explaining the importance of TL use in communicative practice (especially for those with higher proficiency), at the same time allowing beginners to take steps to gradually increase their use of TL, and to use visual aids for the vocabulary and structures required for completing the task. This is congruent with Scrivener (2011),

who stressed the importance of creating a classroom atmosphere in which using TL is normal, natural and not intimidating, instead of relying on L1 use.

With regard to reduction of speaking anxiety, frequent exposure to TL may be useful (Levine, 2003; Liu, 2006; Thompson & Lee, 2012). Shao, Yu, & Ji (2013) have stated that students should learn to create their own opportunities for speaking TL, both inside and outside the classroom, and thereby reduce anxiety as their level of English proficiency improves. Yashima (2002) has stated that students need a satisfying experience to make them feel comfortable learning a new language, resulting in WTC. WTC, a positive emotion, is the enthusiasm to talk with others, thus reducing anxiety and promoting SLA. MacIntyre & Mercer (2014) have introduced positive psychology to SLA, especially in areas such as the humanistic movement in language teaching, motivation models, affective filters, studies of good language learners, and the concept of the self. Moreover, Baker & MacIntyre (2000) have shown that perceived competence and WTC were strongly correlated among non-immersion students, whereas communication anxiety and WTC were closely linked among immersion students. Strong WTC can lead to lower anxiety and higher perceived competence, and thus a higher frequency of TL use.

Levine (2003) reported the results of an anonymous internet-based questionnaire study about the relationship between TL use and student anxiety involving 600 FL students and 163 FL instructors in university-level FL classes. It was found that the amount of TL use varied according to the interlocutors and contexts in communication. TL was used less for communication among students than for student-teacher and teacher-student communication. The TL was used more for communication during theme-based activities, and less for discussion of grammar and test instructions. Learners often become anxious speaking TL in classes (Young, cited in Levine, 2003, p. 346), and therefore Levine hypothesized that less TL use might help learners to reduce their anxiety. However, the amount of TL use was negatively correlated with student anxiety level. More frequent users of TL in FL classes were students who were in their second year, those who expected a higher grade, those with a bilingual background and higher motivation, those who were taught by teachers who employed TL instructional strategies, and those who tended to have a lower level of TL use anxiety. In view of this lower anxiety in frequent TL users, Levine proposed that teachers should use TL as much as possible, but that L1 should be accepted simultaneously. This study had some limitations as the findings were

based on participants' perceptions and beliefs, and not on actual observations of classroom interaction. Also, the respondents were not selected randomly, and included only those who had access to the Internet and were willing to fill in the form; furthermore, the questionnaires did not include information on individual personality, learning style or proficiency level. In this situation, more frequent users of TL might have been higher-proficiency learners, and thus used TL more and felt less anxious about it. Although this is an ongoing debate in the field of FLCA, Levine's findings were eye-opening for me. Therefore it seems important to clarify which of the findings of Levine and Young better represent Japanese EFL students, and this aspect is addressed as research question 3 in Chapter 5.

1.2.3 English proficiency, L1 use and anxiety

Students at all levels use L1 in varying amounts when learning a TL. FLCA is significantly and negatively correlated with students' self-rated English proficiency and the development of overall FL. The more students improve their TL proficiency, the less anxious they appear to be, and beginners can make progress faster when L1 is used in classes (Ahmad, 2009; Kim, 2011). Swain & Lapkin (2000) have reported that all learners utilized L1, but the purpose of use differed between beginners and advanced-level students. Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991) mentioned that L2 limitations made less TL-proficient learners more dependent on their L1, which was considered to be a communication strategy. However, even advanced-level students may need to use L1 if presented with difficult materials or tasks (Kitano, 2001; Saito & Samimy, 1996). These findings, and their relationship to anxiety, will be examined here in more detail, starting with use of L1 and anxiety in beginners.

1.2.3.1 L1 use and anxiety in beginners

Ahmad (2009) conducted a questionnaire survey of 257 students with low English proficiency at a public university in Malaysia in order to investigate students' perceptions of L1 use by teachers. Ahmad found that low-proficiency students benefited extensively from teachers' L1 use, as it helped to improve their affective state through enjoyment, satisfaction, reduction of tension, and a feeling of being more involved in lessons. When teachers use more L1, students can understand new words, difficult concepts, grammar and task instructions, and successfully complete tasks or activities, which will result in

learning success. Ahmad concluded that an English-only policy cannot ensure students' comprehension and may lead to frustration. Therefore, teachers' L1 use should be considered as a teaching strategy for transfer of comprehensible input from teachers to students.

Kim (2011) examined the efficiency of translation through self-translation and collaborative grammar-translation among 20 low-proficiency EFL Korean college students in a communicative writing class in South Korea. Through the practice of translation, the students discovered mistakes, wrong grammar, unclear expressions, and inappropriate words and phrases. Moreover, these students had a lower level of frustration when they were able to deliver messages clearly to their partners. Kim believes that "An approach based on grammar-translation can be useful for achieving a communication goal" (p.160), and students' L1 can be a vital resource, especially for low-level learners.

The findings of Ahmad and Kim with regard to the relationship between proficiency and anxiety suggest that less English-proficient students are more anxious and use more L1. Conversely, Deller & Rinvolucri (2002) have maintained that students at all levels can better understand grammar and new vocabulary items when using L1. Grim (2010) also found that college instructors used more L1 for metalinguistic explanations when teaching grammar, in comparison with secondary school teachers. Therefore, the following section explores the reasons why even advanced-level learners sometimes need L1.

1.2.3.2 L1 use and anxiety in advanced-level students

Swain & Lapkin (2000) investigated L1 use by 22 pairs of French immersion students (both high and low proficiency) in Canada for completing tasks such as a dictogloss and a jigsaw, and found that both types of learner often utilized their L1 for task management purposes. Proficient pairs used their L1 for task management, vocabulary searching and understanding, while less proficient pairs did so for vocabulary search, sequencing and going off-task. Although these uses of L1 differed, they served vital cognitive and social functions for both types of learner. Although these French immersion students often used L1 during their tasks, which is against the aim of immersion programs, it was useful to them.

Similarly, Carson & Kashihara (2012) have stated that all proficiency groups used L1 sparingly. They evaluated L1 use in L2 classes at a public Japanese university through a questionnaire, and found that 1) most of their 305 participants preferred teachers' L1 use less than 40% of the time, and that this declined with higher proficiency; and 2) advanced-level students faced with difficult materials wanted to use L1 for task management, while beginners in particular wanted L1 for both clarification and emotional support. Therefore, they felt that occasional strategic use of L1 was advantageous for students at all levels along with more TL use, as L1 can quickly assist students in comparing L1 and TL grammar, explaining new vocabulary, and checking comprehension.

Focusing more on the affective domain, Saito & Samimy (1996) (see 1.1.3.3 Gender differences in FLCA) found using a 29-item questionnaire that language class risk-taking, i.e. the likelihood that students would risk using new Japanese words or phrases in class (see Appendix 2: The five-point Likert scale questionnaire: B.), and final grade were closely correlated with language anxiety for students at all levels. That is, the more anxious students were, the less likely they would be to take risks, or to attain a higher grade, irrespective of proficiency level (i.e. beginner, intermediate-level, or advanced-level.) Anxiety did not decrease as proficiency increased, and in fact advanced-level learners had the highest anxiety, similarly to learners with lower self-perception. Therefore, the authors speculated that because advanced-level learners used difficult materials with a shorter instructional time and placed much emphasis on reading and writing, they were afraid of making mistakes and had a stronger fear of negative evaluation.

The findings of Saito & Samimy were supported by Kitano (2001) (see 1.1.3.3 Gender differences in FLCA), who reported that students who had a stronger fear of negative evaluation, as well as those who had a lower perceived ability to speak Japanese, had higher anxiety. Actually, students who were at an advanced-level, but whose fear of negative evaluation was high, had stronger anxiety because they had more chances to notice their errors due to their higher proficiency. This made them easily ashamed of making errors in relatively simple expressions, thus causing them to lose self-confidence. In other words, some advanced-level learners had higher anxiety than beginners and intermediate-level learners because of their higher self-expectation and lower

self-perceived speaking ability. This suggests that students ought to have realistic expectations and make every effort to increase self-confidence.

Investigations of whether TL proficiency level may have some influence on L1 use have suggested that students' TL proficiency is not the only factor influencing how and how much L1 should be used, because both teachers and students inevitably use L1 when encountering difficult materials, regardless of student proficiency level. If teachers keep using only TL for materials that are regarded as difficult, then students cannot understand lessons and their anxiety increases because they realize the lessons are beyond their ability. While advocating judicious use of L1, teachers should seek various ways of creating a student-centered environment in order to develop students' linguistic awareness and autonomy.

1.3 Summary

I have chronologically reviewed earlier studies to illustrate the development of research on FL-related student anxiety. It appears that early studies in this field used different conceptualizations and scales, which created inconsistent results. Therefore, my present research adopted the definition of FLCA (a specific type of anxiety closely associated with language learning) given by Horwitz et al. (1986). Although anxiety can be either debilitating or facilitating, such a division was not considered in this research. With regard to stability, it has been tentatively accepted that stability in general FLCA is independent of TL, so that the FLCAS is considered to be reliable, irrespective of TL. Factors influencing FLCA based on this research suggest the importance of considering FLCA from the perspectives of students, and also the need to identify sources of anxiety, individual differences, gender differences, and cultural factors associated with FLCA. The main sources of anxiety for students include presentations, error correction, lack of self-confidence, poor motivation, time and peer pressure, teacher-centered classes and restriction of L1 use. Research in Western, Middle-eastern and Asian countries has indicated that cross-cultural similarities and differences in anxiety exist. Learners in EFL contexts tend to use L1 because they share the same mother tongue with classmates, and Japanese EFL students in particular show a desire to keep silent or get L1 help when in trouble.

A review of the literature on L1 use in TL classes indicates that EFL students find that it can aid comprehension and help to establish collaborative relationships with classmates, with consequent reduction of FLCA. Therefore, although students must make every effort to increase their TL exposure, L1 use should be allowed if students cannot understand lessons, thus promoting TL competence and reducing anxiety. The proper balance between L1 and TL use in classes remains debatable, and is a subject for future research. Obviously, many studies are in agreement that beginners are more anxious and use more L1, although advanced-level learners also resort to L1 when presented with difficult materials or task types that make them feel anxious. The issue of proficiency level and L1 use in relation to FLCA is still clearly unresolved.

1.4 Rationale for the present research and the issues investigated

The belief that interaction in EFL classes should be conducted in English is still common at universities in Japan. However, recent research (Hall & Cook, 2012) has indicated that L1 use by students can be a vital communication tool for clarification and reducing anxiety. Likewise, Cook (2010) has stated that L1 can be used for facilitating comprehension, smooth organization of classroom management, and creating a positive learning environment. Cook mentions that teachers sometimes need to code-switch to increase student comprehension, allowing them to utilize limited class time more efficiently through translation, as students share the same L1 in EFL classes. According to Edstrom (2006), teachers should accept that students' L1 knowledge can compensate for their lack of TL proficiency because L1 is an effective tool for facilitating cognition and task completion. On the basis of previous research findings accessed in my literature review, including those mentioned above, I planned to investigate three research issues. My primary aim was to focus on the emotional aspects of learning English in Japan and to investigate whether L1 use and/or some other variables can help to reduce student anxiety. To this end, research question 1, "Why do Japanese EFL college students experience FLCA?" is addressed in Chapter 3.

The literature indicates that beginners are much more dependent on L1 because they need to compensate for their basic TL ability with the help of L1 (Ahmad, 2009), although advanced-level learners also use L1 occasionally when dealing with difficult materials (Carson & Kashihara, 2012). With regard to the gap between these research findings, my hypothesis is that both aspects have validity: beginners need more L1, but

advanced-level learners also sometimes need some L1 because students may have different needs or reasons for L1 use, depending on their proficiency level. Furthermore, recent empirical studies that have investigated the relationship between FLCA and L1 use in Japan have indicated that Japanese students may need more L1 help, rather than adhering to an English-only policy (Barker, 2003; Burden, 2000; Harumi, 2011; Rivers, 2011). In order to address this issue, my research question 2, "What factors are linked to L1 use among Japanese EFL college students?" is examined in Chapter 4, where the relationship between FLCA and variables such as Japanese use versus English use and reported English proficiency level will be primarily investigated.

Although strict L1 restriction in order to improve TL proficiency is one of the biggest sources of anxiety in EFL classes (Rivers, 2011), other factors such as individual enthusiasm, self-confidence, error correction or peer pressure may also play a role (Young, 1990). Advocates of L1 use (Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Fotos, 2001) insist that L1 is necessary to some extent in order for students to understand what is going on in TL classes, join in class activities, reduce their anxiety, and experience positive emotions because L1 knowledge helps students understand TL better, allows them to express their opinions/feelings freely, and consequently make them comfortable. Moreover, when students are allowed to use L1 judiciously, they can increase their degree of risk-taking and self-confidence as they keep up with lessons, thus helping to enhance their enthusiasm (Cook, 2010). It is also vital to create an environment where classmates help each other and develop ZPD using both L1 and TL (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999).

However, some research findings suggest that the more TL is used, the lower anxiety becomes (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008; Levine, 2003). Moreover, more TL use increases fundamental SLA ability because TL use can enhance inference skills and help students listen and speak better in TL (Willis, 1981). In order to increase student comprehension without L1 use, teachers can use alternative approaches such as visual aids, basic words delivered at slow speed, and repetition (Neil, 1997; Chaudron, 1988). If students have an enjoyable experience when practicing to speak TL and become familiar with it, they can increase their self-confidence and enthusiasm, and reduce their anxiety about learning TL (MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014). Therefore, the importance of using TL as much as possible has been emphasized.

Considering these differing opinions on both sides of EFL research, my hypothesis is that although L1 use can quickly reduce students' short-term anxiety, students are unable to improve their fundamental SLA or learn how to express what they want to say in TL if they always rely on L1. If students feel they are losing opportunities to improve their TL speaking ability, this makes them more anxious. Therefore, they retain a degree of long-term anxiety if they are unable to break "bad habits" such as L1 overuse because their self-confidence does not improve if speaking practice is restricted. In order to address this issue, my research question 3, "Does frequent use of English out of class have positive effects in reducing FLCA among Japanese EFL college students?" is discussed in Chapter 5. The pedagogical implications will also be discussed accordingly.

Chapter 2: Research Methods and Design

This chapter describes the research methodology and design employed in this study. The main purpose of the research was to investigate the relationship between FLCA and other variables, including L1 use, reported English proficiency level, self-confidence, enthusiasm, gender, and teacher-type preference. A cross-sectional, mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) approach was adopted. I compiled a questionnaire consisting of three parts – a five-point Likert scale, an open-ended questionnaire, and background information on the students – focusing on FLCA and L1 use. After conducting a pilot study of thirteen students employing an online-based questionnaire survey, the reliability of each item in the five-point Likert scale component was verified using Cronbach's alpha (a tool for assessing the reliability of scales). On this basis, a final version of the questionnaire was obtained and implemented for 257 students in a co-educational language-oriented private university in Japan using a triangulation of methods approach. After taking the paper-based questionnaire survey in order to obtain a comprehensive picture of anxiety issues, focus group and individual interviews were conducted for 37 selected students based on their anxiety levels. Classroom observations were also carried out in order to better understand the actual situations of the participants in relation to their learning environment.

The research design used in this study is described in Section 2.1; the pilot study and procedure employed are discussed in Section 2.2; detailed information about the participants follows in Section 2.3; details of the quantitative data are covered in Section 2.4; next, section 2.5 gives details of the qualitative data; finally, a summary is given in Section 2.6.

2.1 Research design

Looking back on the history of research methods in this field, Creswell (2003) states in an overview of the mixed methods approach that quantitative approaches have been available to scientists (human and social) for about 80 years, whereas qualitative approaches emerged only 30 or 40 years ago, and the mixed methods approach is new and still developing. Focusing on interaction studies, Mackey, Abbuhl, & Gass (2012) consider that most interaction studies have employed quantitative methods, although studies using qualitative methods to examine the internal processes of learners have been

increasing, focusing on their perceptions about interaction. Therefore it appears that the mixed methods approach involving both quantitative and qualitative surveys is becoming more popular, Dörnyei (2007, pp. 42~43) having stated that "mixed methods research has been increasingly seen as a third approach in research methodology with the introduction of the concept of triangulation". Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2009) have defined triangulation as "the use of different data collection techniques within one study in order to ensure that the data are telling you what you think they are telling you" (p.146). In other words, mixed methods research seems to have emerged in order to gain a holistic perspective and introduce a collaborative attitude to research; Howe (1988) has stated: "So-called quantitative studies are pregnant with (ontologically) qualitative concepts" (p.15). Moreover, Dörnyei (ibid.) has proposed that a mixed methods approach can provide additional advantages for understanding a phenomenon because quantitative and qualitative approaches can complement each other, counteracting the deficiencies in each: quantitative methods may lack depth data whereas qualitative methods may lack representative data, although researchers need to be properly trained in both approaches.

On the basis of Dörnyei's opinion (ibid.), a mixed methods approach (i.e., a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods) was adopted for the present research. It was considered that statistical analyses of the questionnaire data would allow identification of general trends. Classroom observations were also conducted to observe the participants' natural activity in actual class settings, focusing on L1 use (see below, 2.5.1 Classroom observations). It was anticipated that focus group and individual interviews would reveal the internal thought processes of participants, which would assist interpretation of the quantitative data.

This research was conducted in a private language-oriented university in Japan in the fall semester of 2013 using cross-sectional research methods to "examine characteristics of samples from different populations during the same time period" (Sproull, 1995, p. 372), and to allow "the study of a particular phenomenon (or phenomena) at a particular time" (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009, p. 155). A pragmatic research paradigm was adopted, as my intention was to study the use of languages in communication, particularly the situations in which they are used. Additionally, as I was an insider, I already knew the system and had noticed what I considered to be crucial problems in the context of Japanese EFL. My focus was based on my previous experience as a practitioner and I considered myself to be sufficiently qualified as a researcher so that I

thought I did not have to do preliminary fieldwork to frame my research questions. Through my experiences both as a learner and as a teacher as well as my literature review, I had already noticed that anxiety, enthusiasm and self-confidence are deeply related to students' comprehension and performance. My incentive for this research was whether an English-only policy is the most effective way for Japanese EFL college students to improve speaking fluency or not. Additionally, I wondered what inhibited students from their TL progress and what could make them improve their fluency. I hope my findings might highlight some interesting and useful facets that can help to improve English teaching in Japan.

2.2 Pilot study and procedure

Following the view of Mackey & Gass (2008) that questionnaires can collect data about opinions and attitudes from many participants in an economical and practical way, and allow researchers to obtain answers from a large amount of respondents in a short period of time, I implemented a pilot study (online questionnaire survey) in February 2013. This employed a questionnaire presented in bilingual English-Japanese format. It was initially written in English, as some Likert scale questionnaire items were adopted from those of previous researchers, and then translated into Japanese so that every student could understand it fully. The questionnaire was composed of three parts: items evaluated using a five-point Likert scale, some open-ended questions, and some questions on background. This was based on Mackey & Gass (2008), who have stated that a blend of different question types may be ideal as open-ended items can give insightful and unexpected data, whereas answers to closed-item questions have uniformity and reliability and can be easily quantified and analyzed. The background questions included some that sought to obtain private information (see Appendix 2). The introductory paragraph of the questionnaire stated: "The aim of this research is to help better understand the relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) and use of the first language (Japanese) during interaction in English classes". Although the questionnaire indicated this focus on L1, it emphasized the neutrality of whether the researcher agreed or disagreed with L1 use, and explained that the purpose of the research was to extract the true feelings of students in order to find the best approach for helping reduce student anxiety and what kind of roles L1 use might play in this context in task-based English classes.

The five-point Likert scale questionnaire in this research included questions on FLCA (5 items) and risk-taking (6 items) used by Saito & Samimy (1996). Saito & Samimy adapted Gardner's (1985) Language Class Anxiety (Cronbach alpha = .89) five-item scale, which measures student's feelings of anxiety in L2 class, and Ely's (1986) Language Class Risk-taking (Cronbach alpha = .80) six-item scale that was designed to measure students' tendency to assume risks by using TL in class. According to Field (2013), any Cronbach's alpha value above .7 indicates higher reliability. Therefore, these items pertaining to both Language Class Anxiety and Language Class Risk-taking are considered reliable. Additionally, it has been shown that Language Class Risk-taking (i.e. learners' willingness to take risks using TL in L2 classes) is a strong predictor of class participation and proficiency, and that Language Class Anxiety is a significant negative predictor of language class risk-taking (Ely, 1986). As some researchers (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989) have not recognized test anxiety as a factor contributing to students' FLCA, Gardner's (1985) anxiety scale, which only addresses communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation, was used in this study in addition to Ely's risk-taking scale. The questionnaire also focused on how often and when students wanted to use their L1. With regard to L1 use, Fotos (2001) has mentioned that there are two types of L1 use – that for comprehension support and that acting as an affective filter – as discussed in Chapter 1 (see 1.2.1 L1 use). L1 use was therefore divided into two categories: 1) that for increasing students' comprehension (14 items) - coded as 'understanding (L1 use for clarification purposes)' and 2) that for reducing anxiety (14 items) - coded as 'emotion (L1 use for emotional support purposes)'. The items were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, neither agree nor disagree = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1, with higher total scores indicating higher levels of each category.

The pilot study was undertaken to check whether or not the items in the questionnaire were appropriate. Some participants were recruited through former students of the university where I had previously lectured and conducted this research. Twenty students were invited to participate in the survey, and thirteen students responded. Participants were also asked whether they had any difficulties in understanding and responding to the questionnaire items, and how long it took to complete them. The responses were helpful for revision of the final version of the questionnaire. The pilot study data were entered into a spreadsheet and the results were compared among participants using the five-point Likert scale, the reliability of which was checked using Cronbach's alpha as a measure of

internal consistency, an important parameter of stability over time. Some items with low reliability were discarded, following Field's (2013) statement: "Cronbach's alpha indicates the overall reliability of a questionnaire, and values around .8 indicate high reliability (or .7 for ability tests and the like)" (p.715).

After analyzing all the feedback from the open-ended questionnaire in the pilot study, six items were added to account for students' levels of perfectionism. This personality trait is associated with higher levels of anxiety, as supported by Pishghadam & Akhondpoor (2011). If this research had revealed a close correlation between perfectionism and higher anxiety, then students with the perfectionist trait might have shown a greater tendency to become anxious. However, although the perfectionist trait may be related to anxiety, it is far from the only or most influential factor. Anxiety is, by nature, linked in complex ways with other factors, so a perfectionist student would tend to become anxious through a combination of various factors. Accordingly, I included perfectionism as one of the factors that caused anxiety. Six statements out of thirty from an online version of the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS) with revised scoring (Frost et al., 1990) were used because this scale has quickly gained a strong reputation in both the research and clinical fields. Ideally, use of all 30 statements would have been preferable, but to avoid significantly lengthening the survey, these six statements were chosen as a representative sample of FMPS responses because they bore least resemblance to each other; I had assumed that some bias might occur in assessing students' perfectionism if six items showing similarity to each other had been selected.

After conducting the pilot study, I contacted the university where I had previously worked in order to obtain permission to carry out my studies in their classes. My research proposal and an ethical statement signed by the Ethics Committee of Birkbeck College, University of London, were sent to the university. In my proposal, I guaranteed subject anonymity (no names of students would be used), confidentiality (secrecy of students' written and verbal statements), and non-traceability (individual responses would not be traceable to the subjects concerned) and explained some of the ways in which the results could be advantageous to students, teachers and the school. My statement to this effect was as follows: "By participating in this research, students will have the advantage of expressing their honest opinions about English classes. If students can learn English in a comfortable atmosphere, their learning satisfaction will increase and they may be able to improve their English speaking ability more effectively. The findings may also help

teachers to understand students' feelings and allow them to take a more proactive approach towards easing students' FLCA by rethinking their teaching methods, thus facilitating better classroom interaction with students and making a more effective contribution to improving their students' English speaking skills. The results may also help the school to foster a more culturally appropriate learning atmosphere that is both practical and feasible, and facilitate improvements in teacher education, the curriculum and teaching methods." On the basis of this proposal, I was officially granted permission to perform my research in the university.

2.3 Participants
2.3.1 Background of the participating teachers

The method used for recruiting teachers and students for participation in this study was as follows: First, I contacted a previous coworker and asked her to recruit other teachers who might be willing to help with the research. I then asked these teachers for permission to access their students. In total, seven teachers helped with this research (although one teacher helped with only the questionnaire survey) and offered their task-based English classes for study. Each of the teachers decides on a textbook(s) to use in their own classes at their own discretion, and so the textbook(s) employed differed among the teachers. The English programs at the university employ an English-only policy, to which the teachers had to adhere. Although it was accepted by teachers and students that Japanese should be mostly avoided, teachers were able to use Japanese unofficially when students failed to understand the lesson content. The teachers were all considerably experienced with an average of eighteen years teaching experience (ranging from twelve to forty years).

Table 2.1: Description of participating teachers

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7
Gender	Female	Female	Female	Male	Male	Male	Male
Nationality	Japanese	Japanese	Japanese	Japanese	Japanese	American	Korean
Status	Full time	Full time	Part time	Full time	Full time	Full time	Full time
Degree	PhD	Pursuing PhD	MA	Holding PhD Credits	MA	PhD	PhD
Experience	13 years	12 years	15 years	16 years	12 years	40 years	15 years
Class type	Reading, TOEFLprep	Media, Reading	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Speaking	Reading, TOEFLprep
Classroom observation	4 times	20 times: 9 media, 6 fresh, 5 sopho	4 times	6 times: 3 fresh 3 junior	3 times	12 times as participant-as-observer	0 times (not allowed)
Students	E major, Advanced, Fresh, Optional Class	L3 major, Advanced, Fresh, Sopho	L3 major, Inter, Junior, Senior	E major, Inter, Fresh, Junior	L3 major, Inter, Junior, Senior	Mostly E major, Optional Class	E major, Advanced, Fresh, Optional Class
Use of language	English/ Japanese if necessary	English only	Japanese/ a little English	English only	Japanese/ English	English	English/ Japanese if necessary

Note: Preparation: prep; Freshman: Fresh; Sophomore: Sopho; English major: E major; Intermediate: Inter

Teacher 1 was a native Japanese female bilingual in Japanese and English. She was a full-time teacher with a PhD from an American university, and had thirteen years of teaching experience at the time of data collection. She was in charge of a TOEFL preparation class that was a required elective: i.e., the students have to select one class from among several choices offered by the university (optional class in the curriculum) advanced freshman class (20 students) in the English department. She effectively code-switched between English and Japanese, depending on the teaching purpose. When she had to explain grammar or difficult parts in the TOEFL preparation reading materials, she used Japanese. However, when she used another textbook that was also focused on reading, she used only English. She used Japanese only when the students could not understand the lesson content.

Teacher 2 was a native Japanese female bilingual in Japanese and English. She was a full-time teacher pursuing a PhD at a USA campus university in Japan, and had twelve years of teaching experience. She was in charge of a media English class in the IBERO American (Portuguese, Indonesian, Thai or Vietnamese major) department (22 students), a CSK (Chinese, Spanish or Korean major) freshman English class (26 students), and a CSK sophomore English class (20 students). All of these were advanced-level required

classes (part of the school curriculum). She used only English in all of her classes. Even if students asked her questions in Japanese, she always answered them in easy English and always encouraged them to use more English in an unthreatening manner.

Teacher 3 was a native Japanese female bilingual in Japanese and English. She was a part-time teacher with an MA from an American university and had fifteen years of teaching experience. She instructed a required CSK advanced English class (19 students), which was an intermediate-level class for junior students (although a few seniors attended). She focused on listening practice using a textbook, including materials related to travelling. She often code-switched, but she used more Japanese than English. The students were more concerned with getting class credits than learning English, as their major was in other languages (Chinese, Spanish and Korean) and they had an intermediate-level of English proficiency in the CSK department. They appeared to be less enthusiastic about learning English compared to the other classes.

Teacher 4 was a native Japanese male bilingual in Japanese and English. He was a full-time teacher, holding PhD credits from an American university and had sixteen years of teaching experience. As he was fairly fluent in English and supported an English-only policy, he never used Japanese in classes. The classes he taught were speech-focused, required classes for highly motivated English major freshman (21 students) and juniors (21 students) who were at intermediate-level in the English department. His classes were completely student-centered and discussion-oriented, where students could practice English as much as they wanted.

Teacher 5 was a native Japanese male bilingual in Japanese and English. He was a full-time teacher with an MA from an Australian university and had twelve years of teaching experience. He was in charge of a required CSK advanced business English class (22 students) for intermediate-level junior students (although a few seniors also attended). He often code-switched in classes because he felt comfortable using Japanese when explaining new words, grammar and his past experiences in the process of learning English.

Teacher 6 was a native American male who was monolingual in English but knew a smattering of Japanese. He was a full-time teacher with a PhD from a university in Switzerland and had forty years of teaching experience. He was in charge of a 'ways of

learning' class, which consisted of students ranging from freshman to seniors in various departments. However, most of the students were English majors. This class was an optional one (72 students) and the class activities were conducted by either paired partners or small groups. I joined the lessons as a participant-as-observer. Most students were highly motivated and did not use Japanese during the lessons. The teacher mostly spoke English at a natural speed, sometimes slowing to use simpler English to explain difficult words. He used his limited Japanese only to explain Japanese proverbs. The students seemed relaxed and enjoyed the lessons because the teacher created a good communal atmosphere in which they could help each other.

Teacher 7 only distributed the paper-based questionnaire, and requested I did not enter his class even for purposes of passive observation. He was in charge of a TOEFL preparation class that was an optional advanced freshman class (18 students) in the English department. He was a trilingual Korean-native teacher who had been living in Japan for the last five years. He had a PhD from an American university and over fifteen years of teaching experience. His students stated that he often code-switched between English and Japanese in order to teach the TOEFL materials.

In fact, as can be seen, there are some differences in teaching styles between the teachers and such differences may affect student anxiety. For instance, students may have less anxiety, stronger enthusiasm and self-confidence in classes where teachers make every effort to reduce student anxiety, and therefore students may be able to improve their proficiency. Although the small number of teachers observed here meant I could not reach systematic quantitative conclusions about teaching style, I discuss several important implications for teacher-student interaction (see chapter 3 and 6). This is an interesting topic for future research (see 6.3 Suggestions for further research).

2.3.2 Background of the participating students

The paper-based questionnaire was distributed to 257 Japanese EFL college students. The distribution data are shown in Appendix 7. There were 65 male students (25%) and 191 female students (75%); the gender for one student was unknown. Female students thus outnumbered their male peers by a ratio of three to one. This reflected the male to female ratio of the university population as a whole. Students ranged in age from 18 to 24 years; three students were of unknown age. The median age was 19 years, accounting for

86 students. There were 105 freshmen (42%), 68 sophomores (27%), 62 juniors (25%) and 17 seniors (7%) (the grades of five students were missing).

The university had an English Department, an International Communication (IC) Department including an International Business Communication (IBC) Department, a CSK Department (Chinese, Spanish or Korean major), and an IBERO American Department (Portuguese, Indonesian, Thai or Vietnamese major). Freshmen and sophomores, especially in the department of English, International Communication (IC) and International Business Communication (IBC), took many required English classes that were conducted in English mostly by native English-speaking teachers in the English Language Institute (ELI). Students in other departments also needed to take at least four required English classes per term. In this study, 130 students (51%) were in a required English class and 127 students (49%) were in a required elective (optional) class, as the classes taught by the native English-speaking teacher and the TOEFL preparation class were part of the optional curriculum. With regard to the grade satisfaction of students in English classes (which measures whether or not students are satisfied with the grades they receive from teachers), this varied from "satisfied" (187 students, 74%) to "dissatisfied" (65 students, 26%); one student was neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

Participants majoring in languages other than English also participated in the research, as English was a required subject for all students. They understood the importance of improving their English, which is regarded as one of the leading languages used throughout the world. The numbers of various language major students were 144 (57%) English, 47 (19%) Spanish or Portuguese, and 62 (25%) Asian languages (Chinese, Korean, Thai, Indonesian or Vietnamese), with 4 unknown majors. For these students, acquiring a third language (L3) was considered an advantage for getting a job, although they started studying their L3 (the language of their major, not L3 English) after entering the university.

Usual practice in Japanese EFL classes varies from school to school, but English education in the university investigated in this study focused on speaking and listening in addition to grammar, reading, translation practice and writing, thus differing from many others in Japan where the syllabus does not place strong emphasis on oral communication. Although the students were given opportunities to practice speaking in class, the amount of time they spoke English outside the classroom varied from 0 to 40 hours a week. The

median was 0 and the mean was 1.3 hours a week. One student spoke English 40 hours per week as she had a part-time job teaching English to students in an English conversation school, but most students had no satisfactory speaking practice outside the classroom.

The frequency of using English appears to be reflected in students' teacher-type preference. The study subjects were asked "From whom do you want to learn English? Please circle one of the following: bilingual Japanese-native teachers (BJNT), bilingual English-native teachers (BENT) or monolingual English-native teachers (MENT)." The students were then asked to write the reason for their choice. It was found that 124 students (48%) wanted to learn from BJNT, 77 students (30%) from BENT, and 56 students (22%) from MENT. Thus, the order of preference was BJNT as the first choice, BENT as the second choice, and MENT as the last choice for students of both genders. However, with regard to teachers' native language, 133 students (52%) preferred learning from English-native teachers. This was because students thought they would have an opportunity to learn a variety of words, idioms, phrases, useful expressions, correct pronunciation and accent with natural speed from native English-speaking teachers.

The studied cohort of students was in some ways relatively homogeneous, with all but a few having Japanese parents, according to their teachers. In fact, apart from a few students who had started learning English since infancy either with a private tutor or at a private English conversation school (number not known, but revealed by some students at interview), most students had had an ordinary Japanese-style English education, starting with English activities such as singing songs and playing games every week or every other week for 50 minutes with a native English-speaking teacher from the 5th grade of elementary school. Formal English education in Japan still begins from the first grade in junior high school. The median length of time the participants had spent studying English prior to and including university was 8.8 years, ranging from 2 years (one student had attended neither junior-high nor high school and studied alone at home, entering the university by passing the entrance examination of academic ability) to 19 years (a few students had started learning English from infancy). With regard to experience studying abroad in an English-speaking country, 111 students had done so, for periods ranging from 7 days to 5 years. The median length of study experience abroad was 0 and the mean

was 1.8 months (7.2 weeks). One exceptional student had lived abroad for 5 years, but the country was not specified in the questionnaire.

The overall language proficiency level of the students was generally good because their main aim was to study language(s). In terms of classifying and coding the data, reported English proficiency levels were classified into three levels according to the students' reported test scores: Basic level was below 499 for TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), pre-second grade for STEP (The Society for Testing English Proficiency, Inc.), and below 434 for paper-based TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language); intermediate level ranged from 500 to 699 for TOEIC, second grade for STEP, and from 435 to 510 for TOEFL; advanced level was above 700 for TOEIC, above pre-first grade for STEP, and above 511 for TOEFL. The range of these scores was determined by the researcher, based on ten years of EFL teaching experience as differences in students' test scores were not large, making it difficult to use the conversion table comparing the results of the three tests posted in test preparation materials by publishing companies because the table seemed to be an unreliable indicator of the students' scores. As a result, 27 students (19%) were considered to be at basic level, 85 (59%) at intermediate level, and 33 (23%) at advanced level. No responses to this question item were obtained from 112 students, presumably because they had not taken any tests, had forgotten the score, or perhaps chose to keep the score secret.

With regard to self-assessed enthusiasm and self-assessed comprehension, students were asked to enter the following self-evaluations: "My degree of enthusiasm for learning English is around __%." and "I understand what my teachers are saying in college English classes about __% of the time". The instructions provided to the students were: "This is a self-evaluation. Please think about how passionate you are about studying English and express this as a percentage from 0% to 100%. 100% is the highest passion and 0% is the lowest." Additional explanations were provided to the effect that if students thought they were highly motivated, their enthusiasm might be 100%, and that if they understood the lessons perfectly, their comprehension might be 100%. Students were asked only one self-evaluated question for each of enthusiasm and comprehension because these were not the main research targets. For this reason, a percentage was considered appropriate instead of the use of a Likert scale.

The results for self-assessed comprehension ranged from 20% to 100% with a median of 80%, and those for self-assessed enthusiasm about studying English ranged from 20% to 100%, with a median of 70%. Additionally, students spent an average of 4.3 hours a week studying English outside the classroom (mainly at home) including grammar, reading, listening and writing (which included email correspondence and social networking chat activities such as Facebook). The range was 0 to 30 hours per week, with a median of 3 hours. The most diligent student studied English for over four hours a day after school. Basically, students took a positive attitude towards studying language(s).

With regard to self-assessed English proficiency levels (self-confidence), students were asked "How would you rate your current English proficiency level? I consider myself to be a basic-level, an intermediate-level, or an advanced-level student. Please circle one of these levels." The results showed that 99 students (39%) considered themselves to be at basic level, 148 students (59%) at intermediate level, and 5 students (2%) at advanced level. Many students did not have high self-confidence because they couldn't communicate well with classmates in English. This finding is supported by Wicking (2010), who found that despite more than six years of compulsory official English instruction in Japanese state education, most students were not sufficiently proficient to engage in anything more than very basic English communication with native English speakers. In this research, we considered self-assessment of English proficiency by individual students to be representative of their self-confidence, as previous researchers have reflected this view. Given that self-ratings are of a highly subjective nature, it may be reasonable to assume that they reflect students' self-confidence (Saito & Samimy,1996; Kitano, 2001). Moreover, MacIntyre, Noels, & Clement (1997) have concluded that self-perceptions of language competence are correlated with measured proficiency. MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clement, & Noels (1998) later considered that students' self-confidence encompasses two measures: 1) perceived competence in using a TL, and 2) anxiety regarding use of a TL. In partial support of this, Dewaele & Shan Ip (2013) stated that self-perceived proficiency level was significantly predicted by FLCA and tolerance of ambiguity in L2. Therefore, self-perception of enthusiasm, comprehension and self-confidence are important for this study because anxiety is significantly linked to self-perception.

2.4 Quantitative data (paper-based questionnaire)

After conducting the pilot study, some items in parts C and E were discarded to increase the value of Cronbach's alpha. As all items in parts A and B were adopted from those used by previous researchers, no revision was made to them. However, the data from the open-ended questionnaire suggested that part D (perfectionism) should be added, for which 6 items from the FMPS were selected (see above, 2.2 Pilot study and procedure).

The questionnaire was also used for the following two objectives: Firstly, to recruit students with high, intermediate and low levels of anxiety for classroom observations, focus groups and individual interviews (see below, 2.5.2 Interviews (focus groups and individuals)). These students were identified by the grades of anxiety included in the questionnaire (the five Likert scale items on FLCA); Secondly, the questionnaire's open-ended items were used to help refine the interview questions.

The questionnaire was paper-based and handed to students to complete in class in order to maximize the response rate. The possibility of an online survey for students to complete at home was considered but rejected, as this might have introduced a student selection bias, only the more motivated students completing the survey. In those classes for which I obtained permission to study, I was introduced to the students as a University of London PhD candidate investigating L2 English college education in Japan, and as a teacher who had worked before at the university. The questionnaire (see Appendix 2) was administered for 30 to 45 minutes in class time at the beginning of the semester. Most students agreed to take part in the questionnaire, indicating their consent to participate in the research. It was made clear beforehand that the participants' anonymity was guaranteed and that withdrawal was permitted. The students were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements by circling one of the responses as well as filling in an open-ended questionnaire and providing their background information. They were allowed to ask questions about the survey at any time. Half of the teachers remained present during the survey. Only two students failed to hand in their questionnaire after completion.

The forty-five questions in the five-point Likert scale part of the questionnaire consisted of 5 items testing for FLCA (Part A), 6 items related to risk-taking (Part B), 14 items related to L1 use (understanding) (Part C), 6 items related to perfectionism (Part D), and

14 items related to L1 use (emotion) (Part E). In detail, in terms of Cronbach's alpha, the internal reliability of the 5 items related to FLCA was .758, that for the 6 risk-taking items was .598, that for the 14 L1 use items (understanding) was .712, that for the 6 perfectionism items was .318 (the lowest reliability of all item groups because part D (perfectionism) was added after the pilot study, and no further pilot study was conducted before the final version of the questionnaire), and that for the 14 L1 use items (emotion) was .727. The wording for almost half of the statements describing items in the Likert scale questionnaire were reversed so that the aim of the research would not be detectable by the participants. For example, the wording for item 2 in part A (anxiety) was reversed to "I feel confident when I speak in English class" instead of "I don't feel confident~". When recorded in an Excel file, twenty-one negatively worded items were adjusted. Nominal data were also coded using numbers. Similarly, to mask the objectives of the Likert scale questionnaire, Roman letters such as A, B, C, D and E were used in place of terms such as FLCA, risk-taking, L1 use for clarification, perfectionism and L1 use for emotional support (see Table 2.2). For data analysis, the statistical package JMP Pro 11 was used to calculate inferential statistics on the five-point Likert scale.

Table 2.2: Description of the questionnaire items

Questionnaire	Notions tested	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Part A	Foreign language classroom anxiety	5 items	.758
Part B	Risk-taking	6 items	.598
Part C	L1 use for clarification	14 items	.712
Part D	Perfectionism	6 items	.318
Part E	L1 use for emotional support	14 items	.727

Participants for observation and interview were selected using the total anxiety score to identify students with high, intermediate and low anxiety. As there were five items measuring FLCA in the five-point Likert scale questionnaire, the potential maximum score was 25 and the minimum 5. In fact, the maximum anxiety score in the survey was 25, the median 18 and the minimum 8. Eleven students (3 males and 8 females) with an anxiety range of 18 were selected as the intermediate anxiety group because 18 was median value. On the basis of the quantile distribution of 90-2.5% for anxiety, 16 students (3 males and 13 females) with an anxiety range of 25-22 were chosen as the high anxiety group and 10 (5 males and 5 females) with an anxiety range of 8-11 were chosen as the

low anxiety group. If the 10% quantile had been used, it would have been necessary to include another 12 students in the low anxiety group. Conversely, if the 97.5% quantile had been used, the high anxiety group would have included only six students. Therefore, the 90-2.5% quantile range was employed to obtain a proper balance of student numbers between the groups. In total, 37 students (11 males and 26 females) were observed and interviewed. Detailed information about the selected students (with an ID number for each) is given as Appendix 3.

The distribution of responses given by 257 students to each question was checked for normal deviations, as Field (2013) has stated that graphs are particularly useful for looking at normality in big samples. The histograms showed normal distributions and symmetry with no excessive sharp or flat areas. Skewness (lack of symmetry) and kurtosis (pointiness) were also checked, and the Shapiro-Wilk test (suitable for data with a sample size of less than 2000 (Field, 2013)) was conducted to examine the distribution of scores and any deviation from a comparable normal distribution. If the test revealed non-significance ($p > .05$), then the distribution of the sample was not considered significantly different from a normal distribution, and signified parametric responses (Field, 2013). As a consequence, most of the data thus analyzed in this research were considered to be parametric.

Pearson's correlation coefficient *r* was also determined, as Field (2013) has stated that "*r* is a measure of the strength of a relationship between two variables" (p.56). The effect size, *r*, is a standardized measure of an observed effect and ranges from 0 (no effect) to 1 (a perfect effect). An *r* value of .10 is considered to represent a small effect, $r = .30$ a medium effect, and $r = .50$ a large effect. Reliability is a parameter to indicate whether an effect is correlated to a group over a period of time, the larger the sample size, the greater the reliability of the effect (Field, 2013). The correlation matrices are shown in Appendix 4. Although reliability is necessary, it is not sufficient alone, and validity is also required. Validity refers to how well a test measure represents a parameter. Therefore, consideration should be given to the most suitable measurements employed (Field, 2013). Lowie & Seton (2013) have stated that a correlation tests the strength of a relationship between two variables: independent-samples *t*-test reveals the significance of any difference between two groups; one-way ANOVA compares the difference between groups to the variance within the groups; two-way ANOVA gives information about the

significance of each independent variable and its interaction with other variables; post hoc analysis assesses the difference between each of the levels.

The aim of this research was to measure not only correlations between two variables from numerical data but also differences among some variables from both numerical and categorical data, and therefore independent-samples t-tests (two-tailed), one-way ANOVAs, and two-way ANOVAs were carried out as appropriate. In order to control the overall Type I error rate when multiple Pearson's correlations and t-tests were conducted, Bonferroni correction was applied to the alpha-level, as it has been reported that, as a criterion of significance, the normal alpha-level of .05 should be divided by the number of tests carried out (Field, 2013).

Furthermore, Levene's test was implemented to confirm the homogeneity of variance in each group: i.e., to check whether or not the variances in different groups were approximately equal (Field, 2013). If the variances were assumed to be homogeneous when Levene's test demonstrated non-significance (p > .05), independent-samples t-tests (two-tailed) were conducted assuming that variance was equal. Conversely, when Levene's test showed significance (p < .05), independent-samples t-tests (two-tailed) were conducted assuming that variance was not equal. Additionally, before one-way ANOVAs or two-way ANOVAs were conducted, the homogeneity of variance was also checked by Levene's test. When ANOVAs demonstrated a significant effect, Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc analysis was performed, taking an alpha level of .05 as significant, to determine if the numbers for specific groups differed significantly from those in the other groups.

2.5 Qualitative data

The qualitative data, designed to provide support for the quantitative data, were taken from classroom observations, focus groups and individual student interviews. Students were asked to complete the Birkbeck College consent form written in English (Appendix 1) along with their teachers.

2.5.1 Classroom observations

I observed classes whenever teachers allowed me, so that students could become familiar with my presence. I thought this would be effective for making observations less obtrusive and reducing observer's paradox, considering suggestions from previous researchers. Sproull (1995) has defined observations as a method of data collection whereby an observer records information about students or class-related phenomena. Classroom observations are useful, providing researchers with wide-ranging data about participants' behavior, the types of languages used, interactions and activities. However, Sproull (ibid.) has pointed out some disadvantages of classroom observations: 1) they are time consuming, 2) they may cause students to change their behavior, and 3) ethical agreement should be obtained from the students beforehand. Mackey & Gass (2008) have further emphasized that observations should be as unobtrusive as possible because of the so-called observer's paradox, which can give rise to the Hawthorne effect (student performance may improve under observation) or the Halo effect (students may give answers they think the researcher is expecting). These potential phenomena might reduce the validity of observation data.

Researcher observation can be of four types: the complete participant, the participant-as-observer, the observer-as-participant, and the complete observer (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). Participant observation may be the least obtrusive option, but this may make it difficult to take field notes because the researcher is observing as well as participating in activities (Mackey & Gass, 2008). I played the role of a complete observer for eight classes (a total of 37 times), and a participant-as-observer for one class (a total of 12 times). Additionally, although teachers and students were informed that I would be investigating classroom interactions between teachers and students as well as among students, the precise research focus was not explained to them. This approach was based on Brown's (1998) proposal that it is better to minimize the obviousness of a research objective to avoid problems with subject expectancy. Mackey & Gass (2008) have also stated that it is important to disguise the focus of research because participants "should not be cued into any aspects that are extra or unnecessary knowledge" (p.79).

The observations were focused on the actual frequency and circumstances of L1 use by both teachers and selected students. Since the attitude of students may vary depending on

the type of class activity or the number of people they are working with, I focused especially on the behavior of selected students across the whole range of activities, i.e. whole class lessons, group work and pair work. L1 use by teachers was also observed in whole-class lessons to try and understand the circumstances related to its use. After the observations, both students and teachers were asked about the reasons for their use of L1. I did not conduct stimulated-recall interviews as I was able to get the answers I needed simply by asking some questions after class; since students did not use much Japanese in class, I did not have to ask many questions to obtain this information. As I needed to compile careful observations of L1 use by students and teachers, it was important to take field notes along with audio-recording. These observation notes were reviewed with reference to students' statements during the interviews. A copy of the observation sheet used to record my impressions is shown in Appendix 5.

Classroom observations lasting 90 minutes were held in nine coeducational task-based English classes. I attended more than once each of the classes taught by teachers 1 to 5 (see 2.3.1 Background of the participating teachers) as a complete observer, but my attendance in these classrooms varied depending on each teacher's permission. Teacher 1 allowed me access four times, Teacher 2 twenty times (nine times in her media class, six times in her freshman CSK class and five times in her sophomore CSK class), Teacher 3 four times, Teacher 4 six times (three times in his freshman class and three times in his junior class), and Teacher 5 three times. The class taught by Teacher 6, where I acted as a participant-as-observer, was attended twelve times. When needed, I moved from the back of the class to hear the voices of target students because the main focus of observation was on those students selected in a whole class setting, in group work, and in paired work activities. All the teachers were observed for the full length of each of their classes at least once. Teacher 2 held three different classes and teacher 4 held two, so they were observed in class three and two times, respectively, for their different classes.

2.5.2 Interviews (focus groups and individuals)

Both focus group and individual interviews of the 37 selected students (11 males and 26 females aged between 18 and 21 years) whose anxiety varied from low to high were implemented. Interview data were transcribed, translated into English and coded in order to make the data anonymous and ready for analysis using QSR NVivo10 qualitative software. The responses were stored and coded to develop categories and to identify

patterns and relationships in the interview data. Categorizations of coding such as time pressure, low enthusiasm, low self-confidence, restriction of L1 use, fear of making mistakes, peer pressure in pair/group work, an uncomfortable classroom atmosphere, and gender differences were created based on anxiety factors that had been identified by previous researchers. The italicized sentences in Chapters 3-5 were key excerpts (quotes from the interviewees) that were used to help interpret the quantitative results.

Following classroom observations, focus group interviews with twelve groups were conducted where the participants interacted with one another, discussing the topic roughly assigned by the researcher. According to Cohen, Manion, & Morrison (2000), the use of focus groups, a form of group interview, is increasing as a qualitative approach in education research. Focus groups clearly address a particular issue, product, service or topic and emphasize the need for interactive discussion among the participants (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Considering these ideas, the focus group interview appealed to me as a useful approach for immediately assessing students' reactions, and it usually led to effective discussions aimed at addressing problems and finding solutions.

As interview types, semi-structured interviews (the interview protocols being roughly designed in advance) were adopted for both focus groups and individuals because they are flexible, giving more freedom in discussion and eliciting additional information based on the interviewees' responses, following the advice of Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2009), who state that structured interviews, although rigid, allow researchers to compare opinions from different participants, whereas unstructured interviews resemble natural conversations and researchers may not obtain the outcomes they want.

Both interviews were arranged at a time suited to the participant's schedule on campus. A quiet location with minimal distraction was selected. Semi-structured focus group interviews (corpus size, 113 references) lasting 60 to 90 minutes were carried out for 12 groups of students, varying from two to four students per group. Although each group ideally comprised equal numbers of males and females with high, intermediate and low levels of anxiety, members of the same class were selected to offset the limitations of this interview type. One psychological disadvantage of a focus group interview is that individual members might not express their honest opinions about topics, especially if their thoughts oppose the ideas of the majority. Actually, none of the groups solely comprised students with one specific anxiety level, nor did any group have students with

all three anxiety levels (see Table 2.3). However, students who were already friends became more deeply involved in group discussions and were observed to be less nervous or reticent.

Table 2.3: Details of grouping of focus group participants.

Focus group (number)	Male(s) and anxiety levels	Female(s) and anxiety levels
Group 1 (4)	26M (H), 31M (H)	18F (I), 24F (H)
Group 2 (2)	21M (I)	1F (L)
Group 3 (3)	4M (L)	29F (H), 30F (H)
Group 4 (4)		10F (L), 27F (H), 34F (H), 37F (H)
Group 5 (2)		5F (L), 25F (H)
Group 6 (4)	9M (L)	15F (I), 16F (I), 23F (H)
Group 7 (4)	14M (I), 20M (I)	7F (L), 19F (I)
Group 8 (2)		8F (L), 11F (I)
Group 9 (4)	6M (L), 35M (H)	22F (H), 32F (H)
Group10 (3)	3M (L)	33F (H), 36F (H)
Group11 (3)		12F (I), 13F (I), 28F (H)
Group12 (2)	2M (L)	17F (I)

Note: **Anxiety levels**: L - Low anxiety; I - Intermediate anxiety; H - High anxiety

Following Mackey & Gass's (2008) advice that students should be asked to report their thoughts in L1 to remove concerns about any learners' proficiency that may impact on the quality (validity) of the interview data, all interviews were conducted in Japanese with note-taking and audio-recording. As the students were able to talk about anything they liked in L1 to avoid any communication difficulties due to English proficiency limitations, their thoughts might be regarded as representative of their honest opinions, even though they might not have provided a face-value answer even in their L1.

The focus group interview questions were based on the results of the open-ended questionnaire and implemented along the lines of Mackey & Gass (2008), who suggested that interviewers should not be allowed to converse actively with participants to minimize any potential influence on their reports attributable to interviewer perspective, and that participants also should not be forced to initiate their thoughts, and allowed to reach any conclusion naturally. Additionally, as Sproull (1995) has pointed out, interviews also have the same weakness as observations in that participants may not disclose their true opinions because they are reluctant to go against or disappoint a researcher. It is important to maintain a balance between being too directive and offering no direction at all. As a researcher may impact the outcome of a discussion through directive action

aimed at maintaining study relevance, care was taken not to lead students into reaching certain conclusions about ideas and concepts, while efforts were made to facilitate the discussions and explore students' ideas, and sometimes additional questions were asked. Similarities and differences of opinion were observed among the students.

As focus groups interviews have a weakness in yielding fewer data than face-to-face interviews involving the same number of individuals (Mackey & Gass, 2008), semi-structured individual interviews were also conducted with each of the 37 students. The interview questions were formulated on the basis of the focus group interview responses. Therefore, individual interviews were conducted later on entirely different days. Each individual interview (corpus size, 460 references) lasted between 45 and 90 minutes. Both the focus group and individual interview discussion questions are provided in Appendix 6.

2.6 Summary

This research adopted a cross-sectional, mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) approach. Quantitative data were analyzed using JMP Pro 11 quantitative software and qualitative data using QSR NVivo10 qualitative software. A questionnaire that consisted of three parts (a five-point Likert scale, an open-ended questionnaire, and background information) was created focusing on FLCA and L1 use. After conducting a pilot study online with thirteen students, the reliability of each item in a five-point Likert scale questionnaire was checked using Cronbach's alpha. Then, the final version of the questionnaire was made and implemented in a coeducational language-oriented university in Japan. A total of 257 students aged 18-24 years (65 males and 191 females) participated in the class questionnaire survey. Then, 37 students (16 with high, 11 with intermediate, and 10 with low anxiety; 11 males and 26 females aged 18-22 years) were selected on the basis of the anxiety score in the questionnaire for implementing classroom observations and both face-to-face focus groups (lasting 60-90 minutes involving 12 groups) and individual interviews (lasting 45-90 minutes involving 37 students) in Japanese with audio-recording, focusing on L1 use. The results are described in Chapters 3-5 based on each research question.

Chapter 3: Results – reasons for FLCA among Japanese EFL college students

In Chapter 2, I explained the research design of this study. On that basis, I conducted the research, and the results are described in Chapters 3-5 according to each research objective. Chapter 3 presents the results of the first research objective: to examine why Japanese EFL college students experience FLCA. Horwitz et al. (1986) identified three types of FLCA: trait anxiety, situation-specific anxiety and state anxiety. MacIntyre (2007) also stated that both language anxiety and language learning motivation play a role in WTC, and found that the degree of WTC fluctuates rapidly as language learning situations change. For example, students' WTC may rise in comfortable classrooms, whereas it may fall in threatening classrooms. Therefore, FLCA as situation-specific anxiety was targeted in this research. The main aim was to investigate the factors for FLCA among Japanese EFL college students. For analysis, the study focused on the influence of factors such as gender, teacher-type preference, enthusiasm, self-confidence, reported English proficiency level and L1 use on FLCA because through reference to a literature review in Chapter 1, I had hypothesized that these factors might be closely linked to anxiety.

In fact, I found that highly anxious students had less enthusiasm and lower self-confidence. They also studied less at home, spoke less English out of class, and took fewer risks in class. Additionally, they had less comprehension ability and wanted to use more Japanese while concurrently preferring to learn from BJNT teachers. Importantly, I not only found that improving students' self-confidence was effective in decreasing anxiety, but also that use of Japanese became less as their anxiety gradually decreased. I also found that female students had higher anxiety than their male counterparts, though the data for male MENT enthusiasts indicated that even students who had higher enthusiasm for English study had stronger anxiety that could be interpreted as facilitative anxiety.

The qualitative survey took a closer look at FLCA. Culprits included factors such as time pressure, lower enthusiasm, lower self-confidence, restriction of L1 use, fear of making mistakes, peer pressure in pair/group work, an uncomfortable classroom atmosphere, and gender difference. Interestingly, power dynamics between males and females as well as dynamics within individual student pairs became prominent, and

female anxiety was mostly attributable to peer pressure. This suggests that it is important for teachers to consider gender differences in language classes.

The results of quantitative analysis are given in Section 3.1; Section 3.2 includes a discussion of the quantitative results; Section 3.3 gives the results of qualitative analysis; Section 3.4 discusses the qualitative results (focusing on both group and individual interviews); and Section 3.5 provides a summary.

3.1 Results of quantitative analysis

3.1.1 Relationship between FLCA and independent variables

Table 3.1 presents Pearson's correlation analyses of the relationship between anxiety and independent variables. It shows that all variables except perfectionism had a significant relationship with anxiety. There was a significant *negative* correlation between anxiety and speaking opportunity, $r = -.25$, $p < .0001$, between anxiety and study hours, $r = -.24$, $p = .0001$, between anxiety and enthusiasm, $r = -.33$, $p < .0001$, between anxiety and comprehension, $r = -.41$, $p < .0001$, and between anxiety and risk-taking, $r = -.49$, $p < .0001$. On the other hand, there was a significant *positive* correlation between anxiety and understanding, $r = .23$, $p = .0003$ and between anxiety and emotion, $r = .31$, $p < .0001$. In other words, an increase in student anxiety was associated with less English spoken outside the classroom, fewer study hours at home, lower enthusiasm, poorer comprehension, less risk-taking, and an increased amount of L1 (Japanese) use in class. The relationship between anxiety and L1 use is further discussed in detail in Chapter 4, which examines the factors linked to L1 use.

Table 3.1 Pearson's correlations between anxiety and independent variables.

Variable	Correlation (*r*)	Count (N)	Sig.(*p*) (two-tailed)
Speaking opportunity	-.25	251	< .0001*
Study hours	-.24	249	.0001*
Enthusiasm	-.33	253	< .0001*
Comprehension	-.41	253	< .0001*
Risk-taking	-.49	257	< .0001*
Understanding	.23	257	.0003*
Perfectionism	.07	257	.2483
Emotion	.31	257	< .0001*

*After Bonferroni correction: a criterion of significance of the alpha-level (.05) was divided by the number of tests conducted (8), significant at the .00625 level

3.1.2 Effect of gender on anxiety and study hours

This section discusses the effect of gender, an important independent variable, on both anxiety and study hours as individual dependent variables. Table 3.2 and Table 3.3 present descriptive statistics including participant numbers (N), mean (M), standard deviations (SD) and standard errors (SE), including the minimum and maximum. In Table 3.2 the mean values show that both gender groups had some degree of anxiety, although the levels of anxiety differed between them. Table 3.3 also shows the mean values for both gender groups studying English at home in a week, although the number of study hours differed between the groups.

Table 3.2 Descriptive statistics for gender groups in relation to anxiety.

Gender	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	Mini.	Max.
Males	65	16.35	3.62	.45	8	24
Females	191	17.93	3.75	.27	8	25

Table 3.3 Descriptive statistics for gender groups in relation to study hours.

Gender	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	Mini.	Max.
Males	62	6.22	6.94	.88	0	28
Females	187	3.68	4.44	.33	0	30

Table 3.4 presents the results of an independent-samples *t*-test to examine gender-related differences. As can be seen, female students (*M* = 17.93, *SD* = 3.75) had a higher level of anxiety than their male peers (*M* = 16.35, *SD* = 3.62), and this was significant (*t* (254) = 2.96, *p* = .0034). Moreover, male students (*M* = 6.22, *SD* = 6.94) studied English longer at home than their female counterparts (*M* = 3.68, *SD* = 4.44), and this difference was also significant (*t* (78) = -2.70, *p* = .0085).

Table 3.4 Independent-samples *t*-test results for gender differences in two variables (anxiety and study hours).

	t-test				
	T	**df**	**Sig.(*p*) (2-tailed)**	**Mean difference**	**Std. Error difference**
Equal variance assumed (anxiety)	2.96	254	.0034*	1.58	.53
Equal variance not assumed (study hours)	-2.70	78.26	.0085*	-2.53	.94

*After Bonferroni correction: a criterion of significance of the alpha-level (.05) was divided by the number of tests conducted (2), significant at the .025 level

3.1.3 Effect of teacher-type preference, reported English proficiency and self-confidence on anxiety

This section discusses the effects of three further important independent variables – teacher-type preference, reported English proficiency and self-confidence – on anxiety as a dependent variable. Table 3.5 shows the mean values for all teacher-type preference groups having some degree of anxiety, although the levels of anxiety differed among the groups.

Table 3.5 Descriptive statistics for teacher-type preference groups in relation to anxiety.

Teacher-type	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	Mini.	Max.
BJNT	124	18.18	3.68	.33	9	25
BENT	77	17.12	3.83	.44	8	25
MENT	56	16.64	3.68	.49	8	25

Teacher-type: 1. BJNT: bilingual Japanese-native teachers; 2. BENT: bilingual English-native teachers; 3. MENT: monolingual English-native teachers

Table 3.6 shows the results of one-way ANOVA to examine the effect of teacher-type preference group on anxiety. As can be seen, there was a significant effect of teacher-type preference group on the level of anxiety (F (2, 254) = 3.90, p = .0214).

Table 3.6 One-way ANOVA to examine the effect of teacher-type preference group on anxiety.

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.(p)
Between groups	108.38	2	54.19	3.90	.0214*
Within groups	3525.66	254	13.88		
Total	3634.03	256			

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 3.7 shows the results of Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests. It can be seen that the difference between BJNT enthusiasts (M = 18.18, SE = 3.68) and MENT enthusiasts (M = 16.64, SE = 3.68) was significant at p = .0298. BENT enthusiasts (M = 17.12, SE = 3.83) showed no significant difference from any of the other groups. In other words, students with a preference for BJNT experienced more anxiety than MENT enthusiasts, and the difference was significant.

Table 3.7 Post-hoc Tukey-Kramer HSD test for the mean scores of teacher-type preference groups in relation to anxiety.

(A)group	(B)group	Mean Difference (A-B)	SE	Sig.(p)
BJNT	MENT	1.53	.60	.0298*
BJNT	BENT	1.05	.54	.1302
BENT	MENT	.49	.65	.7373

*Significant at the .05 level

In Table 3.8, the mean values for all groups of reported English proficiency level generally indicated some degree of anxiety, although the levels of anxiety differed among the groups.

Table 3.8 Descriptive statistics for the levels of reported English proficiency in relation to anxiety.

Proficiency	N	M	SD	SE	Mini.	Max.
Basic	27	19.00	4.46	0.86	8	25
Intermediate	85	17.56	4.08	0.44	8	25
Advanced	33	15.88	3.32	0.58	9	23

Table 3.9 shows the results of one-way ANOVA to examine the effect of the level of reported English proficiency on anxiety. As can be seen, there was a significant effect of the level of reported English proficiency on the level of anxiety, $F(2, 142) = 4.62$, $p = .0114$.

Table 3.9 One-way ANOVA to examine the effect of the level of reported English proficiency on anxiety.

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.(p)
Between groups	147.45	2	73.73	4.62	.0114*
Within groups	2266.41	142	15.96		
Total	2413.86	144			

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 3.10 shows the results of Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests. It reveals that only the difference between basic-level ($M = 19.00$, $SE = 4.46$) and advanced-level ($M = 15.88$, $SE = 3.32$) students was significant at $p = .0086$. Intermediate-level students ($M = 17.56$, $SE = 4.08$) did not differ significantly from either of the other groups. In other words, basic-level students experienced more anxiety than advanced-level students, and the difference was significant.

Table 3.10 Post-hoc Tukey-Kramer HSD test for the mean scores of the levels of reported English proficiency in relation to anxiety.

(C) group	(D) group	Mean Difference (C-D)	SE	Sig.(p)
Basic	Advanced	3.12	1.04	.0086*
Intermediate	Advanced	1.69	.82	.1025
Basic	Intermediate	1.44	.88	.2379

*Significant at the .05 level

In Table 3.11, the mean values for all groups of self-confidence level generally indicated some degree of anxiety, but the levels of anxiety differed among the groups.

Table 3.11 Descriptive statistics for the levels of self-confidence in relation to anxiety.

Self-confidence	N	M	SD	SE	Mini.	Max.
Low	99	18.78	3.47	.35	10	25
Intermediate	148	16.91	3.64	.30	8	25
High	5	12.60	5.94	2.66	8	22

Table 3.12 shows the results of one-way ANOVA to examine the effect of self-confidence level on anxiety. As can be seen, there was a significant effect of self-confidence level on the level of anxiety, $F(2, 249) = 12.64$, $p < .0001$.

Table 3.12 One-way ANOVA to examine the effect of self-confidence level on anxiety.

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.(p)
Between groups	331.94	2	165.97	12.64	<.0001*
Within groups	3270.17	249	13.13		
Total	3602.11	251			

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 3.13 shows the results of Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests. It reveals that the differences between students with low ($M = 18.78$, $SE = 3.47$) and intermediate ($M = 16.91$, $SE = 3.64$) self-confidence, those with low and high self-confidence ($M = 12.60$, $SE = 5.94$), and those with intermediate and high self-confidence were significant, at $p = .0003$, $p = .0007$ and $p = .0254$, respectively. In other words, students with low

self-confidence had more anxiety than those with intermediate and high self-confidence, and the differences were significant. Additionally, students with intermediate self-confidence had more anxiety than those with high self-confidence, and the difference was significant.

Table 3.13 Post-hoc Tukey-Kramer HSD test to examine the mean scores of the levels of self-confidence in relation to anxiety.

(E) group	(F) group	Mean Difference (E-F)	*SE*	Sig.(*p*)
Low	High	6.18	1.66	.0007*
Intermediate	High	4.31	1.65	.0254*
Low	Intermediate	1.87	0.47	.0003*

*Significant at the .05 level

3.1.4 Effect of gender, teacher-type preference and self-confidence on anxiety

Two-way ANOVA was carried out by adding another independent variable (gender) to those used in the one-way ANOVA. This was done to compare several means, and to look at the significance of each of the independent variables and their interaction. Table 3.14 shows that there was a significant interaction between gender groups and teacher-type preference groups in relation to anxiety level, $F(2, 253) = 10.59$, $p < .0001$. This result indicated that the effects of gender differed among enthusiasts of BJNT, BENT and MENT. Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests revealed that specifically, in the male students' group, MENT enthusiasts had higher anxiety than BJNT enthusiasts, whereas in the female students' group, BJNT enthusiasts experienced higher anxiety than MENT enthusiasts, $p = .0001$ and $p = .0001$ respectively. Moreover, female BJNT enthusiasts experienced the highest levels of anxiety among all the groups, as displayed in figure 3.1.

Table 3.14 Two-way ANOVA of the effects of gender group and teacher-type preference group on anxiety.

		Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.(*p*)
gender* teacher-type	Interaction	280.75	2	140.38	10.59	< .0001*
	Error	3353.00	253	13.25		
	Total	3633.75	255			

*Significant at the .05 level

Figure 3.1 Box plot graph of the mean values of the relationship between gender group and teacher-type preference group in terms of the levels of anxiety in a two-way ANOVA.
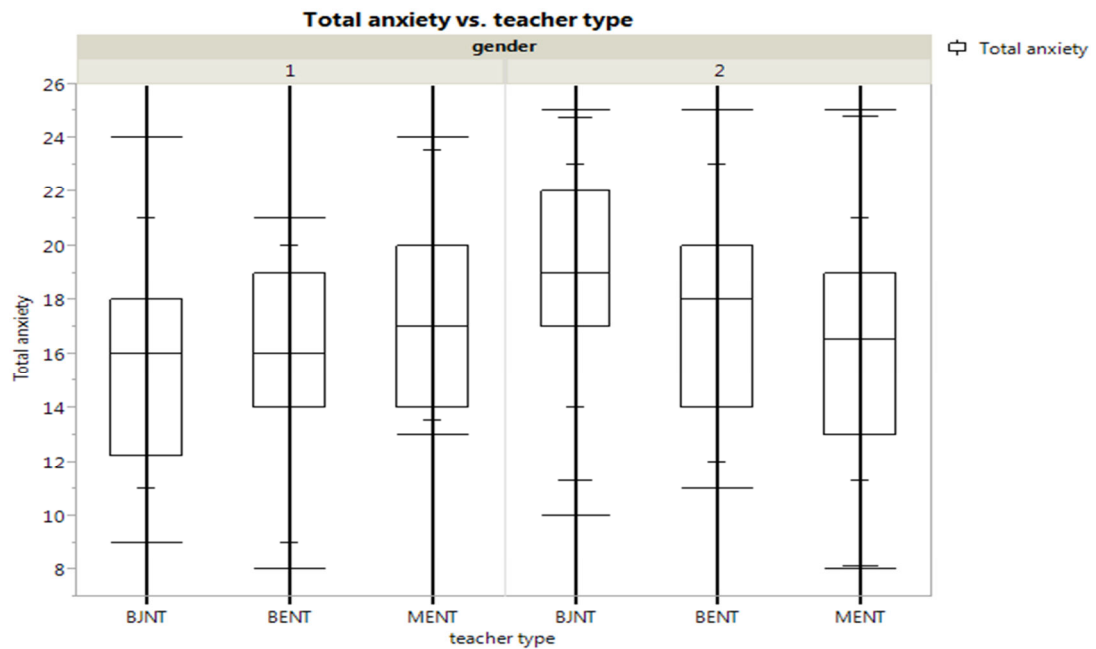
Note: **Gender**: 1. male; 2. female

Table 3.15 shows there was a significant interaction between gender and the level of self-confidence in relation to anxiety level, $F (2, 249) = 3.99$, $p = .0197$. This result indicates that students with low self-confidence, intermediate self-confidence and high self-confidence were affected differently according to gender. However, Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests revealed no significant differences in anxiety level according to gender and level of self-confidence.

Table 3.15 Two-way ANOVA of the effects of gender and self-confidence level on anxiety.

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.(p)
gender* self-confidence	Interaction	111.79	2	55.90	3.99	.0197*
	Error	3490.31	249	14.02		
	Total	3602.11	251			

*Significant at the .05 level

3.2 Discussion of the quantitative results

Currently, many universities in Japan implement an English-only policy in task-based English classes. According to the results of the present questionnaire data, all students experienced some degree of communication anxiety, although their levels of anxiety differed markedly. This is similar to Liu's (2006) finding that more than 30% of students seemed to be anxious in oral English classes. These findings also support the results obtained by Gkonou (2011), who found a significant correlation between classroom anxiety and speaking anxiety, suggesting that English classes were a source of speaking anxiety. What is perhaps most striking is that among the students I studied, a considerable number experienced FLCA in English classes even after having studied English for more than six years since junior high school.

According to the results obtained by applying Pearson's correlation, students with more FLCA were afraid to take risks in class and spoke less English outside of class. Besides being reluctant to speak English, students wanted to use more Japanese even in classes, showed less enthusiasm and self-confidence, had poorer comprehension, and were more reluctant to study English at home. In fact, the view that higher anxiety has detrimental effects on many aspects, especially students' English-speaking performance, is supported by several researchers. For example, Carless (2008) and Saito & Samimy (1996) have stated that language class risk-taking, task difficulty and final grade were closely linked with FLCA in learners. FLCA seems particularly strong in teacher-centered instruction where students are unwilling to speak TL (Carless 2008). Yan & Horwitz (2008) have also stated that anxiety badly affected students' classroom performance, and that students felt incapable, frustrated and even angry because of strong anxiety. Moreover, Young (1990) has reported that students felt anxious because of a lack of confidence, fear of making mistakes, and peer pressure. Ohata (2005) has claimed that strong anxiety might adversely impact student psychology, as it activates defense mechanisms even in the absence of risk-taking. I found that students with higher anxiety tended to use Japanese more, supporting the view of Harumi (2011) that one of the expectations of students is that teachers should help them by using L1 in order to overcome silences in class. This suggests some room for improvement in instructional approaches for Japanese learners of English. There is a need to further investigate possible solutions for reducing FLCA in Japanese EFL college students that might help to raise their levels of English proficiency.

Another intriguing aspect of these quantitative results is the interaction of gender with anxiety. One interesting finding from the independent-samples *t*-tests was that female students had higher anxiety than their male counterparts, and another was that male students studied more English at home than their female peers. These two results appear to be related, because students with higher enthusiasm for studying English had less anxiety.

According to the results of one-way ANOVA, BJNT enthusiasts experienced the highest degree of anxiety, followed in order by BENT enthusiasts and those with an MENT preference. Additionally, female BJNT enthusiasts showed the highest anxiety among all the groups. Students with higher anxiety preferred BJNT because they wanted to use some Japanese in specific, necessary situations. Conversely, students with lower anxiety preferred MENT because they were able to get by using less Japanese. Namely, anxious students wanted to learn English from BJNT because the possibility of using Japanese provided them with an 'escape route'. BJNT enthusiasts were very anxious when speaking English because they became nervous in a situation where they could not use Japanese.

Basic-level reported English proficiency students experienced the highest levels of anxiety, followed in order by intermediate-level and advanced-level students. This accords with Liu's (2006) finding that the higher their degree of English proficiency, the less anxious students appeared. MacIntyre & Gardner (1994a) indicated that less knowledge made students anxious, and Khaldieh (2000) noted that frustration and anxiety might originate from low linguistic proficiency. Jin, de Bot, & Keijzer (2015) reported similar results that indicate a strong relationship between anxiety and FL proficiency. Therefore, it may be important to improve English proficiency in order to reduce anxiety.

However, in the present study, the degree of significance was much higher for the relationship between self-confidence level and anxiety than for the relationship between reported English proficiency level and anxiety (see Table 3.9 & Table 3.12). In order words, reduction of speaking anxiety seems to be more closely linked to improvement of self-confidence than to improvement of English proficiency (in terms of students' reported TOEIC, TOEFL or STEP test scores) because even students with an advanced

level of English proficiency might have lower self-confidence and, accordingly, stronger anxiety as a result of their goal being unrealistically high.

Students in the low self-confidence category (with a basic self-assessed English proficiency level) experienced the highest anxiety, followed in order by less anxious students in the intermediate self-confidence category (with an intermediate self-assessed English proficiency level) and least anxious students in the high self-confidence category (with an advanced self-assessed English proficiency level). Therefore, self-confidence has an important impact in reducing the level of anxiety. The finding is consistent with that of Liu & Jackson (2008), who found that FLCA was significantly and negatively correlated with self-rated English proficiency.

One interesting finding of both two-way ANOVAs and post hoc tests was that MENT enthusiasts had the highest anxiety in the male group, but the lowest anxiety in the female group. One possible explanation for this was that students had three choices – BJNT, BENT or MENT – and the difference between them was whether teachers could use Japanese or not, and whether the teacher's native tongue was English or Japanese. For instance, students who wanted to have clear understanding preferred to learn from BJNT, whereas students who wanted to use more English preferred to learn from MENT. BENT enthusiasts wanted to have both opportunities. Males and MENT enthusiasts tended to be less anxious, but male MENT enthusiasts had the strongest anxiety in the male group. This suggests that their anxiety might be considered as facilitative. This prediction came from the following facts: First of all, males had more study hours in the week than their female peers according to the result of the *t*-test. Secondly, MENT enthusiasts preferred an English-only environment that was considered as the hardest in which to study English. Both facts indicate that male MENT enthusiasts might have stronger enthusiasm for English study.

However, male MENT enthusiasts might have encountered difficulties while learning English as a result of the inability to obtain satisfactory explanations in Japanese, thus becoming more nervous and developing greater anxiety when faced with more advanced materials and incomprehensible instructions. Considering these facts, male MENT enthusiasts might have a type of positive anxiety that promotes language learning, which is regarded as facilitative, although in this research, the division between facilitative and debilitative anxiety was not considered. To understand this issue better, it is necessary to consider the qualitative data.

In conclusion, the results of the quantitative survey indicated that students with higher anxiety spoke less English outside class, studied less at home, had lower enthusiasm and less comprehension ability, took fewer risks, had higher desire to use Japanese, were female, had lower self-confidence and reported English proficiency, and preferred BJNT. Female BJNT enthusiasts showed the most anxiety, but among the male students, MENT enthusiasts had the highest anxiety. From these results, I can conclude that anxious students generally wanted to use more Japanese, but even students with less desire for Japanese use also showed increased FLCA under the pressure of not having Japanese at their disposal in any circumstances, and wanted to use at least some Japanese as an emergency open channel. Thus, FLCA is clearly linked in intriguing ways to L1 use.

3.3 Results of qualitative analysis

Since this quantitative research had shown that students had some degree of anxiety, and that this anxiety was related to certain variables, a qualitative survey was considered necessary to investigate the reasons for FLCA. Firstly, the results of focus group interviews suggested that peer pressure was the main cause of anxiety, showing significant gender differences. Female students were more self-conscious and more influenced by peer pressure than males. For some reasons, some female students used a self-defense strategy of deliberately underperforming by using simple English or "Japlish" (Japanese English) and pretending to be poor at speaking English, a strategy that was likely to hinder learning to a significant degree. For some students, such comfort created by using self-defense strategies outweighed any sense of shame about poor performance due to complex psychological reasoning, although students who are ashamed of poor performance usually do not underperform deliberately. Secondly, the results of individual interviews showed that the reasons for FLCA included time pressure, low enthusiasm, low self-confidence, fear of making mistakes, peer pressure in pair/group work, an uncomfortable classroom atmosphere, gender differences and, importantly for this study, restriction of L1 use.

3.3.1 Findings from focus group interview data

Focus group interviews (see Appendix 6-1) contained several topics related to FLCA that had been also covered in the quantitative questionnaire survey (see Appendix 2). This

section explores in more detail the findings expressed on these topics during focus group interviews. Some students wanted to have at least some help from teachers: for this, there were 9 references for the coded category of what students do when experiencing speaking anxiety, accounting for 8.89% of all references. A typical opinion selected from the references is shown here as an example. Therefore, the group number, major, gender and anxiety level are not stated:

> *Students often pretend to think over questions or tasks when in fact they don't understand what the teacher says and what they should do. This is clearly a waste of time. Therefore, teachers should explain what seems to be difficult for students, using simple English or Japanese in a timely and intelligible way.* (1 reference coded, 1.70% coverage).

The above opinion shows that teachers' L1 help is effective in increasing comprehension for students who do not understand questions or tasks. Additionally, L1 use among students also seems to be helpful to keep conversations rolling and reduce their anxiety as well as to have better comprehension. Regarding L1 use among students: First, L1 use is effective for reducing anxiety (5 references coded, 2.42% coverage):

> *When I feel my pair partner wants to criticize my English, I want to use Japanese to avoid the situation.* (1 reference coded and 0.75% coverage).

Second, L1 is effective for better comprehension (17 references coded, 13.12% coverage). Specifically: 1) for understanding difficult words, unknown expressions, grammar and content (7 references coded, 5.51% coverage), 2) for grasping task instructions (2 references coded, 2.53% coverage), 3) for upgrading the contents of presentation (2 references coded, 1.12% coverage), 4) L1 is needed for lower-level learners (3 references coded, 2.09% coverage), and 5) for difficult topics (3 references coded, 1.87% coverage).

However, some students (7 references coded, 5.29% coverage) did not support L1 use because they considered it demotivating:

When close friends speak to me in Japanese, it is annoying because it is difficult for me to speak English with them. (1 reference coded, 0.71% coverage).

When I make an effort to express what I want to say in English, someone quickly responds in Japanese, which makes me disappointed. (1 reference coded, 0.91% coverage).

Anxiety also seemed to come from peer pressure, some students feeling uneasy when talking with partners who they felt were more advanced (4 references coded, 2.05% coverage) or who were irritated by poor English speakers whom they ridiculed (2 references coded, 1% coverage). One (Group 6) of the focus groups consisting of four freshman classmates (one male with low anxiety, two females with intermediate anxiety, and one female with high anxiety) gave insightful opinions. Their class was labelled as intermediate-level in the English department. The teacher (Teacher 4) was a Japanese male, but he instructed them only in English and always maintained an English-only rule. He encouraged his students to apply for an English speech contest, and coincidentally the four students in the focus group interview were all selected as speakers in the contest. However, two females (one with high anxiety and the other with intermediate anxiety) in this group gave some surprising opinions (2 references coded, 2.56% coverage):

When I speak with classmates whose English is superior to mine or who criticize me, I pretend to be a low-level learner. I just say some English words without any order, not making sentences, or else I use Japanese. I want to hide my real English proficiency, and moreover, I intentionally degrade my ability. I am scared of having my mistakes pointed out by classmates, so I pretend I cannot speak English fluently, limit my vocabulary, and use Japanese English. It is a self-defense strategy. I don't care about being competitive with others, but I hate it when classmates look down on me even when I try my best to speak good English in order to make myself understood. That's why I don't make efforts to speak better English and why I cannot speak English well. This is my strategy with classmates who seem to have superior proficiency, so I can justify my poor English from the beginning.

In order to reduce peer pressure, students wanted to have a cooperative atmosphere and help from friends. The following comment came from one female student with a high anxiety level (2 references coded, 2.51% coverage):

I feel conscious about how I am labelled by classmates. However, as my classmates become closer, they begin to understand me and we can establish a constructive relationship. Under such teamwork, I can ask them for help and I don't worry about my mistakes (1 reference coded, 2.09% coverage).

The above comments on peer pressure by female students with intermediate to high anxiety indicate that the level of anxiety shows some gender-related differences. In most classes, females formed several all-female groups and competed with the other female groups, which seemed to make them more self-conscious. The following comment came from one male student with a low anxiety level (1 reference coded, 2.24% coverage):

Females are very self-conscious in groups and they want to fit into the group they belong to. If a woman in a group speaks or behaves badly, the group members kick her out. Additionally, female groups tend to mock other groups and compete with one another. Conversely, males have less of a problem when in a minority. There is usually only one group for them to work in. Males also have to be strong in order to survive in a female-dominated class environment.

Females were consistently shy and exhibited less self-confidence than males (7 references coded, 3.48% coverage). One female student with a high anxiety level suggested one reason why male students did not have stronger anxiety than females:

Male students who go to a university of international studies have more self-confidence in learning languages, so they are better at English and speak English well.

Classroom observations suggested that male students place importance on keeping a good relationship with other males, as there was only one male group in each class and it was unusual for them to mix with female groups. Females also took care of relationships in their own group, but were more competitive with other female groups and were also more critical of females within the other groups. However, female students seemed to be more considerate towards the male group in class.

In summary, the focus group interviews suggested that students wanted some help from teachers in order to decrease anxiety. L1 use can reduce anxiety and increase

comprehension despite its potential disadvantage of demotivating fellow classmates. Female students were found to be more self-conscious and anxious than males. Peer pressure was one of the biggest causes of this anxiety, especially in females. It was also found that some self-conscious students deliberately degraded their English proficiency as a self-defense strategy. Therefore, to create collaborative relationships among classmates would become important to reduce students' anxiety and their L1 reliance.

3.3.2 Findings from individual interview data

The reasons for FLCA emerging from the individual interview data can be sub-categorized into time pressure, enthusiasm, self-confidence, L1 restriction, fear of making mistakes, peer pressure in pair/group work, classroom atmosphere and gender differences.

3.3.2.1 Time pressure

Time pressure is a significant cause of anxiety and it is important to give students adequate time for reducing the anxiety caused by time pressure. The interview data indicated that students seemed to experience three different types of time pressure: 1) that during classroom conversations, 2) that during classroom presentations, and 3) that during long-term English study. Firstly, when students felt pressure to speak fluently during paired work activities, some of them felt anxious and wanted to give up the conversation or use Japanese. Even students who were good at speaking English and had lower feelings of anxiety did not like being rushed into responding to a partner when they were lost for words. Secondly, before a presentation, students required satisfactory preparation time to create a script and rehearse speaking in order to reduce anxiety on the day of the presentation. Thirdly, studying well over a long period of time helped to decrease anxiety. 5F, a female Chinese major freshman in a low anxiety group, expressed her ideas regarding time pressure in conversations:

> *I have self-confidence and am actually good at speaking English, but I don't like to be rushed during English conversations. I need some time before I'm ready to speak.*

23F, a female freshman English major in a high anxiety group, described her way of preparing for a presentation:

As I have no self-confidence for speaking English, I need satisfactory preparation time. First, I read aloud my whole script and then practice speaking by glancing at some key words that I've listed up. I practice speaking for a presentation again and again at home.

9M, a male freshman English language major in a low anxiety group, offered his own thoughts based on his language learning experience:

I have enjoyed playing games and singing songs with English-native teachers ever since the fifth grade of elementary school. The activities were enjoyable, and so I didn't feel any anxiety when I was of elementary school age. If I had been a schoolchild living abroad because of my parent's job, I might have felt anxious because I would have had to acquire English quickly. Additionally, after returning to Japan, I would have worried about forgetting the English I had already learned. However, I did not feel a lot of pressure as I learned English little by little over a long period of time. I guess that studying English in a relaxed time space without severe time restrictions would be one of the factors that help to reduce anxiety.

33F, a female sophomore Chinese major student in a high anxiety group, expressed a similar feeling about lack of time to study English making her anxious:

I want to work for Disney, using both English and Chinese. I am very enthusiastic about studying English, but I feel anxious because I don't get much time to do so these days, as much of my time is taken up studying Chinese.

Having enough preparation time was important for students in order to reduce any anxiety caused by time pressure during conversations and presentations in the classroom, as well as for long-term language acquisition.

3.3.2.2 Enthusiasm

Another factor, reduced enthusiasm, was also associated with raised anxiety. These interview findings raise several important issues for those trying to maintain enthusiasm

among students, not only in terms of the classroom environment, but also for the institutional support that can be given to students as part of their college programs.

Less enthusiastic students were more reluctant to practice speaking English in a classroom environment. In a negative spiral, this would decrease opportunities to improve their English, making them less confident and causing higher anxiety. Enthusiasm can be divided into two types: intrinsic and instrumental. First, the importance of intrinsic enthusiasm will be discussed here. The high anxiety level of some students due to a lack of enthusiasm is worth addressing in detail, because such severe anxiety can be crippling for language learning. 36F, a female Chinese major sophomore in a high anxiety group, explained the connection between low enthusiasm and high anxiety:

> *I used to like English lessons at high school, but in university English classes focusing on speaking, I feel severe mental anxiety. This makes me want to absent myself from English lessons every time. Whenever classes are over, I am relieved to know I have survived the difficulties.*

When stated in this way, it is easy to imagine how stressful English lessons were to her. The strong emphasis of speaking English seemed to deprive 36F of her enthusiasm for English study. In contrast, although the degree of anxiety felt by students is likely related to personality, many expressed a feeling of excitement and lower anxiety when experiencing greater enthusiasm about using the English they had learned during a homestay in an English-speaking country. In order to maintain students' enthusiasm, 29F, a female junior English major in a high anxiety group, suggested that the school should establish a good system for studying abroad:

> *I wanted to study abroad, but I have given up any hope of doing so because I am now busy job hunting. If the university had had a system that allowed students to study abroad during the freshman or sophomore year, I could have improved my English, but now it is too late. As I no longer have any self-confidence, I will get a job for which I don't need to use English.*

The views stated here are relevant because even students with lower enthusiasm may have had higher enthusiasm in the past, and might have been able to improve their

English if an opportunity to study abroad had been available. 8F, a female freshman English major in a low anxiety group, shared her homestay experience in Hawaii for three weeks during the summer holidays, and this appears to support 29F's statement:

The homestay experience became a turning point in my English study history. I was depressed because I couldn't get into the university I wanted; my present university was my second choice. However, I gained confidence through my study-abroad experience because I found I could live in an English-speaking country for three weeks without any problem. My host family was very kind and friendly and asked many questions about Japan and Japanese culture. They told me my English was good and I shouldn't worry, which eased my anxiety and allowed me to enjoy my time with them.

8F's experience is a good example of how enthusiasm can reduce a student's anxiety. She was fortunate to have a friendly host family who eased her initial misgivings. When students have passion for learning English in this way, their anxiety is reduced and enthusiasm is boosted. Another way to increase enthusiasm is to have role models. 17F, a female sophomore Spanish major in an intermediate anxiety group, stated:

My English study hours fluctuate according to whether or not I have higher enthusiasm. After attending a travel club meeting or talking with exchange students, my enthusiasm goes up. I admire people who are good at English and I aim to be like them.

As expressed by these students, intrinsic enthusiasm seems to occur naturally because it arises through the desire to converse with foreigners, for which acquisition of TL is necessary.

With regard to instrumental enthusiasm, many students expressed greater enthusiasm when they intended to seek jobs for which English proficiency was essential. 36F explained her rationale and proposed starting an employment consultation service at school for students in any grades instead of limiting the service to juniors or seniors:

If my future job required English proficiency, I would feel more enthusiastic about studying English in order to get it. I think it helps to get advice as soon as possible from a placement office about employment opportunities.

This suggests that availability of consultation about future jobs would also help to increase the enthusiasm of university students for studying English. There is a close relationship between job-related enthusiasm and anxiety. Students can decrease their anxiety when seriously studying English for getting a job when they have a more concrete idea about the type of work they are pursuing. Therefore, some form of incentive such as being successful in getting a desired job seems to have a positive influence on the enthusiasm of students to study English.

Another form of incentive is for teachers to provide more detailed assessments of students' speaking ability in class. 8F suggested that teachers should clarify and explain their assessments of students in order to maintain enthusiasm:

I want teachers to explain how they will grade each student at the beginning of the semester. If teachers don't give students a clear explanation about grades, the students lose enthusiasm or become antagonistic towards teachers when they get bad grades. It is unfortunate if students develop a dislike of English because of this. Therefore it is vital to clarify how students will be assessed.

Students show increased enthusiasm when they want to get a good grade, and this becomes a good incentive. Moreover, other factors such as year in college, major language and L1 use are also related to enthusiasm. 29F reflected and compared herself between her freshman period and her junior period, and she proved to herself that enthusiasm was important:

I could improve my English if I were more enthusiastic about it. I want to change myself if I can. I used to study English more seriously when I was a freshman. However, I lost my self-confidence, so I then started taking lessons in which teachers didn't give a lot of homework and students got credits for merely turning up to class. As a result, my English didn't improve, as there was no need to study English seriously. I think spending all my time studying is not a fulfilling approach

to college life. However, I have joined a club where I teach English to elementary school children. There is currently nothing in my college life to complain about.

29F initially had enthusiasm for studying English, but gradually lost her self-confidence and developed an inferiority complex when she compared her English to that of her classmates. Considering this case, it is important for teachers to offer lessons where students can maintain their enthusiasm and do not lose confidence. An additional problem was that students who studied a third language reported higher enthusiasm for their major language rather than English. 27F, a female junior Korean major in a high-anxiety group, still had some enthusiasm for studying English, but she did not have enough time to study both Korean and English. Therefore, she gave priority to Korean and her English study became perfunctory:

> *Most of the English classes at university place too much emphasis on speaking English, so I have had difficulty in surviving in these kinds of classes. I want to understand English better, but the most important thing for me is to get through the classes. I prefer to study my major language more and get good grades. I have no other time to spare because I want to hang out with my friends and do a part-time job. If teachers give me a lot of homework and expect me to have better comprehension and performance, I feel burdened.*

27F complained that she did not have much time to study English because she was too preoccupied with her major language, Korean, even though she wanted to improve her English. 37F, a female junior Korean major in a high-anxiety group, stated that she had already lost interest and had low enthusiasm for studying English because she was absorbed in studying Korean:

> *My major is Korean and I put my heart into it. I listen to Korean news, watch Korean TV, email with friends in Korean, and have dreams in Korean. I am surrounded by the Korean language even in Japan. Therefore, I don't have any inclination for studying English further. I am OK if I don't have any trouble with my English when travelling abroad. I think English shouldn't be a required subject for third language (L3) major students. If it is required, then students should be able to choose the classes they take, such as grammar, reading, writing or listening.*

37F had already given up studying English because she was interested in studying only Korean. It seems difficult to maintain enthusiasm for studying two languages simultaneously. 10F, a female freshman Spanish major in the low-anxiety group, highlighted the importance of enthusiasm rather than self-confidence when speaking English:

> *Students use Japanese when they have low enthusiasm and low self-determination. Even students who can speak English fluently sometimes use Japanese when they feel less enthusiastic because speaking English is bothersome.*

It is important to have both intrinsic and instrumental enthusiasm for reducing anxiety. With regard to intrinsic enthusiasm, it becomes a good incentive for students to join study-abroad systems as well as to have good role models, because students need passion for studying English. Establishment of job consultation services at universities is also a good incentive for increasing instrumental enthusiasm, along with fair assessment systems, because students need concrete objectives when studying English. Freshmen tend to have higher enthusiasm, since it is the beginning of their university studies. Students who are studying two foreign languages, one of which is English, along with another language that is their major one, felt stronger anxiety when speaking English. Some students with lower enthusiasm tended to rely on L1 use even though they had higher self-confidence and less anxiety, as their English was good. Therefore, enthusiasm appears to be more important for avoiding L1 use.

3.3.2.3 Self-confidence
3.3.2.3.1 Opportunities for speaking practice to improve self-confidence

Opportunities for speaking practice are important for improving self-confidence. One important facet in the development of self-confidence is self-awareness of progress. Students who did not obtain good grades or did not feel they were making good progress in English language proficiency felt more anxious. They sometimes could not understand why their English had not improved as much as they expected, even though they were enthusiastic and had studied English for a long time. They worried that they needed to change their learning strategy because their poor grades implied they had studied English in the wrong way. In order to speak English fluently, practice was crucial. In fact, students with homestay experience overseas maintained that they became anxious

because they had less opportunity to speak English in Japan after returning from abroad, and noticed a slowdown in their progress. Some students felt that continuing to speaking English made them progress and feel less anxious. 3M emphasized the importance of getting as much speaking practice as possible in order to increase self-confidence:

> *I believe the more English I speak, the less anxious I feel. The best way is to do paired work that increases the opportunity to speak English. I cannot gain self-confidence without practicing speaking English, and if I don't get much practice I feel anxious about it. Being afraid of failure prevents me from speaking English and makes me anxious.*

English speaking practice is important for increasing self-confidence and reducing anxiety. The Japanese education system does not give students sufficient opportunity to speak English. Education starting from elementary school and continuing to university needs to nurture students to encourage them to talk and outline their own ideas instead of adapting their views to fit those of others. In order to be confident, it is important for students to have varied practical experience of speaking English if they wish to improve their speaking skill. Therefore, the Japanese education system should place significant focus on speaking English in addition to addressing students' own opinions.

3.3.2.3.2 Factors linked to self-confidence

Personality differences among students affect their self-confidence. Although those who had little self-confidence tended to feel anxious and were afraid to speak English, some female students also pointed out individual differences such as self-consciousness and shyness; they hesitated to speak out in class (in public), even in Japanese. Therefore, 10F adopted a second language personality to reduce anxiety:

> *I easily get nervous because of my shy personality. Japanese language has many ambiguous expressions and honorifics, so I become shy, reserved and modest when I speak Japanese. However, I need to pretend to be non-Japanese in order to speak English confidently. When I recognize I am Japanese, even though I am actually Japanese, I become a coward. I notice that my personality, my way of speaking, and my tone of voice change, whereas I become bold and self-assertive with no diffidence when I become an avatar.*

For shy students like 10F, a conscious change of personality may be effective. Other students regarded themselves as perfectionists because they wanted to speak English using the correct grammar, did not want to take risks, and disliked losing face in front of classmates. This attitude prevented them from speaking English more often. Although measures of perfectionism did not show up as significant in the quantitative data, it emerged in interviews that perfectionism was related to strong anxiety. Perfectionists constantly felt very anxious because of their lofty ideals, although they always studied vocabulary, idiom and grammar at home. 32F, a female freshman English major in a high-anxiety group, explained how she disliked losing face, which is a major trait of perfectionists:

> *I felt depressed and wanted to quit university because I felt inferior to my classmates when I spoke English. I cried and consulted with my friends about the problem. They encouraged me to carry on studying English in a different way and this helped me to change my mind in a more positive way. They successfully made me believe I can do it if I study how to speak English seriously.*

In contrast to being a perfectionist like 32F, 11F had characteristics that were more suited to becoming multilingual, at least at an initial level:

> *I don't mind what others think about my presentation. They listen to me, which means I am fine. I am very tolerant of mistakes and learn languages easily, but only to a very basic level, and as I easily get tired whenever things are more difficult, I find it hard to study a language in more depth.*

Individual characteristics, especially like perfectionism, seem to prevent students from speaking English. In addition, the personal trait of WTC and being tolerant of ambiguity in English can be of help in improvement of speaking skills.

Besides individual personality, other factors such as English proficiency level were closely linked to students' confidence. 25F, a female freshman Korean major in a high-anxiety group, described the relationship between her English proficiency level and self-confidence:

I am not good at speaking English, so I don't feel any self-confidence in doing so. First, I think about what I want to say in Japanese. Then I translate my thoughts into English and speak it in English, monitoring my English all the time while speaking. I am not shy when I speak in Korean. I am confident and don't feel anxious when speaking Korean because I am proud of my good grades in Korean. However, I am not confident when speaking English because I don't have a good school record in English classes. I always worry about other people's evaluation of my English. In my estimation, whether or not students can have self-confidence is closely related to the level they are at.

Among factors related to self-confidence, individual characteristics such as shyness and perfectionism were emphasized. Additionally, it became apparent that when some students lack satisfactory English proficiency, they lose self-confidence due to their limited vocabulary and grammar. Moreover, the fast pace required during conversations caused less self-confident students to sometimes lose the opportunity to get into a conversation.

3.3.2.3.3 How to gain self-confidence

Since self-confidence is important for reducing anxiety, knowing how to increase self-confidence would be useful. Students increased their self-confidence when they received good grades in speaking classes or received positive feedback after presentations. Moreover, compliments from teachers and classmates about pronunciation and speech, a wider vocabulary, or good command of grammar served effectively to boost their self-confidence and subsequently their enthusiasm. Having a future goal also helped to give students self-confidence because it increased enthusiasm as well as their amount of speaking practice. However, comparison of TL proficiency with classmates seemed to be the biggest reason for loss of self-confidence. 36F explained the reasons for this:

If I feel superior to my classmates, I have more self-confidence. Whether or not I am good at English is measured in comparison with classmates. Everything is relative, and this affects my self-confidence. Many of my classmates speak English more fluently than I do, even though I feel I am not so bad. Conversely, my Chinese is at a basic level, but I have self-confidence in Chinese because I can speak it better than

my classmates. Compliments from others can increase my enthusiasm, but if I think I am inferior to my classmates, I lose both self-confidence and enthusiasm.

Students always compared their level with the partner's when they did pair work, and sometimes had a feeling of inferiority, which caused them to lose their self-confidence. However, English proficiency depends on students' past experiences. Some students take advantage of their experience of studying abroad and it is a matter of course that they speak English very fluently. Interestingly, 26M (whose parents are Japanese and who had lived in Brazil, but returned to Japan several years ago), a male sophomore Portuguese major in the high-anxiety group, was proud of his Portuguese, and this made him more positive about using English:

I am inferior to others in English, but superior in Portuguese. That confidence helps give me self-confidence about my English. I have an advantage over students who speak only first and second languages because I can speak a third.

Most students with low self-confidence usually drift away from learning English, but this is not the case in every situation. 32F even considered that awareness of her low proficiency and low self-confidence gave her an incentive to study English more seriously:

I always think I have to study English more because I am not good at it at all. It is a disguised feeling of inferiority that gives me the strength to make an effort. I become easily depressed when I cannot make myself understood, as I am a bad loser. However, the determination not to lose gives me a strong incentive to study English harder.

Students were always concerned about their English proficiency in comparison to their classmates. Therefore, for developing self-confidence, it is vital for some students to be proud of their proficiency and good grades along with having clear objectives to study English. However, for other students, awareness of low proficiency gives them an incentive to study English seriously because their spirit of self-advancement is strong.

3.3.2.3.4 Relationship between enthusiasm and self-confidence

Anxiety is closely inter-related to enthusiasm and self-confidence, and this relationship shows a number of patterns. A combination of higher enthusiasm and self-confidence can decrease anxiety. 11F explained the relationship between enthusiasm, self-confidence and Japanese use:

The amount of Japanese spoken depends on how enthusiastic students are. However, students who are very enthusiastic but less self-confident want to use Japanese. To increase self-confidence, they need to practice speaking English more. There is a closely linked relationship between enthusiasm and self-confidence.

According to 11F, students with lower enthusiasm and self-confidence wanted to use Japanese more. Moreover, 37F considered that proficiency level, enthusiasm, self-confidence and Japanese use are closely inter-linked:

If students have high enthusiasm and self-confidence, and better comprehension, they won't use Japanese and their use of English will increase. Actually, I don't care whether teachers use Japanese in English lessons. However, I get angry when teachers use Japanese in Korean lessons because I have high enthusiasm for studying Korean, and high ability and self-confidence in the Korean language.

As 37F states, students with high enthusiasm, a satisfactory proficiency level and self-confidence toward a target language do not have high anxiety and do not want to use L1. Students developed anxiety and low self-confidence when they were uncertain if they had understood what teachers or classmates were saying, or whether their English could be understood by their audience. 10F described the importance of having self-confidence when she spoke English, but placed greater emphasis on high enthusiasm rather than self-confidence:

I use both enthusiasm and self-confidence to help reduce anxiety. At first, I feel both enthusiastic and anxious, but I try to overcome my anxiety by being more enthusiastic. As my English improves, I feel more confident and less anxious, and this gives me even more confidence and enthusiasm to learn. Students who have high self-confidence but low enthusiasm cannot improve their English in the long

term. Rather, I find it is students who have low self-confidence but high enthusiasm who finally improve their English. Low self-confidence makes students anxious. However, students with high aims are always less self-confident because they aren't satisfied with their ability no matter how much they study English, and no matter how far they progress. Of course, students who have high self-confidence and high enthusiasm have low anxiety, which is ideal.

10F placed much emphasis on enthusiasm, but 8F gave more importance to high self-confidence. According to her past experience, high self-confidence and a rational awareness of the need to study were required in order to have high enthusiasm:

Students aren't very enthusiastic at first. Anxious students who are lacking in self-confidence have difficulty becoming enthusiastic about English. However, when I had to study English as a required subject for entrance examinations, and then when I wanted to enter a university which required higher English proficiency, it made a difference. Praise and a sense of superiority are probably needed in order to get to like English. While I acknowledge it is necessary to study English, I am beginning to enjoy doing it more, and so my self-confidence and enthusiasm may gradually increase.

Although the issue of whether self-confidence or enthusiasm was more important depended on the individual student, I can conclude that both are definitely important for reducing anxiety. Moreover, there is a complex inter-relationship among anxiety, enthusiasm, self-confidence, English proficiency level and L1 use.

3.3.2.4 L1 restriction

Restriction of L1 use made students anxious. Students with higher enthusiasm did not use Japanese during English lessons, whereas students with less enthusiasm did not mind using Japanese more frequently. However, students with higher enthusiasm but lower self-confidence sometimes used Japanese because L1 helped to alleviate their anxiety. 1F, a female sophomore Spanish major in the low anxiety group, insisted that the most effective way to quickly reduce anxiety was to use Japanese in EFL class, but at the same time expressed her regret at doing so:

Students with higher anxiety use Japanese more often. Although they can reduce their short-term anxiety immediately after they have got through a difficult situation, they cannot reduce their long-term anxiety. This is because their English proficiency level doesn't improve at all if they always use Japanese to solve problems.

Students recognized that L1 use is not able to solve fundamental problems, such as helping to reduce long-term anxiety, but they were unable to arrive at a good solution to their dilemma, and this seemed to make them frustrated. Here I found important relationships between anxiety and L1 use, and in chapter 4, I will discuss this relationship in more detail, including other factors related to L1 use.

3.3.2.5 Fear of making mistakes

The fear of making mistakes is also a cause of anxiety. When students thought they would be unable to make themselves understood in English because of their limited vocabulary, poor grammar, bad pronunciation or frequent mistakes, they became very anxious and found they couldn't speak English as they would have liked. As a solution, some students sometimes asked teachers questions after classes had finished because they felt shy about asking questions in front of the whole class due to lack of confidence and fear of making mistakes. Another interesting opinion came from 16F, who described how a classmate's response to mistakes made others afraid of making errors.

I feel uneasy about my classmate's conduct, as she always looks at our teacher's face whenever she or her friends have made mistakes. She always wants to see how the teacher reacts to mistakes, which makes me feel very nervous and desperate not to make mistakes. I wish she would stop this kind of behavior.

16F stated that her classmate's behavior had an adverse effect and made her more conscious about making mistakes. 10F preferred talking with native speakers of English because she felt nervous when she had conversations with Japanese classmates in English:

I worry about what other Japanese people think of my English because we are the same nationality and share a similar way of thinking. This is why we easily notice each other's mistakes. In fact, I am sometimes hurt when my friends point out my

mistakes. Although I am very enthusiastic, I am afraid of making mistakes. However, I am not so concerned about making mistakes when talking to English-native speakers.

Since students are in the process of learning English, a relaxed easy-going classroom environment, in which everyone is allowed to make mistakes, would seem to be an ideal approach. Focusing on accuracy may dent enthusiasm. Learning should be fun, focusing on conveying the meaning of what to say without worrying about small mistakes. Therefore, constant correction of minor errors in class may not be desirable.

3.3.2.6 Peer pressure in pair/group work

The reaction of a partner in pair work can sometimes be a key factor. The conduct of a pair partner seemed to have a significant impact on students, and bad behavior in particular was a potential cause of anxiety. For instance, irritation at a pair partner's poor speaking performance sometimes led to increased anxiety in the other partner. Many students wanted to do pair work with a partner who would listen enthusiastically, look them in the eye, and express understanding by nodding and smiling. Moreover, students wanted to work with a partner who did not pressurize them by saying things such as "You can relax and take your time as I'm listening and waiting for you". Furthermore, the way feedback was provided was also considered important. A partner might use a gentle mode of expression such as "I cannot hear you because of the noise around here, so could you please repeat what you said?", making everyone feel more comfortable. 22F, a female freshman English major in the high anxiety group, did not like classmates who lacked enthusiasm for pair work, often spoke Japanese, criticized others by picking on small mistakes, and pulling faces when mistakes were made. Moreover, 22F was also offended when a partner showed an indifferent response:

I am sometimes depressed by my partner's behavior. When a partner replies to me badly or reacts indifferently even when I make big efforts to express my opinions, I get anxious as I worry my English isn't so good and my partner might not be able to understand what I'm saying. As I have had such experiences before, I try to show my willingness to listen to what a partner is saying in order not to offend him/her.

22F did not like her partner's unhelpful, inconsiderate behavior that offended her and increased her anxiety. 12F wanted a supportive and encouraging pair partner who was willing to help her:

> *The fact I stop speaking when I cannot respond quickly to a partner makes me anxious. That moment of silence puts pressure on me and I don't like it. When this happens I really want a partner to help me instead of waiting for me to say something.*

12F wanted support from her partner because she felt uncomfortable in moments of silence during conversations. Moreover, students disliked being looked down on and receiving comments such as "I don't understand what you are talking about". When paired partners differed in their English proficiency, their activity tended not to go well. The success of pair work is likely to depend on whether individuals are well matched with their partner. Students tended to compare themselves with their partner, and even competed against him/her. Students who were good at English felt a sense of superiority; conversely, students who were less proficient at speaking felt inferior. 37F expressed this feeling as follows:

> *As I cannot speak English well, I feel ashamed and sorry for causing my partner trouble. I think it's better if my partner could find someone who can speak English better than I can, as I don't want to be a disappointment.*

As Japanese people tend to have a mentality that makes them avoid bothering others, 37F felt ashamed because she could not meet her partner's expectation. This feeling might arise through thoughtfulness for others, but it may be problematic for students with low self-confidence. The fact that some students spoke English better than others largely depended on previous experience in English education. 27F mentioned the importance of positive English education experiences since childhood, and pointed out the reason why she had difficulty in speaking English:

> *In order to speak English enthusiastically, I need courage because I get mental blocks. I stop talking when I'm with a person who isn't considerate toward poor speakers. People who speak English fluently can't understand the feelings of those who cannot speak English so well because they have different ways of learning*

English. Although I am told to speak English, I find it hard because I started speaking English for the first time only after entering university. The best English speakers started learning very early on and acquired English more naturally. Previous education is highly advantageous for some students.

The period for which students had been studying English appeared to be important because those who had studied English since childhood knew many useful expressions and spoke fluently. Such students already had the advantage of speaking English because of the environment in which they had been raised. Also, advanced-level students, especially those who had learned English since early childhood, were sometimes unable to understand the feelings of beginners, and misunderstood their partners as being lazy. Therefore, such students ought to be more considerate of others and minimize any displeasure with classmates who have lower proficiency (i.e. L3 major students), especially when such partners become silent or cannot speak English properly. Intimacy with a partner was considered important for easing students' anxiety. The better classmates knew each other, the less anxious they felt. Students judged their English proficiency level quickly by comparison with their classmates and some students felt that their level was similar to that of their classmates and did not feel inferior. Moreover, 24F knew that her level was lower, but did not develop a feeling of inferiority:

I am self-conscious. I don't want others to think I am inferior to them. I always worry about what I should do when I cannot make myself understood or when I cannot express what I want to say and stop talking in the middle of a sentence. When I talk with people who know I am just a beginner, I can have relaxed conversations without getting annoyed because they don't expect me to speak so well.

Students always compared their command of English with one another, and their partners' annoyance made students stressed if they failed to respond to them properly and promptly. When talking with unfamiliar people, students felt more anxious and inferior even when they were at the same level. Interesting, even this was not universal, and individual differences emerged: 28F, for instance, preferred pairing with classmates she was not close to:

> *I enjoy working with an enthusiastic partner. I only lose enthusiasm when a partner uses much Japanese. When I am paired with a close friend, I find he/she often talks to me in Japanese. I find it hard to talk in English because we are so used to conversing in Japanese. Therefore I'd rather have a partner who is new to me.*

Most students preferred to have a partner who was close to them because such a close friend knew their level of proficiency, didn't offend them by treating them badly, and assisted them. However, some students wanted to have an unfamiliar partner in order to avoid L1 use, and where possible this should also be taken into account.

Overall, therefore, pairing should be adjusted according to students' English proficiency levels. Some students proposed that classes should be divided according to English proficiency and that students should be placed in an appropriate level of class. If this were possible, then teachers could use proper materials, change how or what to teach students according to their level, and match them with appropriate paired partners. Students' L1 use might decrease if they had a partner at a similar level because they would both use understandable English with each other. 27F, a female junior Korean major in the high anxiety group, suggested the importance of dividing English classes according to speaking level:

> *I would like to join a class that has a slightly higher level of speaking ability than myself. If I am placed at a very high level, others may look down on me and make me feel small. I feel sorry if I cannot meet my partner's expectations. I get anxious when I feel my partner is annoyed with me, making my performance worse. In such situations, I lose both self-confidence and enthusiasm. I want to improve my English and increase my confidence gradually.*

Most students proposed that classes should be divided by English speaking level, but other students proposed other ways for dividing classes. 36F proposed that class division should be done on the basis of proficiency in all four skills of English:

> *The class should be divided by taking into consideration both English speaking level and English proficiency test score. There should be some higher-level students in every class because, without them, students at a lower level would be less likely to become enthusiastic. Role models are good for stimulating enthusiasm.*

In terms of their classmates, then students disliked indifference and less considerate attitudes, long silences without help, lower enthusiasm for doing tasks with much use of Japanese, and being looked down on by peers. Furthermore, some students felt ashamed when they were unable to meet their partner's expectations, thus hindering language learning. Therefore, it seems that classes should be divided appropriately. A mixed level class might be ideal because students lose enthusiasm for studying English in low-level classes when almost all classmates cannot speak English and often use Japanese behind the teacher's back. However, there are some problems in mixed-level classes: teachers tend to take care of lower-level students, which is a waste of time for students who don't need any extra explanation from teachers. Therefore, teachers should ask the better students to play a teacher's role. Alternatively, some students proposed dividing classes according to levels of enthusiasm, experience in studying abroad, or skills such as writing, reading, listening or speaking. Classes should be small and teachers should be flexible for changing classes if students wish. Moreover, students needed some explanation about how classes are divided. Without this, students might develop antagonistic feelings toward teachers if they are placed in a lower class than they expected.

3.3.2.7 Classroom atmosphere

Another aspect likely to worsen students' anxiety was an uncomfortable classroom atmosphere. Many students needed a comfortable classroom atmosphere in order to speak English with ease, and they gave concrete suggestions for improvements. Students' comments revealed some insights into the need for a secure environment to reduce anxiety. 24F proposed that people should stop criticizing poor speakers and instead help them:

> *Individuals with unpleasant personalities don't notice how much they hurt others. Those who speak English well should care more and teach others useful English expressions rather than criticizing them when they use Japanese.*

Proficient students should care about others who cannot speak English fluently, thinking carefully about what they say and provide them with useful hints or alternative words. On the other hand, some people make fun of, and even heckle, friends who pretend to speak like native speakers of English. Even students who want to acquire authentic

English also have a risk of being ridiculed because they are considered to put on airs. Within Japanese classrooms, the pressure on each individual student to conform with his or her peers is strong. Students have to recognize seriously how much negative feeling about being laughed at by classmates during lessons badly affects their performance. It is also important to create a safe, pleasant learning atmosphere, using Japanese as an anxiety-lowering tool and allowing students to make mistakes. In short, a safe and collaborative classroom atmosphere is needed for enjoyable and positive study. 34F, a female Spanish major junior in the high-anxiety group considered group size and social interaction to be important:

> *It is a bit hard to speak in front of the whole class when there are many unfamiliar classmates. I feel more at ease in a small class or in one where there are many close friends.*

However, some students preferred conversing with native speakers of English because they had no high expectations of Japanese students' English. Additionally, some students preferred to interact with people outside the university whose English proficiency level was lower than theirs so that they didn't feel overwhelmed. The learning environment should be adjusted for students to maximize enthusiasm. 30F, a female Thai language major sophomore in the high-anxiety group, proposed a different lesson structure:

> *I liked to have a joint class with exchange students. Although the class was divided into 45 minutes for English lessons and the other 45 minutes for Japanese, I was quite happy with this. We could teach the languages to each other. I think this is a good way of learning languages. If I had a friend who is a native-English speaker, I would be more interested in learning English and using more of it, so I can communicate better.*

Teachers' consideration and involvement are also important factors; teachers should give students good advice to create a helpful atmosphere, which is vital in order for students to speak freely. Moreover, teachers might suggest ways of creating a better atmosphere in classes by telling students the kinds of behavior that can hurt others. Also teachers could help students make new friends by changing pair partners every lesson. Some suggestions here for teachers can help students to change their classroom behavior, and thereby create a good classroom environment. If teachers sometimes praise students,

this helps to raise their enthusiasm. Therefore, even if teachers think a particular question is easy, they should not say so. WTC is also important when teaching students. If teachers ask students repeatedly about what they are trying to say when they cannot express themselves well, students get tired of speaking English and stop asking teachers questions. It is important for teachers not to adopt an authoritarian position toward language instruction, but rather treat students with respect. Teachers, by putting themselves in their students' shoes, can work toward facilitating better learning. 36F and 1F gave teachers some interesting suggestions:

> *I become anxious when teachers involve us in group work. I want teachers to leave me alone without naming me or even looking at me. I feel more relaxed in group work where I can choose an interesting topic myself and present it in a small group. Other groups made presentations simultaneously, which made me feel much less anxious because only the members of my group were listening. I am uneasy when it is quiet in the classroom, as everyone can hear my voice. (36F)*

> *Students don't like teachers who speak Japanese in lessons and only explain the contents of a textbook. We get anxious when teachers use Japanese because we worry we cannot improve our listening skills in lessons. We might also doubt a teacher's English ability. They should use Japanese only if we are in difficulty. (1F)*

These comments indicate that students want to have a collaborative relationship with classmates, doing tasks in small groups with close friends or having lessons with exchange students if ever the university is able to arrange it. Teachers should give students freedom about language choice and activities to some extent, and make efforts to be role models and brush up their teaching skills. Most importantly, teachers should create a comfortable class atmosphere for students by guiding them towards collaboration and avoiding any language or behavior that could be construed as bullying. By doing this, a safe classroom environment can be created and all students will feel relaxed when practicing English.

3.3.2.8 Gender differences

I have already found from the focus group interviews that gender differences are closely linked to FLCA (see 3.3.1 Findings from focus group interview data). I will discuss

gender differences in more detail here. Considering the difference in self-consciousness between males and females, 3M, a male International Business Communication (IBC) major freshman in the low-anxiety group, explained why he thought females were self-conscious:

> *Members in male groups have never looked down on members in other groups even if they do badly. But members of female groups regard members in other groups as inferior when they make mistakes. That's why female students become self-conscious and seem afraid to speak English in class.*

While male students tended to give their opinions when asked to, females tended to have factions and to compete with same-sex classmates who were likely have similar ideas. Females were more likely see other females as rivals because males tended to differ from females in the way that they study or think, and were considered outsiders to females. To avoid being criticized, females wanted to harmonize their opinions with others. 4M, a male Chinese major junior in the low-anxiety group, suggested:

> *Male students are a minority and often give their opinion, so they always prepare for it. Males take more responsibility and teachers expect them to express their own ideas. However, females are more worried about being criticized, so their views are more similar to those of their classmates.*

Self-consciousness seemed to be a female stereotypical trait, which frequently involved comparing oneself to others. When there were classmates who spoke English fluently, females lost self-confidence and spoke less. When making mistakes, females were initially afraid of what they should do, and subsequently what others think of them. They were always concerned about being in the public eye. Females found fault with other females and denigrated classmates who stood out from the crowd. Teachers should stop certain students from disrupting and creating an atmosphere that is not conducive to learning. It is possible that these gender comments in interviews might be reflecting stereotypes as well as reality.

3.4 Discussion of the qualitative results (focus group and individual interviews)

In this section, I will consider the reasons of students' anxiety raised in both focus group and individual interviews and put my findings in the context of previous research. Finally, I make some suggestions for university policy in Japan.

3.4.1 Time pressure

Students felt more anxious and performed worse when they were pressed for time. In English conversation, even less anxious or more advanced-level students felt anxiety and performed less well when they were forced to respond quickly. In one case study, MacIntyre & Legatto (2011) reported a participant who felt more confident when she had sufficient time to conceptualize and plan what she was thinking and could complete tasks without abandoning them. In classroom presentations, students with more satisfactory preparation time improved their performance and were less anxious. This is supported by Mak (2011), who reported that Chinese students who had not been given any preparation time before speaking in front of classmates felt most anxious in English language classrooms. Moreover, students in this study seemed to respond well when they are able to study at their own pace without being pushed too hard while acquiring English. Acute time pressures on students increase the risk of them becoming anxious and giving up more easily when faced with conversations, presentations and long-term language acquisition.

3.4.2 Enthusiasm

Promoting enthusiasm among students is necessary for reducing anxiety. According to student opinions, the following conditions increased their enthusiasm. First, a desire to study English and enjoy it was important. Moreover, students wanted role models who were good at speaking English and wanted to be like them because they thought fluent English speakers appeared more refined. Dörnyei (2010) considered the 'ideal L2 self' (the attributes someone would ideally wish to possess) to be a powerful motivator for learning L2 due to a desire to reduce the discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal one. A further strong incentive for students was seeking jobs that required a good command of English. Students considering such jobs after graduating from university felt anxious when they were unable to study English as much as they wished. Therefore,

universities should consider job counselling advice at an earlier stage in order to motivate students to study. Additionally, it would be helpful if universities could establish overseas study programs that are integrated into language courses. One student felt she would have been better at English if she had had experience studying abroad when she was a freshman or a sophomore. She confided that she had had more dreams and enthusiasm about her future when she was a freshman, but later realized her English was inferior to her classmates, and lost her enthusiasm to study it. Perhaps cynically, she added that concentrating only on studies was not a fulfilling approach to college life. Another student who had participated in a study-abroad and homestay program experienced much less anxiety after her host family complimented her about her English and reassured her she was being understood.

English taken as a major subject helped students focus better on their English studies. Students not majoring in English had less enthusiasm and tended to select English classes for which they could get credits more easily, as their schedule was filled by studying their major language. There is a risk of such students completely losing their interest in studying English and finding their English lessons burdensome, as I saw above in the case of the students majoring in Korean.

A clear assessment system was considered important, as students benefited from good feedback and made more effort when they knew how and what they were being marked on. This could also help to avoid misunderstandings between teachers and students. Students who studied hard but obtained low marks developed antagonistic feelings towards teachers and appeared to lose enthusiasm for studying English.

Students who were less enthusiastic about English spent less time speaking it. Therefore, when they spoke in English, they became anxious because they lacked self-confidence due to lack of speaking practice. In the worst case, an anxious student who exhibited low self-confidence lost all enthusiasm and wanted to avoid attending English classes altogether. However, more enthusiastic students overcame their fear and felt less anxious. These findings are supported by Piniel & Csizer (2013), who stated that the degree of student motivation appears to affect anxiety level, and anxiety is related to self-efficacy (self-confidence). Additionally, my data showed there was a more complex inter-relationship among enthusiasm, self-confidence, anxiety and the amount of L1 use. For example, basically more enthusiastic students wanted to use L1 less, while students

with less enthusiasm wanted to use L1 more. However, students with higher enthusiasm but lower self-confidence wanted to use more Japanese due to their higher anxiety. Students with more problems were those with higher self-confidence but lower enthusiasm who did not care about whether Japanese was used. These data suggest that higher enthusiasm and self-confidence play important roles in reducing anxiety and encouraging students to use L1 less often.

3.4.3 Self-confidence

Students with low self-confidence suffered from significant anxiety, especially when they failed to see any progress in their English speaking ability. Piniel & Csizer (2013) stated that lower levels of self-efficacy are linked to higher anxiety and lower motivation. Students needed self-confidence, especially when speaking TL. As Kitano (2001) found, everyone's performance is on display in speaking classes, and students become conscious about their performance when they compare themselves with their peers. In fact, students in this survey worried about their fluency and whether their English was understandable, causing them to lose self-confidence. For gaining self-confidence, students listed WTC, the number of years spent studying English, and English proficiency level as important factors. Likewise, MacIntyre, Noels, & Clement (1997) assumed that students with low WTC would not progress rapidly, and would retain a higher level of anxiety.

Some students mentioned individual differences. One confessed she was shy and easily became nervous. She overcame her shyness and gained more courage by pretending to be a native English speaker. This finding accords with that of Wilson (2013): for some of her research subjects, FL played a role "as both a spur to communicate and as a mask to cover their shyness" (p. 307). Another student could not speak in class at all, and kept silent because of her lack of self-confidence. Other students blamed their anxiety on their perfectionist traits, wanting to speak English only using the correct words and grammar. Their expectations were high to the point that they quickly became anxious, and as a result performed less well. Perfectionists were also afraid of losing face by making mistakes. Although they did homework and prepared for lessons well, their objectives were always rather lofty, which made them anxious all the time. One of these perfectionist students seriously thought about quitting school because she felt inferior when speaking English. However, encouragement from friends helped to change her mind. Finally, she felt that speaking English was something she had not fully developed,

and that her speaking skills might improve if she started to practice in earnest. Some perfectionist students were so highly self-conscious and anxious that this prevented them from speaking in public; Dewaele & Shan Ip (2013) have similarly reported that higher tolerance of ambiguity (i.e. being less perfectionist) is linked to lower anxiety. In contrast, non-perfectionists did not mind making mistakes and tolerated ambiguity, casually exploring several different languages simultaneously, as observed in my interview survey. Ely (1989) has stated that students who tolerate ambiguity do not cling to their mother tongue and feel comfortable if they skip over essential information during their study. Similarly, the present qualitative results indicated a strong relationship between anxiety and perfectionism, which was not reflected in the quantitative results because of a low Cronbach alpha level of perfectionism on the five-point Likert scale (see 2.4 Quantitative data (paper-based questionnaire)).

Considering the relationship between enthusiasm and self-confidence, students with more self-confidence but less enthusiasm found it difficult to improve their English. However, students with more enthusiasm but less self-confidence were more likely to develop their command of English. For instance, one student combatted anxiety with enthusiasm and self-confidence. At the start of the year she had only enthusiasm, but gained self-confidence as she made more progress. However, she never felt she had enough self-confidence because her self-expectations increased as her speaking skills improved. That is, lower self-confidence caused students to be more anxious, but students with lofty objectives seemed to feel anxious all the time because they were never satisfied with their ability and constantly aiming to improve themselves. This is supported by Piniel & Csizer (2013), who stated that facilitating anxiety can contribute positively to the learning process, whereas debilitating anxiety may have a negative impact on language learning. Ideal students are those with more enthusiasm and higher self-confidence. One student considered that self-confidence and the requirement of English for career progression are important factors for improving one's English. Initially, it might be difficult for less self-confident and more anxious students to develop enthusiasm for studying English, but the requirement for English could make all the difference. Students should also be complimented, which makes them improve their self-confidence and study the language more eagerly. In other words, although students began their English studies out of necessity at first, they might later begin to enjoy studying English, gradually develop self-confidence, and become more enthusiastic

3.4.4 L1 restriction

Students wanted help from teachers in the form of explanations in simple English or Japanese. Regarding the limited use of L1, students became anxious when using Japanese was prohibited. Students' acceptance of the English-only rule at the university where this research was conducted, and their strong determination to learn English, led them to try to avoid using Japanese. However, they often relied on a bilingual dictionary, and at times used some Japanese for problem-solving, because it was difficult to overcome anxiety when encountering something completely new. This accords with Mak (2011), who found that allowing students to use L1 in L2 classrooms decreased anxiety about speaking in class, as L1 use improved student confidence and encouraged TL speaking.

In the present study, although students knew that Japanese would not help them improve their English speaking ability, it gave them an instant escape route for avoiding anxiety when they were in trouble. Some felt overwhelmed by pressure when they were in an English-only environment in task-based English classes. However, the issue of whether students should be allowed to use Japanese was controversial because students said use of Japanese reduced their anxiety and aided comprehension, whereas it also had the potential to decrease enthusiasm and increase peer pressure. In Chapter 4, I will discuss factors linked to L1 use in more detail.

3.4.5 Making mistakes

When making mistakes in English, for example forgetting words, using the wrong grammar, or having poor pronunciation, students felt more anxious. MacIntyre & Legatto (2011) reported a student who would suddenly abandon communication after making mistakes due to loss of self-confidence. Gkonou (2011) explored students' ongoing social comparisons and interactions and found that self-consciousness and anxiety in FL-speaking classes increased as a result of these interactions, mainly because learners feared negative evaluation and losing face whenever they made mistakes. In my study, some students were afraid to ask or answer questions out loud in classrooms as they wanted to avoid their mistakes being aired in public. Similarly, Liu (2006) reported that students felt nervous about being asked to respond to questions in class, as they worried about their English proficiency and feared making mistakes. As an interesting opinion in my study, a student complained about the behavior of a classmate who always checked

the teachers' facial expressions whenever others made mistakes. Such concern about mistakes by classmates made the classroom atmosphere unpleasant for this student.

Some students did not want to speak English with Japanese classmates because of peer pressure from classmates who pointed out their mistakes. Others agreed that correcting errors among friends was not a good approach, as it created a less enjoyable learning environment. These students felt uncertain about the value of achieving a high level of grammatical accuracy when speaking English, as they believed that fluency might be lost if they prioritized accuracy. Some students did not welcome error correction among classmates when they practiced speaking English in task-based English classes, whereas others did not mind being corrected by intimate friends. Students preferred to focus on fluency instead of accuracy while speaking English in class, which created a relaxed atmosphere appropriate for speaking practice.

3.4.6 Peer pressure in pair/group work

The focus group interviews revealed that peer pressure had a large influence on students' anxiety in English task-based classes. In line with Yan & Horwitz's (2008) findings, many students felt anxious, envious and uncomfortable because they perceived difference in English ability among their peers. Likewise, the present research found that anxiety sometimes created feelings of inferiority in students when speaking English. Some students became anxious as they were afraid they couldn't keep up with discussions in pair or group work. Those who felt inferior to their partners during paired work or toward other members in group work were afraid to speak English, as they did not want to be labelled as incompetent. Yan & Horwitz (ibid.) similarly concluded that students performed better when listening and speaking in more relaxed classes, and that more anxious students saw themselves as having lower ability, implying reduced self-esteem.

Feelings of anxiety and inferiority discouraged students from taking risks and speaking more English. Some students felt afraid if they couldn't offer counter-arguments against opinions proposed by more proficient speakers, or developed a complex because they perceived a huge gap between their English and that of their classmates. Such students reported that they became nervous, kept silent, or just nodded in agreement with others as they were conscious about getting negative assessments or making mistakes. They were reluctant to interrupt a conversation to ask about something they didn't understand. This

increased their anxiety, caused them to lose self-confidence, and made them more passive – answering only when asked directly and consulting a bilingual dictionary to look up the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary. This supports Kang's (2005) findings that students were reluctant to speak English when they were afraid of losing face by making errors or misunderstanding if they felt inferior in speaking, had a larger audience, if there were any signs of boredom from interlocutors, if they felt too much peer pressure, if they were given unfamiliar topics to talk about, or if there was any uncertainty from the beginning of a conversation.

Interesting pair dynamics emerged in the sense that students would always be concerned about who would become their pair partner. Some students felt reluctant to speak English among their Japanese classmates because of peer pressure. Interestingly, some students felt more relaxed when they were able to have a conversation with native speakers of English because non-Japanese did not expect Japanese to speak good English or mind their mistakes so much. Students also felt more at ease speaking English with people outside the university, as general citizens were more likely to speak even less English than they did.

Students felt that paired work was difficult if their partner showed little or no enthusiasm about a subject or less WTC, was unwilling to help out, frequently used Japanese, was critical of small mistakes, used negative body language, reacted little or not at all, or appeared to look down on their partner. Such poor behavior from a pair work partner increased student anxiety. One student confessed that she did not want to pair with close friends because they liked to talk to her in Japanese, which dampened her enthusiasm. Dörnyei & Kormos (2000) reported a similar finding that students who felt comfortable socially within their group were less likely to take tasks seriously and felt less social pressure to participate actively. Moreover, Bailey, Daley & Onwuegbuzie (1999) noted that some students preferred to work alone, possibly being correlated with FLCA in communicative classrooms. In contrast, in my study, if a pair partner or group members were helpful and considerate about a partner's feelings when asking for clarification or giving feedback, listened patiently, gave encouragement through positive non-verbal communication (e.g. nodding and smiling), and avoided imposing time pressure to respond, students felt more relaxed and less anxious. Some students did not mind if close friends corrected their errors, and were more likely to take risks despite not knowing how to express themselves so well in English.

Pairing or grouping was sometimes a key factor in successful work group because it was positively related to enthusiasm. This is supported by Yan & Horwitz (2008), who demonstrated that particular seating arrangements (Daly, 1991) and groupings are better for an open, dynamic and relaxed learning environment (Dörnyei, 1997). Actually, in my study, mismatched pairing caused misunderstanding and made both parties feel bad. In fact, a large difference in language proficiency between partners resulted in the poorer speakers using more Japanese. Similarly, Liu (2006) found that if a partner's English was better, the less proficient student became nervous about his/her limited English. Taking all of them into consideration, it may be better to match pair work partners according to proficiency. Students felt uncomfortable with partners who were more proficient, and preferred to be paired with close friends or partners at a similar level. Students who had studied English from early childhood had an advantage of speaking English and the huge gap in proficiency levels made students without such experience lose self-confidence and become anxious. Close friends were comfortable because they knew their levels and understood each other well, being unafraid to make mistakes, overlooking minor use of Japanese, and helping each other. Conversely, when students were given an unfamiliar pair partner, they were more likely to compare their level with that of their partner, compete to avoid being looked down upon, want to change partners so as not to disappoint them, and consequently suffer increased anxiety when they were not well matched. MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clement, & Noels (1998) considered that relationships between speakers, such as the power relationship, the level of intimacy, and social distance, become important factors for increasing WTC in L2 communication.

When one pair partner is very motivated, this has a positive influence on the other. However, when a partner has a very low level of language proficiency and lacks enthusiasm, this has a negative influence, causing both partners to lose enthusiasm. It is therefore important to consider students' English proficiency levels when dividing classes or pairing them, so that students with higher proficiency do not feel held back by those who are at a lower speaking level, and that conversely, students with lower proficiency don't feel ashamed when working with higher-level speakers. For instance, students with higher speaking fluency labelled partners with lower speaking proficiency as lazy because they were under the mistaken impression that the individual was not making any effort and then used L1; in other words, the reason for relying on L1 was not correctly understood. In fact, the poor speaker was making every effort, but actually used L1 as a last resort.

Regarding class divisions for good pairing, some students suggested that the whole class should be based on speaking proficiency. This proposal is consistent with that of Wilkinson (2012), who suggested it would be better to give speaking tests than to use a TOEIC test that has no speaking component when streaming students into levels for a course that is focused primarily on speaking. Conversely, there were other students who proposed mixed-level classes based on both speaking proficiency and test scores (listening and reading), which would ensure that poorer-ability students in speaking would have a better chance of finding role models and would be much less likely to lose enthusiasm for speaking English than those who had no such role models. When students wanted to change the class assigned to them on the basis of proficiency level, it was considered that teachers should be sympathetic and flexible. Additionally, an explanation of how classes are divided is important for some students who are sensitive to their class placement and might lose enthusiasm for studying if they do not agree with it. Students felt they could reduce their anxiety and take more risks with a collaborative pair partner and in a safe and cozy classroom environment.

3.4.7 Classroom atmosphere

Because an uncomfortable classroom environment increased student anxiety, it seems important to create collaborative classes. Students disliked being ridiculed, being asked too many questions, or being teased for their native-like pronunciation. Moreover, special care systems to help poor English speakers should be established to teach them proper vocabulary or giving hints. The reason for poor spoken English fluency was mainly lack of speaking experience or less time spent studying English previously. However, students with poor English adopted a mentality of not wanting to bother others. Therefore, it is important not to blame such students for any lack of fluency, and they should not be made to feel inferior to others. Additionally, students preferred a smaller class size comprising close friends, and making presentations within small groups, rather than to the whole class. Some wanted to have a joint class with exchange students. It is a good idea to make friends with native speakers of TL because it increases incentive to study the language.

With regard to teachers' roles, a comfortable classroom atmosphere can be created by instructing students not to hurt the feelings of others and by encouraging collaboration between students. Teachers should adopt a caring stance by listening to students with a smile, sympathetically correcting their mistakes, helping them when they are at a loss,

teaching several alternative expressions, writing difficult words on the blackboard, or using simpler English. Teachers should also behave as role models for instilling positive emotions and overcoming negative emotions. Teachers can play vital roles in reducing student anxiety and promoting WTC. These views are supported by Piechurska-Kuciel (2011), who found that students who had higher levels of teacher support experienced lower anxiety. Kitano (2001) also proposed that teachers should identify students who have more anxiety as a result of negative evaluation and treat them supportively, both inside and outside the classroom. Overall, teachers should be on the lookout for students who are at risk of developing feelings of inferiority toward other classmates, keeping in mind that such feelings may develop into mental blocks that hinder progress.

Additionally, teachers should never scold students if they are silent or use L1. If teachers reprimand this behavior, students' anxiety will increase and they may stop speaking English. Conversely, compliments by teachers or classmates appear to raise self-confidence (Dweck, 1999), and thus reduce anxiety. A Chinese major student mentioned that a positive assessment from her Chinese teacher significantly improved her self-confidence in the language. However, she lost enthusiasm for English as she felt she was poor at English compared with her classmates. These findings suggest it is important to create a friendly and non-threatening learning environment that does not involve student comparisons and competition. This is consistent with the advice of Liu & Jackson's (2008) that teachers in their study should build up the self-confidence of reticent students in a positive, caring environment by supporting them in a non-threatening manner or by facilitating interactive group activities. Moreover, teachers may share their past experiences with students because students want to learn strategies for improving their English and listen to stories from people who have been successful in language learning. Students also feel more relaxed if they can establish a closer relationship with teachers.

3.4.8 Gender differences

In this study, females were susceptible to peer pressure, and easily became self-conscious and anxious relative to their male colleagues. This is supported by Dewaele & MacIntyre (2014), who also found that their female subjects experienced more FLCA. In fact, females competed strongly with other friendship groups, often speaking ill of other groups behind their back, outsmarting each other, and lowering the

self-confidence of others. At first, females were embarrassed when making mistakes and then worried about what others would think of their errors. Perhaps most surprisingly, a couple of students even downgraded their English level to protect their pride. Conversely, male students did not appear to feel this pressure, engaging less in competition among their groups as well as with other groups and seemed happier to take on responsibility for speaking. In situations where a university is female-dominated, female students may become more self-conscious, leading to more severe competition. Therefore, teachers should pay attention to gender differences, especially when organizing pairs or groups, as most students prefer to be paired or grouped with intimate friends. Furthermore, the teacher and like-minded students should cooperate in trying to curb the activities of female students who tease, criticize or sabotage the efforts of others.

One further point is that power relationships may be linked to cultural stereotypes of males and females in general within Japan. This is especially true with regard to the older generation, but this type of relationship might still be inherited by the younger generation through their parents. Traditional Japanese society has always discouraged females from expressing their opinions, while encouraging them to follow the lead of males. Therefore, female students become self-conscious because they are always thinking about what others think; they try not to bother others, they tend to align their opinions with those of others, and they are reluctant to take speaking responsibility away from their male counterparts.

3.5 Summary

This chapter has investigated the reasons for FLCA in Japanese EFL college students. The quantitative data suggested that most students felt FLCA to some extent, although the degree of FLCA varied significantly. Students who experienced more anxiety spoke less English out of class, studied less at home, had lower enthusiasm and less comprehension ability, took fewer risks, and wanted to use more Japanese in class for both clarification and emotional support. Additionally, female students were more anxious than their male counterparts, and students with lower self-confidence and reported English proficiency showed stronger anxiety. Focusing on teacher-type preference, students who wanted to learn from BJNT felt more anxious, and female BJNT enthusiasts in particular had the strongest anxiety. One interesting result was that male MENT enthusiasts had the

highest anxiety among males, which could be interpreted as facilitative anxiety due to stronger enthusiasm for studying English.

Qualitative data from focus group interviews suggested that the main cause of increased anxiety was peer pressure, with important gender differences. Individual interviews revealed the causes of student anxiety in more detail, and these included time pressure, low enthusiasm, low self-confidence, restriction of L1 use, fear of making mistakes, peer pressure in pair/group work, an uncomfortable classroom atmosphere and gender differences. More active practice at speaking English in order to keep the conversation flowing in a lively way is important for improving both enthusiasm and self-confidence, and thus reducing anxiety. Some suggestions for how teachers can reduce student anxiety include the following: 1) reducing time pressure during in-class activities such as conversations and presentations, or in long-term English study; 2) raising student enthusiasm for studying English; 3) increasing student self-confidence; 4) being more flexible about L1 use; 5) allowing students to make mistakes; 6) training students to make good pair partners or group members; 7) creating a comfortable classroom atmosphere; and 8) taking gender differences into consideration and structuring classroom practices and activities. The underlying causes of FLCA need to be better clarified, identified in the classroom and then tackled appropriately. This will promote and enhance the language learning environment, and thus improve the learning process itself. As part of this important goal, L1 use can be a major factor in reducing anxiety. Therefore, the next chapter will focus in particular on the key question of the relationship between anxiety and L1 use.

Chapter 4: Results – factors linked to L1 use among Japanese EFL college students

The results detailed in Chapter 3 suggested that students with more anxiety spoke less English outside the classroom, studied English less at home, had lower enthusiasm and poorer comprehension, were less inclined to take risks, and wanted to use more Japanese in class. Moreover, females and students with lower self-confidence and reported English proficiency levels showed a stronger sense of anxiety. Those with a preference for BJNT, particularly females, had more anxiety than MENT enthusiasts. Interestingly, in the male group, it was MENT enthusiasts who had the highest anxiety levels, although this might to some extent have been facilitative anxiety. The interview results suggested that eight factors – time pressure, low enthusiasm, low self-confidence, restriction of L1 use, fear of making mistakes, peer pressure in pair/group work, an uncomfortable classroom atmosphere and gender differences – were the main causes of anxiety. Especially among females, peer pressure was a major cause of increased anxiety.

As the results detailed previously indicated that anxious students had a desire for more L1 use, this chapter examines other factors that are in play and focuses on the results of the second research question: What factors are linked to L1 use among Japanese EFL college students? Some researchers (Ahmad, 2009; Kitano, 2001) have supported the idea that there is a close relationship between L2 proficiency level and L1 use. However, other factors may also play a role in reducing L1 reliance. Therefore, this issue should be investigated, focusing on the relationships between L1 use, anxiety, gender, teacher-type preference, reported English proficiency level, and self-assessed English proficiency level (self-confidence).

This chapter presents and discusses important results and discussion on these issues. According to the quantitative and qualitative results presented below, students with higher anxiety, less enthusiasm and less willingness of risk-taking wanted to use L1 more. The strong correlation between L1 use and anxiety indicated that students felt less anxious when they used L1 in English classes. BJNT enthusiasts wanted to use more L1 than MENT peers, and especially female BJNT enthusiasts had the strongest desire for L1 use among all groups.

Another key finding was that the amount of desired L1 use was affected by reported English proficiency level only for clarification, and not for emotional support. That is, beginners wanted to use more Japanese than advanced-level students for understanding because L1 could help beginners comprehend English and reduce their anxiety. Surprisingly, however, self-confidence was not linked to the amount of desired L1 use, as it was shown that BJNT enthusiasts in the highest self-confidence group wanted to use Japanese most.

According to the interview survey, students' opinions regarding Japanese use included a wide range of both pros and cons. While L1 use seemingly helped to increase comprehension, reduce anxiety, and improve classroom management, it revealed that some students harbored negative feelings about their own use of L1. This was caused by peer pressure not to speak L1, and also a feeling of guilt about using L1. In English classes, all of which were female-dominated, female students were likely to become self-conscious and feel strong pressure to speak. This finding appeared to be supported by quantitative results showing that, among BJNT enthusiasts, females had higher anxiety and wanted to use more Japanese than males.

In this chapter, the results of quantitative analyses are shown in Section 4.1; the results of qualitative analyses are shown in Section 4.2; a discussion of both quantitative and qualitative results is given in Section 4.3, and Section 4.4 provides a summary.

4.1 Results of quantitative analysis

4.1.1 Relationship between L1 use (understanding/emotion) and independent variables

Table 4.1 presents Pearson's correlation analyses of the relationship between L1 use (for understanding) and independent variables. It shows that there was a significant *negative* correlation between enthusiasm and understanding, $r = -.28$, $p = .0001$ and between risk-taking and understanding, $r = -.26$, $p = .0001$. Moreover, there was a significant *positive* correlation between anxiety and understanding, $r = .23$, $p = .0003$ and between emotion and understanding, $r = .58$, $p = .0001$. In other words, students who wanted to use more Japanese for clarification purpose had lower enthusiasm, more anxiet1y, less risk-taking in class, and a stronger desire to use Japanese for emotional support.

Table 4.1 Pearson's correlations between L1 use (understanding) and independent variables.

Variable	Correlation (*r*)	Count (N)	Sig.(*p*) (two-tailed)
Speaking opportunity	-.12	251	.0826
Study hours	-.02	249	.7687
Enthusiasm	-.28	253	.0001*
Comprehension	-.14	253	.0299
Anxiety	.23	257	.0003*
Risk-taking	-.26	257	.0001*
Perfectionism	-.06	257	.3243
Emotion	.58	257	.0001*

*After Bonferroni correction: a criterion of significance of the alpha-level (.05) was divided by the number of tests conducted (8), with significance at the .00625 level.

Table 4.2 moves to the other key aspect of L1 use, presenting the results of Pearson's correlation analyses of the relationship between L1 use for emotional support and independent variables. It shows that there was a significant *negative* correlation between enthusiasm and emotion, $r = -.30$, $p = .0001$ and between risk-taking and emotion, $r = -.34$, $p = .0001$. Moreover, there was a significant *positive* correlation between anxiety and emotion, $r = .31$, $p = .0001$ and between understanding and emotion, $r = .58$, $p = .0001$. In other words, students who wanted to use more Japanese for emotional support had lower enthusiasm, more anxiety, took fewer risks, and wanted to use more Japanese for clarification purposes.

Table 4.2 Pearson's correlations between L1 use (emotion) and independent variables.

Variable	Correlation (*r*)	Count (N)	Sig.(*p*) (two-tailed)
Speaking opportunity	-.14	251	.0286
Study hours	-.02	249	.7348
Enthusiasm	-.30	253	.0001*
Comprehension	-.15	253	.0168
Anxiety	.31	257	.0001*
Risk-taking	-.34	257	.0001*
Perfectionism	-.05	257	.4290
Understanding	.58	257	.0001*

*After Bonferroni correction: a criterion of significance of the alpha-level (.05) was divided by the number of tests conducted (8), with significance at the .00625 level.

There seems to be a strong overlap on the correlation results between desired use of L1 for clarification and for emotional support. That is, students wanted to use more Japanese for both clarification and emotional support purposes when they had stronger anxiety, lower enthusiasm for studying English, and less willingness for risk-taking in class.

4.1.2 Effect of teacher-type preference on L1 use (understanding/emotion)

Table 4.3 shows the mean values for each teacher-type preference group and their desire for L1 use for comprehension. The reason why teacher-type preference is included in analysis is that students' desire for L1 use is better understood by knowing which teacher-type students prefer to learn from. All groups generally wanted to use some L1 to understand what was going on in class, but the amount of desired L1 use differed slightly among the groups.

Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics for teacher-type preference groups regarding L1 use (understanding).

Teacher-type	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	Mini.	Max.
BJNT	124	50.94	5.79	0.52	34	66
BENT	77	48.82	4.88	0.56	34	63
MENT	56	47.68	6.37	0.85	34	63

Table 4.4 shows the results of one-way ANOVA to examine the effect of teacher-type preference groups on L1 use (understanding). As can be seen, there was a significant effect of teacher-type preference group on the amount of desired Japanese use for clarification, $F (2, 254) = 7.38, p = .0008$.

Table 4.4 One-way ANOVA of the effect of teacher-type preference groups on L1 use (understanding).

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	Sig.(*p*)
Between groups	474.95	2	237.47	7.38	.0008*
Within groups	8171.15	254	32.17		
Total	8646.10	256			

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.5 shows the results of Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests. It reveals that the differences between BJNT enthusiasts (*M* = 50.94, *SD* = 5.79) and MENT enthusiasts (*M* = 47.68, *SD* = 6.37) as well as BJNT enthusiasts and BENT enthusiasts (*M* = 48.82, *SD* = 4.88) were significant at *p* = .0013 and *p* = .0286 respectively. BENT enthusiasts did not differ significantly from MENT enthusiasts. In short, those with a preference for BJNT wanted to use more L1 for clarification purposes than did MENT enthusiasts and BENT enthusiasts, and the difference was significant.

Table 4.5 Post-hoc Tukey-Kramer HSD test for the mean scores of teacher-type preference groups in relation to L1 use (understanding).

(A)group	(B)group	Mean Difference (A-B)	*SE*	Sig.(*p*)
BJNT	MENT	3.26	0.91	.0013*
BJNT	BENT	2.12	0.82	.0286*
BENT	MENT	1.14	1.0	.4879

*Significant at the .05 level

Moving to L1 use for emotional support, Table 4.6 shows the mean values by which all teacher-type preference groups generally wanted to use some Japanese to make themselves feel relaxed. The amount of desired Japanese use for emotional support differed between the groups.

Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics for teacher-type preference groups regarding L1 use (emotion).

Teacher-type	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	Mini.	Max.
BJNT	124	44.42	5.96	0.53	27	60
BENT	77	42.97	6.37	0.73	26	56
MENT	56	40.20	6.40	0.86	24	52

Table 4.7 shows the results of one-way ANOVA that looked at the effect of teacher-type preference groups on L1 use (emotion). It shows that there was a significant effect of the teacher-type preference group on the amount of desired Japanese use for emotional support, $F_{(2, 254)} = 9.02$, *p* = .0002.

Table 4.7 One-way ANOVA of the effect of teacher-type preference groups in relation to L1 use (emotion).

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.(p)
Between groups	688.90	2	344.45	9.02	.0002*
Within groups	9698.98	254	38.19		
Total	10387.88	256			

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.8 shows the results of Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests. It reveals that the differences between BJNT enthusiasts ($M = 44.42$, $SD = 5.96$) and MENT enthusiasts ($M = 40.20$, $SD = 6.40$) as well as BENT enthusiasts ($M = 42.97$, $SD = 6.37$) and MENT enthusiasts were significant at $p < .0001$ and $p = .0297$ respectively. BJNT enthusiasts did not differ significantly from BENT enthusiasts. In short, different from L1 use for understanding, those with a preference for MENT wanted to use less Japanese for emotional support than did BJNT enthusiasts and BENT enthusiasts, and the difference was significant.

Table 4.8 Post-hoc Tukey-Kramer HSD test for the mean scores of teacher-type preference groups in relation to L1 use (emotion).

(E)group	(F) group	Mean Difference (E-F)	SE	Sig.(p)
BJNT	MENT	4.22	0.99	<.0001*
BENT	MENT	2.78	1.09	.0297*
BJNT	BENT	1.45	0.90	.2424

*Significant at the .05 level

Turning to gender, a two-way ANOVA was carried out by adding the independent variable (gender), along with the independent variables (teacher-type) used in a one-way ANOVA. This was done in order to look for any interactions between gender and teacher-type preference on the dependent variable (L1 use).

Table 4.9 shows that there was significant interaction between gender groups and teacher-type preference groups on the amount of desired L1 use (understanding), F (2, 253) = 5.08, $p = .0069$. This result indicates that BJNT enthusiasts, BENT enthusiasts and MENT enthusiasts were affected differently by gender. Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc*

tests revealed that specifically, among the BJNT enthusiasts, females wanted to use more L1 for clarification than did males (p = .0199) (see Figure 4.1).

Table 4.9 Two-way ANOVA of the effects of gender groups and teacher-type preference groups in relation to L1 use (understanding).

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.(p)
gender* teacher-type	Interaction	333.67	2	166.83	5.08	.0069*
	Error	8310.44	253	32.85		
	Total	8644.11	255			

*Significant at the .05 level

Figure 4.1 Box plot graph of the mean values of the relationships between gender groups and teacher-type preference groups in relation to L1 use (understanding) in a two-way ANOVA.
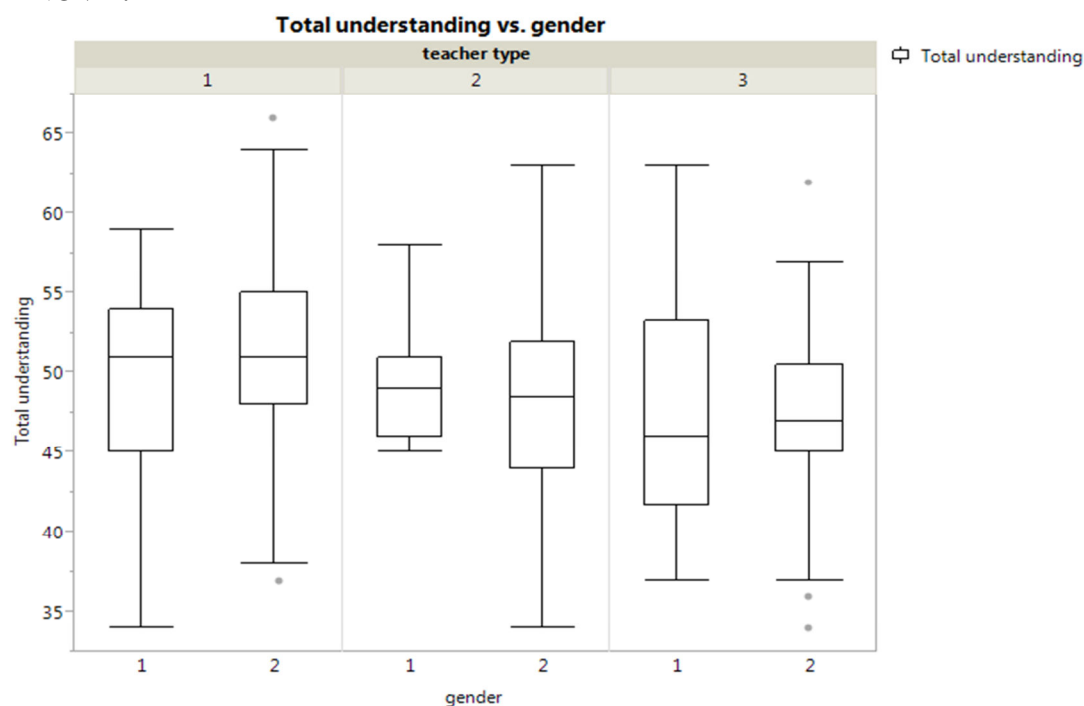
Notes: **Gender**: 1. male; 2. Female, **Teacher-type**: 1. BJNT: bilingual Japanese-native teachers; 2. BENT: bilingual English-native teachers; 3. MENT: monolingual English-native teachers

Table 4.10 shows that as well as L1 use for clarification, there was also a significant interaction between gender groups and teacher-type preference groups in relation to the amount of desired L1 use for emotional support, $F_{(2, 253)}$ = 4.30, p = .0146. This result indicates that BJNT, BENT and MENT enthusiasts were affected differently by gender.

Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests revealed that specifically, in the BJNT group, females wanted to use more L1 for emotional support than did males (*p* = .0426) (see Figure 4.2).

Table 4.10 Two-way ANOVA of the effects of gender groups and teacher-type preference groups in relation to L1 use (emotion).

		Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.(*p*)
gender* teacher-type	Interaction	341.28	2	170.64	4.30	.0146*
	Error	10046.59	253	39.71		
	Total	10387.87	255			

*Significant at the .05 level

Figure 4.2 Box plot graph of the mean values of the relationship between gender groups and teacher-type preference groups in relation to L1 use (emotion) in a two-way ANOVA.
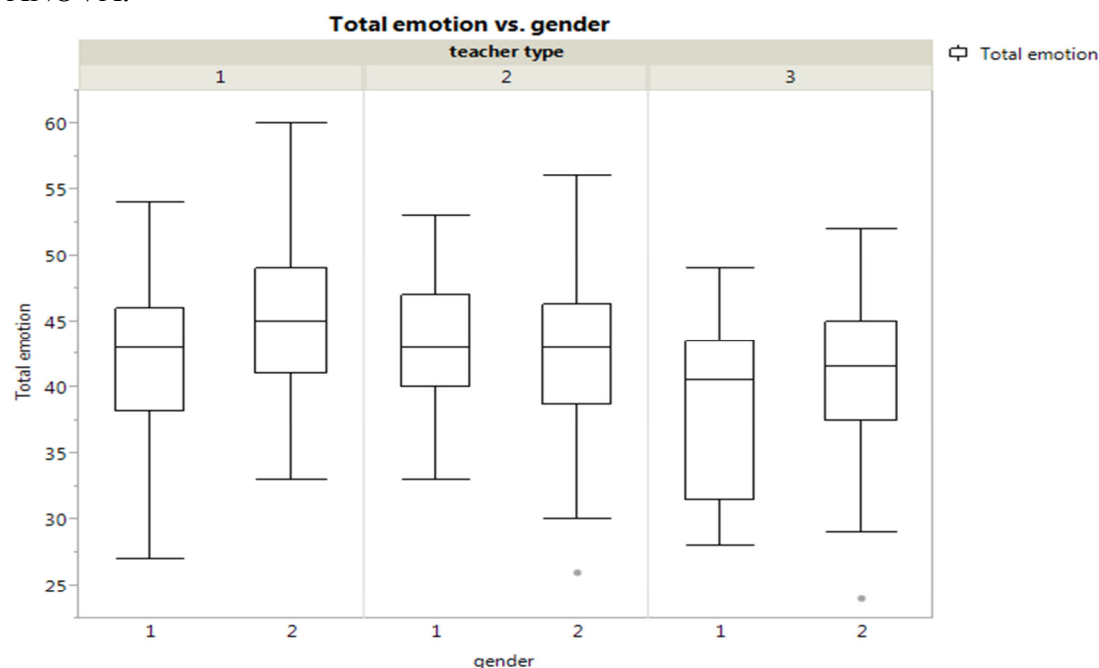
Notes: **Gender**: 1. male; 2. Female, **Teacher-type**: 1. BJNT: bilingual Japanese-native teachers; 2. BENT: bilingual English-native teachers; 3. MENT: monolingual English-native teachers

In short, those with a preference for BJNT had stronger desire than MENT enthusiasts to use Japanese for both clarification and emotional support. Moreover, among BJNT enthusiasts, females had stronger desire to use Japanese for both purposes than did males.

4.1.3 Effect of reported English proficiency level on L1 use (understanding/ emotion)

The various groups of reported English proficiency level (based on self-reported test results) generally wanted to use some Japanese to clarify what was going on in class. The amount of desired Japanese use differed among the groups, and table 4.11 shows the mean values for each proficiency level.

Table 4.11 Descriptive statistics for the levels of reported English proficiency in relation to L1 use (understanding).

Level	N	M	SD	SE	Mini.	Max.
Basic	27	51.52	4.85	0.93	42	62
Intermediate	85	49.80	4.92	0.53	36	63
Advanced	33	47.48	4.54	0.79	37	56

Table 4.12 shows the results of one-way ANOVA for the effect of reported English proficiency level on L1 use (understanding). As can be seen, the level of reported English proficiency had a significant effect on the amount of desired Japanese use for clarification, $F(2, 142) = 5.38$, $p = .0056$.

Table 4.12 One-way ANOVA for the effect of reported English proficiency level on L1 use (understanding).

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.(p)
Between groups	250.41	2	125.21	5.38	.0056*
Within groups	3302.58	142	23.26		
Total	3552.99	144			

*Significant at the .05 level

Table 4.13 shows the results of Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests. It reveals that the difference between beginners ($M = 51.52$, $SD = 4.85$) and advanced-level students ($M = 47.48$, $SD = 4.54$) was significant at $p = .0045$. Students at an intermediate level ($M = 49.80$, $SD = 4.92$) did not differ significantly from any of the other groups. In other words, beginners wanted to use more Japanese for clarification purposes than did advanced-level students, and the difference was significant.

Table 4.13 Post-hoc Tukey-Kramer HSD test for the mean levels of reported English proficiency in relation to L1 use (understanding).

(C) group	(D) group	Mean Difference (C-D)	*SE*	Sig.(*p*)
Basic	Advanced	4.03	1.25	.0045*
Intermediate	Advanced	2.32	1.00	.0535
Basic	Intermediate	1.72	1.07	.2435

*Significant at the .05 level

Turning to L1 use for emotional support, Table 4.14 shows the mean values for the various groups of reported English proficiency levels. Students generally wanted to use some Japanese to make themselves feel relaxed, but the amount of desired Japanese use for emotional support was different between each group.

Table 4.14 Descriptive statistics for the levels of reported English proficiency in relation to L1 use (emotion)

Level	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	Mini.	Max.
Basic	27	45.89	6.31	1.21	32	60
Intermediate	85	42.88	6.31	0.68	26	54
Advanced	33	42.03	6.34	1.10	24	52

Table 4.15 shows the results of one-way ANOVA of the effect of the levels of reported English proficiency on L1 use (emotion). As can be seen, there was a significant effect of the level of reported English proficiency on the amount of desired Japanese use for emotional support, F (2, 142) = 3.12, p = .0473.

Table 4.15 One-way ANOVA of the effect of the levels of reported English proficiency on L1 use (emotion).

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.(*p*)
Between groups	248.60	2	124.30	3.12	.0473*
Within groups	5660.46	142	39.86		
Total	5909.06	144			

*Significant at the .05 level

However, unlike L1 use for clarification, Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests did not reveal any significant difference between any of the different proficiency groups.

In short, beginners wanted to use more Japanese for clarification than did advanced-level students, but there was no significant difference between any of the groups with regard to desire for use Japanese for emotional support.

4.1.4 Effect of self-confidence on L1 use (understanding/emotion)

One-way ANOVAs demonstrated no significant effect of self-confidence level (self-assessed English proficiency level) on the amount of desired Japanese use for clarification, F (2, 249) = 1.76, p = ns or emotional support, F (2, 249) = .47, p = ns. In other words, the level of self-confidence did not affect the desire of students to use Japanese. However, two-way ANOVAs yielded the following results: Table 4.16 shows that there was a significant interaction between the teacher-type preference groups and the level of self-confidence on the amount of desired L1 use (for understanding), F (4, 247) = 3.42, p = .0097. This result indicates that BJNT, BENT and MENT enthusiasts were affected differently by self-confidence level. Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests revealed that, surprisingly, BJNT enthusiasts in the high self-confidence group wanted to use more L1 for clarification than did BJNT enthusiasts in the low self-confidence group (p = .0432), and had the highest desire for L1 use among all the groups (see Figure 4.3).

Table 4.16 Two-way ANOVA of the effects of teacher-type preference groups and level of self-confidence on L1 use (understanding)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.(p)
teacher-type* self-confidence	Interaction	445.85	4	111.46	3.42	.0097*
	Error	8057.82	247	32.62		
	Total	8503.66	251			

*Significant at the .05 level

Figure 4.3 Box plot graph of the mean values of the relationship between teacher-type preference groups and level of self-confidence in relation to L1 use (understanding) in a two-way ANOVA.
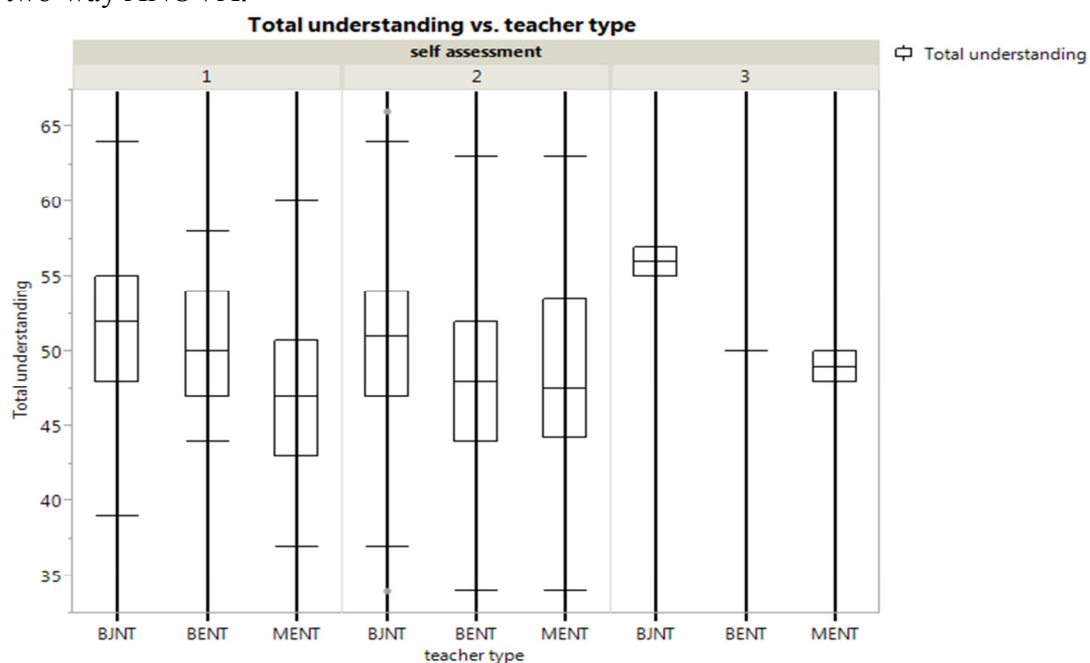
Note: ***Self-assessment***: 1. low self-confidence group; 2. intermediate self-confidence group; 3. high self-confidence group

Table 4.17 shows that there was a significant interaction between the teacher-type preference groups and level of self-confidence on the amount of desired L1 use (for emotional support), $F(4, 247) = 3.67$, $p = .0063$. This result indicates that BJNT, BENT and MENT enthusiasts were affected differently by self-confidence level. Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests revealed that, similar to the results for clarification support, BJNT enthusiasts in the high self-confidence group wanted to use more L1 for emotional support than did BJNT enthusiasts in the low self-confidence group ($p = .0064$), and had the highest desire for L1 use among all the groups (see Figure 4.4).

Table 4.17 Two-way ANOVA of the effects of teacher-type preference groups and level of self-confidence on L1 use (emotion)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.(p)
teacher-type* self-confidence	Interaction	574.97	4	143.74	3.67	.0063*
	Error	9672.89	247	39.16		
	Total	10247.86	251			

*Significant at the .05 level

Figure 4.4 Box plot graph of the mean values of the relationship between teacher-type preference groups and level of self-confidence in relation to L1 use (emotion) in a two-way ANOVA.
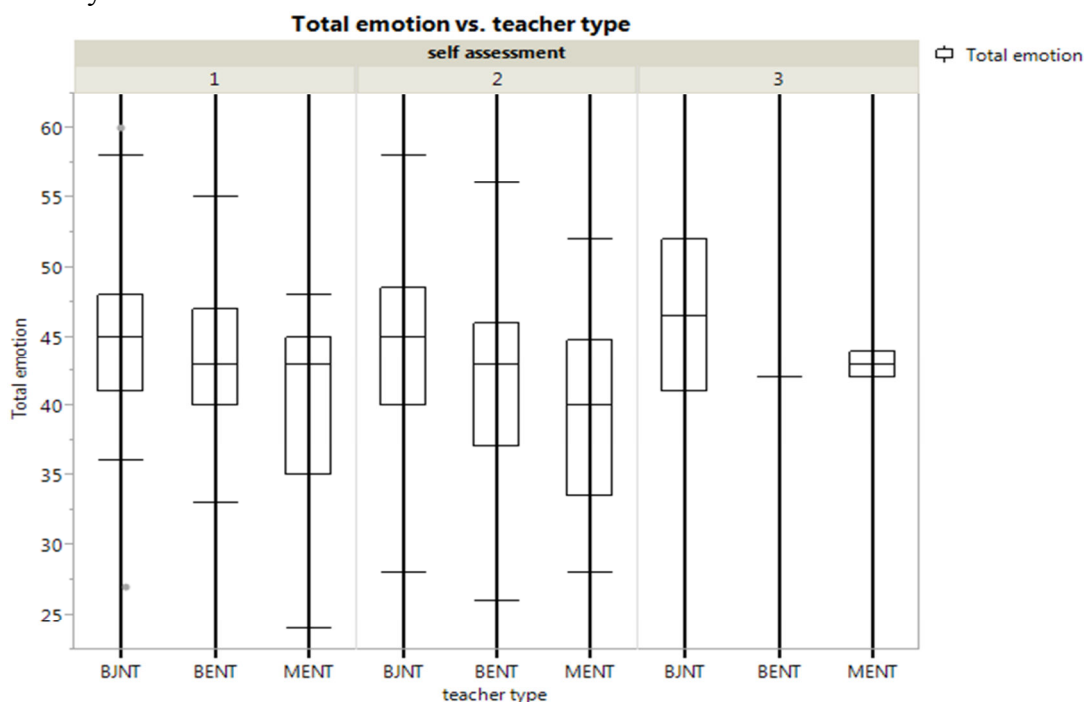
Note: **Self-assessment**: 1. low self-confidence group; 2. intermediate self-confidence group; 3. high self-confidence group

In short, BJNT enthusiasts in the high self-confidence group wanted to use more Japanese than BJNT enthusiasts in the low self-confidence group, and had the highest desire for L1 use among all the groups for both clarification and emotional support.

Overall, this quantitative analysis revealed four notable findings. Firstly, Japanese EFL college students wanted to use Japanese for both clarification and emotional support when they felt more anxiety, lower enthusiasm, and less willingness to take risks. Secondly, BJNT enthusiasts had a higher desire to use Japanese for both purposes than did MENT enthusiasts. Among these BJNT enthusiasts, females wanted to use more Japanese for both purposes than did males. Thirdly, beginners wanted to use more Japanese for clarification (not for emotional support) than did advanced-level students. Finally, the one-way ANOVA showed that self-confidence level did not affect the desire of Japanese EFL college students to use Japanese. This result was supported by the result of the two-way ANOVA with addition of teacher-type preference, which showed that BJNT enthusiasts in the high self-confidence group had higher desire to use Japanese than did BJNT enthusiasts in the low self-confidence group and showed the highest desire for Japanese use among all the groups for both purposes. I will return to

these issues later in the discussion of both quantitative and qualitative results in section 4.3.

4.2 Results of qualitative analysis

The results of the quantitative survey revealed the major findings outlined above, particularly the fact that anxious students and beginners had higher desire to use Japanese. This implies that use of Japanese in language class may be effective for reducing anxiety and for helping beginners who have linguistic deficiency. In order to investigate the role of Japanese use in the open-ended questionnaire and focus group interviews, I asked students to express arguments both for and against the use of L1: "Describe the good points and bad points of Japanese use when learning English". Table 4.18 shows a summary of the findings.

Table 4.18 Student responses (cons and pros) regarding use of Japanese in task-based English classes

	Open-ended questionnaire responses	Focus group interview responses
Against L1 use Less English speaking practice	• causes mental confusion • impairs concentration • greater reliance on translation (students wait for explanation from teachers in Japanese) • slower improvement of English listening and speaking ability	
Negative feelings	• labelled as lazy or incompetent • guilt • lower enthusiasm • doubts about teachers' English competence	• feeling lazy (1 reference coded & 0.95% coverage) • feeling annoyed (1 reference coded & 0.71% coverage) • feeling disappointed (1 reference coded & 0.91% coverage)
For L1 use Increase of comprehension	• improved knowledge about new words, grammar & difficult parts • marking important points • increasing the quality of discussion • helping to organize thoughts • expressing subtle feelings	• better understanding of words, grammar and content (7 references coded & 5.51% coverage) • better understanding of difficult topics (3 references coded & 1.87% coverage) • upgrading of presentation content (2 references coded & 1.12% coverage

Rapport building	● helping each other ● raising awareness among classmates that they are not alone in not knowing the answer to a teacher's question ● enabling everyone to join activities ● increasing enthusiasm ● increasing self-confidence ● relaxing with humor ● reduction of stress & anxiety	● reduction of anxiety (5 references coded & 2.42% coverage)
Improvement of class management	● streamlining of classroom management (instruction & discipline) ● time saving ● less need to divide classes into different levels	● some L1 help about task instruction from teachers (3 references coded & 4.23% coverage) ● L1 needed for low-level learners (3 references coded & 2.09% coverage)

Note: The results of the focus group interviews were analyzed by QSR NVivo10 qualitative software. In this study, 'guilt' was considered a feeling of self-accusation about being a cause of something negative and the need to take responsibility for the consequences of this. This differed from 'shame' about doing something due to apprehension about being labelled by others.

Some opinions showed in the findings of Table 4.18 should be explained more precisely by adding some students' quotes here. First of all, an excerpt against L1 use shall be shown. Students sometimes relied on L1 use in EFL classes because of a lack of self-discipline, but they felt guilty and reflected on their own conduct and tried not to use Japanese on subsequent occasions. 8F analyzed her guilty feelings on the basis of her experience:

> *In lessons where a teacher distinguishes between difficult parts where students are allowed to use Japanese and easy parts where they should use only English, students try to make an effort to speak English without feeling guilty or anxious. According to my experience, I feel guilty in lessons where I evade my teachers' vigilance and use Japanese to understand what I couldn't figure out. Teachers regard Japanese use by students as a sign of lack of interest. Teachers' high expectations made students regret and feel guilty for using Japanese even in the situations where they speak Japanese secretly for tasks that are beyond their ability. This makes students believe they might have been able to express difficult concepts*

in English. The feeling that students did not make efforts to do what they actually could do exacerbated my own negative feelings. I notice that my English improves in lessons where teachers set us tasks within our ability and which require only a little effort. In such classes, I have a better ability to speak out and explain things in English.

Her confessions imply that teachers should ensure that students have appropriate expectations and tasks.

Secondly, excerpts of pro L1 use shall be shown here. The following statements from students implied that thinking and speaking are closely related to each other. 11F stated her introspective thoughts:

I cannot reply in English without understanding first in Japanese what I heard in English. My usual process of speaking English is to summarize what I want to say in Japanese and then explain in English. Some people tell me to think about what I want to say in English first and then verbalize my thoughts in English without Japanese intervention. However, as I find this difficult, it causes me additional stress and makes me lose enthusiasm for the language. I find it useful to use Japanese to understand all the learning materials, and this makes me less anxious. When I think about things in English first, I feel I have lost my identity, and that is really scary to me. As I am Japanese, I understand English based on the knowledge I have in Japanese.

The way to understand and speak in English without Japanese help made 11F stressful and anxious. As another important aspect of L1 use, 16F expressed her unease when speaking about serious topics in English:

I always try to speak English in lessons because I understand that I need to practice, and the classroom is the only place where I can do so. However, when I want to express my true feelings or convey what I really want to say, I prefer using Japanese. I may be able to say things in English if I try harder, but I feel uncomfortable, and doubt whether classmates and teachers can understand me correctly.

Use of L1 for cognitive help and expressing subtle feelings was sometimes necessary for some students to be comfortable and less anxious.

In summary, opinions against L1 use covered the following elements: Firstly, students have less practice using English if they overuse L1. Japanese slows down progress on English proficiency because students lose opportunities to practice English. Conversely, exposure to English as much as possible is important in order to learn both pronunciation and intonation and increase both listening and speaking ability. Frequent code-switching reduces students' concentration and creates confusion in comprehension, as it leads to dependence on translation. When teachers say something in English and then explain the same information in Japanese continuously, students give up making any effort to understand the teachers' English from the beginning. If students are determined to improve conversational skills in English, they should use easy English instead of relying on Japanese. Secondly, students are filled with negative feelings such as lower enthusiasm, annoyance, disappointment, and fear of being labelled as lazy and incompetent if they use Japanese. Japanese bothers other students and causes feelings of guilt. Some students even begin to doubt their teachers' English proficiency.

On the other hand, opinions in favor of L1 use included the following. Firstly, use of Japanese improved clarification. Supplementary use of Japanese was considered preferable for understanding new words, terminology, grammar, complex parts in reading, difficult topics, and important points. Japanese helped upgrade the contents of discussion and presentation. Japanese was also considered necessary for some students before speaking English in order to organize their thoughts and express their honest feelings. Secondly, use of Japanese promoted rapport building among classmates, being effective for reducing anxiety, improving relaxation and alleviating stress. This enabled everyone to understand lessons, join activities, and help each other for accomplishing tasks, thus increasing their enthusiasm and self-confidence. Thirdly, use of Japanese allowed classroom management to progress smoothly, thus saving time. Beginners needed some Japanese to compensate for their low level of English ability for understanding instructions and tasks. Therefore, when students are allowed to use Japanese, class division may not be necessary because they can grasp what they are doing regardless of English proficiency level.

Thus, these opinions against and for L1 use in English lessons seem to exist in tension. Therefore, I aim to discuss the results from the quantitative and qualitative survey by thinking more carefully about the view of the relationship between L1 use and other factors including FLCA in the next section 4.3.

4.3 Discussion of both quantitative and qualitative results

Findings of both the quantitative and qualitative surveys have been discussed above. The quantitative survey revealed some significant relationships between L1 use and several variables, and the interviews revealed many controversial opinions about L1 use in task-based English classes. Based on these findings, the arguments against and for L1 use will be discussed here. According to Hall & Cook (2012), L1 is used mostly for improving comprehension, creating a positive learning environment, and facilitating smoother classroom management. Therefore, categorizations such as L1 use for comprehension, for rapport building, and for classroom management are used for the streamlining of arguments. L1 use for comprehension shall be discussed in section 4.3.1, L1 use for rapport building in section 4.3.2, and L1 use for classroom management in section 4.3.3. After that, arguments on the relationship between L1 use and English proficiency level will be discussed in section 4.3.4 (L1 use according to English proficiency level). Arguing both opinions against and for L1 use in each section, the reasons why judicious use of L1 is effective for Japanese EFL college students will be explained next, based on findings in both quantitative and qualitative surveys.

4.3.1 L1 use for comprehension
4.3.1.1 Negative effects of L1 use on comprehension

According to McDonough (2002), teachers are not comfortable using L1, but students are. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) concluded that maximum use of TL by both teachers and students is ideal because L1 overuse may decrease students' contact with TL, and students should only be allowed to use L1 for comprehension and asking to clarify new items. In the opinion of students who were against Japanese overuse in this research, English proficiency would not be improved if the students relied on Japanese whenever they were in trouble. Students need to be exposed to English as much as possible in order to promote their listening and speaking ability, learn proper pronunciation and intonation, and increase vocabulary. For example, if students constantly rely on Japanese, they struggle to develop key speaking skills such as exchanging difficult words for more simple ones or using vocabulary in different expressions. This confirms the suggestions of Willis (1981) that students will learn how to infer points from intonation and stress in listening practice, how to communicate through asking and answering questions, and how to acquire patterns and lexis from repetitive practice under conditions involving exclusive

use of TL. Willis (ibid.) also considered that students can practice a number of language skills unconsciously, learning how to listen, pick out keywords, and begin to think in English for themselves, thereby reducing the amount of interference from L1. Moreover, some students in this study insisted that when students did not understand, it was considered that teachers should use easier English instead of Japanese. This is supported by Chaudron (1988), who suggested that the teacher should actively use speech modifications such as slower speech, basic vocabulary, and repetition in order to maximize TL use.

Furthermore, students became less enthusiastic and focused on what teachers said in English whenever they were given a Japanese explanation by the teacher afterwards. Some students could not quickly switch the language code from English to Japanese and vice versa, which led to confusion and misunderstanding even when they were given an explanation in Japanese because the sentence structure of the two languages is completely opposite in terms of the place of the verb. For example, in English, the word order is subject first, followed by the verb, and finally the object, whereas in Japanese the subject comes first, then the object, and finally the verb. This is supported by Wilkerson (2008), who stated that frequent code-switching by the instructor sometimes confuses students. Moreover, some students had developed the problematic habit of always translating everything, which made them poor English speakers by limiting their acquisition of new English expressions. Moreover, students thought that code-switching was not a good idea because they would not be able to use that strategy abroad. Likewise, Willis (1981) stated that too much L1 use can undermine the purpose of improving communicative competence. Wilkerson and Willis maintained that teachers should teach English through English because the main objective of learning TL is to learn to communicate in the TL.

4.3.1.2 Positive effects of L1 use on comprehension

Although there are some negative opinions about L1 overuse, certain advantages of L1 use have also been suggested. First, Pearson's correlation analyses showed that students who had higher anxiety and lower enthusiasm, and were less inclined to take risks, expressed a greater preference to use Japanese for both clarification and emotional support. These findings are in line with the interview data showing that some students wanted to use more Japanese to reduce anxiety, increase enthusiasm, and allow them to

138

join activities (take risks) as they began to have a better understanding of lesson content. It is important to offer lessons that are understandable for students, raise enthusiasm and create a safe atmosphere that can reduce anxiety and generate more positivity about taking risks, all of which help to improve English speaking opportunities and competence.

Secondly, in this interview study, students remembered difficult words by repeating them in both Japanese and English, a practical method of memorizing vocabulary more easily. Students also paid attention to issues that were explained in Japanese by teachers who rarely used Japanese, because students felt that these were important points to remember. In group work, use of Japanese enabled students to perform high-grade activities because they were able to discuss their projects in detail and reduce the possibility of misunderstandings occurring. In pair work, some use of Japanese could increase the quality of conversation and enhance mutual understanding, especially when the pairs seemed to be talking at cross-purposes. When students prepared for a presentation by making outlines and discussing ideas in Japanese, their work progressed well.

Students preferred to ask questions in Japanese and then expected teachers to explain in Japanese or simple English about difficult words or phrases, idioms, subtle nuances or expressions, grammar, tasks or homework, important communications like details of tests or evaluations, and difficult parts in reading comprehension exercises because incomprehensible input did not help with their English acquisition. These points confirm the findings of Lee and Macaro (2013), who reported that L1 might have some benefits for acquisition of new vocabulary during teacher-centered instruction. They are also similar to the findings of Ustunel and Seedhouse (2005) that teachers used L1 to deal with procedural problems, clarify meanings, elicit translation, check comprehension, provide meta-language information and explain L1 idioms. In the same way, Rivers (2011) pointed out that when learners were lacking the vocabulary or phrases to explain their ideas, and could not understand what the teachers said, they wanted to use L1 in order to avoid becoming silent or feeling uncomfortable. In that study, the learners acknowledged that they felt less anxious if they were given freedom to use L1.

In short, students cannot improve their English output quickly if they continue to rely excessively on Japanese. Therefore, students have to make every effort to reduce their Japanese usage and speak English more frequently. However, Japanese use should be

allowed for students when necessary for obtaining a comprehensible input and accomplishing tasks with the help of Japanese.

4.3.2 L1 use for rapport building

The quantitative survey revealed that students with preference for BJNT were highly anxious and had a higher desire to use Japanese because both teachers and students were able to understand each other better using the same mother tongue. Moreover, among the BJNT group, females had a higher degree of both anxiety and desire to use Japanese than did males. Therefore, it is reasonable that, among all the groups, female BJNT enthusiasts had the highest anxiety and desire to use Japanese for both purposes. In other words, anxious students have a greater desire to use Japanese, and this can help reduce their anxiety.

4.3.2.1 Disadvantages of L1 use for rapport building
4.3.2.1.1 Peer pressure

Frequent code-switching may lead students to give up making an effort to understand or speak English. This is supported by MacDonald (1993), who considered that TL use was advantageous in providing students with confidence, enjoyment, satisfaction, and enthusiasm through their successful experience of communication, even with a limited amount of language. Corroborating MacDonald, this study found that in pair work, if a partner used a lot of Japanese, the pair began to feel uneasy about speaking English and eventually reverted back to Japanese. Harbord (1992) did not support chatting and joking in L1 to reduce students' anxiety because there are alternative strategies in TL to facilitate teacher-student relationships. The qualitative data revealed some of the complex aspects of classroom dynamics. Some students wanted to use Japanese because they regarded themselves as poor English speakers and felt ashamed of communicating in English due to their lack of confidence to do so. At the same time, they experienced uncomfortable feelings using Japanese in class because they felt it annoyed other students. When students used Japanese, other classmates felt offended and lost their enthusiasm to make an effort because this easy strategy brought home to them the futility of their efforts in speaking only English. The other students made an effort to speak English in order to keep face, even though they retained some desire to use Japanese. They felt ashamed of using Japanese because their classmates labelled them as incompetent or unrestrained,

and then such classmates' behaviors forced them to speak English. When they were tired of speaking English and relied on Japanese, they worried about being considered bad English speakers or lazy learners.

4.3.2.1.2 Self-pressure (feelings of guilt)

Students also reported a feeling of guilt when they lost the chance to speak English, which is a rare opportunity out of class in everyday life in Japan. Harbord (1992) stated that L1 use may take away valuable opportunities for communication. Stern (1996) also suggested that the curriculum of communicative activities should be restricted to TL use in EFL classrooms in order to compensate for almost no exposure to TL outside the classroom. Participants in this study regretted the lost opportunity to speak English after using Japanese. As the teacher was unable to check whether every pair of students was properly engaged in pair work, students felt it hard to discipline themselves when Japanese was allowed in task-based English classes. In fact, students felt guilty about using Japanese as they worried that it might hold back their English language development because they would lose their limited opportunity to speak English in Japan. It is difficult not to use Japanese in an EFL environment if the willpower to avoid its use is lacking.

Students who used L1 were also made to feel guilty by their teachers, who regarded them as lazy and felt they did not make enough effort to speak English. Therefore, teachers should properly separate difficult topics, for which students can use Japanese, from easier topics, for which they are encouraged to use only English, thus avoiding feelings of guilt about using Japanese. Moreover, teachers should have appropriate expectations of students and select suitable materials because of a feeling that if students did not make an effort to do what they could do, this would actually promote negative feelings within themselves. Interestingly, some students questioned the teacher's ability or enthusiasm for instruction when he/she used many Japanese words in class. Students expected higher standards of their teachers. Teachers should ideally be bilingual, with years of classroom experience, skillful in offering proper materials suited to student English proficiency levels, and able to code-switch appropriately depending on the situation.

4.3.2.2 Advantage of L1 use for rapport building

The students investigated in this research did not consider code-switching among classmates a bad idea or inappropriate when it was done to help understanding of the lesson content. Moreover, by using Japanese, everyone was able to join classroom activities or discussions energetically, thus encouraging students to offer many points of view. This confirms the findings of Brooks-Lewis (2009) that learners preferred L1 use because they were able to understand more of what teachers told them and participate in class activities, thus promoting confidence, a feeling of achievement and raising self-awareness. During pair work in this study, the students helped each other looking for information and making sentences in English with Japanese help. Indeed, use of Japanese made the students more enthusiastic about speaking out and questioning, because they felt comfortable in an environment where classmates better understood what they were saying to each other. Therefore, the English-only rule puts more pressure on students, making them hesitate about speaking out, and thus leading to loss of enthusiasm for studying English. This is supported by Anton and DiCamilla (1999), who concluded that L1 can play important roles such as creating Vygotsky's ZPD by scaffolding words/ideas among students, constructing a shared perspective such as defining a task, and externalizing inner speech as a cognitive tool for solving problems.

In fact, use of Japanese was of cognitive help to students in this study. Students could only summarize their thoughts in Japanese and then translate them into English. The method advocated by teachers in EFL classes – 'think in English and speak in English' – was so stressful to some of the students that they felt like giving up their English studies. Japanese was needed to more easily understand teacher's instructions or the contents of difficult English reading materials. Other students felt that thinking in English was an assault on their identity. They were Japanese and felt quite strongly they should use Japanese to understand and learn English rather than have English forced on them. They preferred to use Japanese despite accepting that it might take longer to acquire English when they were so often dependent on L1.

Moreover, use of Japanese was able to alleviate students' feelings of tension. Some students felt more relaxed to know that other classmates also did not understand some words when courageous students asked the teacher about unknown words and the teacher answered them in Japanese. Use of Japanese helped students to express their feelings

better, which put them more at ease. One of the students felt it was much easier to use Japanese when she wanted to express her emotional feelings. For example, when she was upset because she was making slower progress in English than expected, she preferred to address this problem in Japanese rather than in English with teachers or close friends. She doubted whether her finer nuances could be correctly conveyed in English to listeners when talking about her inner feelings.

Furthermore, when students needed to form a pair or a group with unfamiliar people, use of Japanese helped facilitate making friends with the partner or group members, reducing awkward silent moments and generating more lively conversation, which reduced stress and anxiety. They felt relieved because by staying silent they felt they might upset their classmates, and the use of Japanese helped them get across what they wanted to say more easily without becoming anxious. This was especially the case when English proficiency levels differed considerably among pair partners or group members. This is supported by Brooks-Lewis (2009), who concluded that taking socio-cultural factors into account, L1 use was effective for reducing anxiety and creating a positive learning environment. Similarly, Brooks, Donato, and McGlone (1997) reported that L1 played a supportive role during the task, and that the amount of L1 use was reduced with time through students' interaction. Therefore, they concluded that teachers should not view students' L1 use as off-task, uncooperative and a form of sabotage, but as an important supportive tool. This may suggest a change away from the current tendency for exclusive TL use in student interaction towards some inclusion of L1 use.

In relation to rapport building, students are subjected to strong peer pressure, as those who overuse Japanese are considered annoying and incompetent, and feelings of guilt may develop in some environments. However, students were able to reduce anxiety and improve enthusiasm and self-confidence with the help of L1 use because they understood the content of lessons better and were helped by classmates in a cooperative atmosphere. In short, use of Japanese seemed to give students some help in terms of cognition and psychological reassurance. Therefore, the findings of this study suggest that some L1 use should be permitted, although students should do their best to speak in English.

4.3.3 L1 use for classroom management

The aim of this section is to illustrate: 1) some possible disadvantages of L1 use for classroom management, and 2) the advantages of L1 use to assist classroom management for practical purposes.

On the one hand, in Japanese-dominant classrooms, some students spoke a lot of Japanese without hesitation, resulting in distracting chatter and making the classes noisy and disorganized, with failure to engage in pair or group work. Use of Japanese could potentially trigger a chain reaction with more and more students talking in Japanese, thus decreasing overall enthusiasm for use of English.

On the other hand, students wanted teachers to use Japanese for classroom management and to save time. L1 use helped reduce misunderstanding, especially about important information such as tests or tasks, because all students were able to understand what teachers said. Moreover, use of Japanese or a bilingual dictionary saved both time and effort and kept conversations and class activities running smoothly without interruption. This is supported by Grim (2010), who concluded that teachers used L1 mostly for practical functions such as facilitating comprehension, giving grammar explanations, and saving time in task instruction. Moreover, the English-only rule may deprive students of opportunities for speaking English because even a little Japanese use can help keep conversations flowing and avoid long silences, thus preventing communication breakdown. Considering this, it is better to utilize students' Japanese to make up for any deficiencies in English knowledge. L1 use allows even beginners to understand what is told, and thus class divisions may not always be necessary.

In short, recently, L1 has started to be accepted in L2 speaking classrooms for comprehension support (Edstom, 2006) and as an affective filter (Fotos, 2001). Based on a wide range of empirical evidence, Hall & Cook (2012) have concluded that own-language use (L1 use) has become acceptable in L2 classrooms for explanation, rapport-building and classroom management. Alegria & Garcia Mayo (2009) have suggested that students could perform better in L2 by using L1, as it leads to an increase in their enthusiasm. Considering the opinions by these researchers, Japanese universities are a little behind the global trend about allowing some L1 use. This seems to be because they are worried that if the ban of L1 use is lifted in the EFL context, students

will simply use L1 whenever they want to. Although the English-only rule may help to reduce idle gossip, teachers should be flexible and allow code-switching as a last resort. In agreement with these researchers, Japanese should be allowed in EFL task-based classes instead of imposing a complete ban on Japanese, although students should not use Japanese beyond the necessary minimum.

4.3.4 L1 use according to English proficiency level
4.3.4.1 L1 use by beginners

There was a significant effect of the level of reported English proficiency on the amount of desired Japanese use for both understanding (where the effect was strong) and emotion (where the effect was rather weaker). Tukey-Kramer HSD *post hoc* tests revealed that while there was a difference between beginners and advanced-level students in L1 use for understanding, there was no statistically significant difference between any of the groups in L1 use for emotion. In other words, beginners wanted to use more Japanese than advanced-level students for clarification purposes, but there was no difference between the groups in terms of emotional support. This is supported by some researchers (Ahmad, 2009; Deller and Rinvolucri, 2002; Kim, 2011) who similarly found that L1 can be a vital resource for improving clarification rather than emotional support, especially for low-level learners. One possible explanation for this is that use of Japanese for beginners cannot be avoided because of their lack of English speaking competence. These results are also supported by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), who mentioned that L2 limitations make less proficient learners who lack of linguistic knowledge more dependent on their L1, which they use as a communication strategy.

Furthermore, Ahmad (2009) found that when learners understand teachers' input, they can successfully complete tasks or activities, resulting in learning success. Instead of the difficulties they might face by avoiding Japanese, use of Japanese gave students greater enjoyment in English classes in this study. If Japanese is not used in beginners' classes, students can sometimes lose enthusiasm and self-confidence because they cannot understand what they should do in class. As such students distract other classmates by not getting involved in activities, it is important for classmates to give them a helping hand and support by using Japanese or easy English. In line with this argument, as discovered by Kharma & Hajjaj (1989) and Swain & Lapkin (2000), teachers can reduce the frequency of Japanese use for higher-proficiency students. Advanced-level students do

not need to use as much Japanese because they can express what they want to say in English.

4.3.4.2 L1 use by advanced-level students

Storch and Aldosari (2010) also found a correlation between L2 proficiency and L1 use, but task type had more impact on students' L1 use than their proficiency level. Sampson (2012) also stated that L1 use is not necessarily linked to students' ability level. This implies there might be other factors that could affect L1 use. In fact, the present finding in one-way ANOVA was that the level of self-assessed English proficiency (self-confidence) (see 2.3.2 Background of the participating students) had no significant effect on the amount of desired Japanese use for both clarification and emotional support. That is, the data were unable to confirm that students with lower self-confidence wanted to use more Japanese whereas those with higher self-confidence wanted to use less Japanese. Moreover, according to one-way ANOVA, BJNT enthusiasts wanted to use Japanese most because they were able to understand each other better in their shared L1. Furthermore, two-way ANOVAs revealed, surprisingly, that compared to students of any teacher-type preference in all self-confidence groups, BJNT enthusiasts in the high self-confidence group wanted to use Japanese most for both purposes, thus again confirming the lack of any significant relationship between self-confidence and L1 use.

One reason for this may be that students who had higher self-confidence, but preferred to learn from BJNT, might be put in an advanced-level class, producing more anxiety and a desire to use Japanese because of the difficult content materials. This suggestion is supported by Kitano (2001), who found that students who strongly feared negative evaluation tended to feel more anxious in advanced-level classes with a greater difficulty of instruction. Similarly, Song (2009) and Carson & Kashihara (2012) stated that L1 was necessary even for advanced-level learners because of their increased anxiety in working with more difficult materials. Therefore, even advanced-level students sometimes needed explanations in Japanese in order to make difficult concepts comprehensible although beginners need more L1 help. Additionally, considering the responses given in the interview, it might be also true that all students gained self-confidence and enthusiasm through involvement in lessons, grasping what was going on in class, and answering questions or expressing opinions with the help of Japanese. Thus it can be concluded that students at all proficiency levels wanted to use Japanese as an emergency

open channel although their need for L1 use would vary in frequency according to the level of difficulty of the teaching materials.

4.3.4.3 Strategies for reducing L1

It is vital for students to choose language codes that enable students at all English proficiency levels to express what they want to say, without remaining silent. This corroborates the suggestion of Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2005) that students use their L1 when having difficulty with TL, and that they should be allowed to choose their language to create a more natural and comfortable TL learning atmosphere. Moreover, in the study by Ghorbani (2011), although the students did not use L1 much, they employed it to create humor and bonds among classmates. I consider that when classes are comfortable and safe without anxiety, students will voluntarily offer to speak English, thus naturally improving their proficiency, and reducing the need for Japanese help, i.e. 'what one likes, one will do well'.

Although both beginners and advanced-level students wanted to use some Japanese for clarification, the need for Japanese differed somewhat. Advanced-level students wanted to use Japanese only when encountering difficult topics and tasks. In agreement with this, MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clement, & Noels (1998) have stated that the topic of communication may significantly affect how easily students use TL and their WTC in TL. Therefore, if universities in Japan intend to maintain an English-only policy, it is important to divide students according to their English proficiency level because some students easily become bored in class or use more Japanese when topics or tasks do not match their proficiency level. If students are placed at an appropriate level, teachers can select appropriate teaching materials for them, and both teachers and students will not need to use much Japanese, especially if students are given simple and easy explanations in English. In addition to taking such material difficulty into consideration, it is a good idea when making pairings for teachers to consider which students prefer a partner who wants to use some L1 to make things more smooth, and which students prefer a partner who does not want to use L1 and is happy to try their very best to use only TL.

Furthermore, students feel nervous if teachers demand a single correct answer. If class activities are creative, for instance involving production of a poster to introduce Japanese culture to foreigners, students don't feel as anxious because there is not so much need to

use Japanese, and any single answer may not necessarily be the right one. This has been confirmed by Ohata (2005), who found that humor, background music and fun activities created a more comfortable classroom environment. Likewise, in the present study, I found that the use of humor and Japanese by teachers helped students to come out of their shells and reduce nervousness.

In addition to reducing the difficulty level of teaching materials for beginners, teachers need to use visual materials such as pictures, body language, and slow easy English. In any event, beginners need to make every effort to immerse themselves in English because they require this incentive to make a successful leap from low-level English proficiency. On the other hand, although use of Japanese becomes less necessary for advanced-level students, teachers should prepare written materials in English to aid their comprehension when difficult materials are being used. They also need to practice speaking English without Japanese to avoid any potential loss of enthusiasm.

In short, beginners in particular wanted to use Japanese in order to increase comprehension of English, although they did not have to use much Japanese for emotional support. As beginners who possessed only a limited English vocabulary for expressing what they wanted to say needed more Japanese help, it is reasonable that a complete ban on English could impede their oral progress. Surprisingly, students had a wide range of needs. Advanced-level students also wanted to use Japanese to help improve comprehension as they dealt with difficult topics. Moreover, regardless of English proficiency level, emotional support using L1 helped to reduce student anxiety in all proficiency levels.

4.4 Summary

The results of the quantitative data indicated that students with higher anxiety, less enthusiasm, lower willingness to take risks, and who preferred BJNT wanted to use more Japanese. The fact that BJNT enthusiasts, especially females, had the highest desire to use Japanese implies that use of Japanese is effective for reducing anxiety, as was outlined in Chapter 3. For purposes of clarification, beginners expressed a desire to use more Japanese than their advanced-level counterparts, perhaps making up for their lack of English speaking competence. This is supported by the results of Ahmad (2009) and Kim (2011), who found that beginners of English used L1 more in classes.

Surprisingly, however, self-confidence was not linked to the amount of desired L1 use, as it was shown that BJNT enthusiasts in the high self-confidence group had higher desire to use L1 than did BJNT enthusiasts in the low self-confidence group and showed the highest desire for Japanese use among all the groups. This suggests that students who are dealing with difficult materials and tasks may have an increased need for Japanese use.

In terms of the relationship between L1 use and TL proficiency levels, Japanese was sometimes needed by all students for reducing anxiety, improving comprehension, clarifying instructions, and promoting cognitive thinking processes. L1 is needed by beginners so that they can keep up with lessons, and by advanced-level students for understanding difficult materials. Therefore, all students have to review and acquire what they do not understand with the help of Japanese in order to use less Japanese in the next class. In other words, they need to analyze what they have already understood and what they do not yet understand, and develop their own strategies.

The interview survey revealed that there were many affirmative opinions about L1 use, but that some students harbored negative feelings about it. For instance, use of Japanese reduced concentration power and enthusiasm, caused some confusion, and impeded progress in English acquisition because students tended to follow the easier way and did not make efforts to use English when allowed to use Japanese. Moreover, students who often used Japanese were labelled as lazy and incompetent and annoyed other classmates. Additionally, students felt strong peer pressure that dissuaded them from speaking L1 and a sense of guilt about using L1 because Japanese use was regarded as making no effort to speak English, despite best intentions. In English classes, all of which were female-dominated, female students were likely to become self-conscious and feel strong pressure to speak. This finding appeared to be supported by quantitative results showing that, in the BJNT enthusiast group, females were more anxious and wanted to use more Japanese than males.

As implications for teachers in order to stop students overuse L1, it is important to give students appropriate expectations, materials and tasks in order to decrease anxiety and not to impede their enthusiasm for studying English. English proficiency improves in lessons where teachers set students materials and tasks that are within their ability and which require only a little effort. In such classes, students improve their ability to speak

out and explain things in English. Moreover, students tended to feel higher anxiety and used more L1 when dealing with difficult, uninteresting topics, and learning materials that required one correct answer.

Since both the pros and cons of L1 use are reasonable, the best approach is for students to make every effort to use English, while being allowed to use Japanese if necessary. Indeed, some students used Japanese as the means to develop cognitive processes and establish cooperative relationships with classmates, corroborating the findings of Swain and Lapkin (2000) that L1 use serves vital cognitive and social functions. Most importantly, as stated in the summary of this chapter, Japanese should not be prohibited because strategic use of Japanese can be advantageous for cognitive and psychological support, a social tool for collaboration, and a pedagogical aid.

Chapter 5: Results - Frequent use of English out of class among Japanese EFL college students

As discussed in Chapter 4 focusing on L1 use, students with lower enthusiasm and a higher degree of anxiety, who were less willing to take risks, and those who were BJNT enthusiasts (especially female BJNT enthusiasts) had a stronger desire for L1 use. Beginners who lacked satisfactory knowledge of TL and could not make themselves understood had a higher desire to use L1 for clarification purposes than did advanced-level students. Moreover, advanced-level students also sometimes wanted to use L1 for improving their understanding, perhaps when dealing with difficult materials. Furthermore, BJNT enthusiasts in the high self-confidence group had the highest desire for L1 use among all the groups. Conversely, students were able to reduce their dependence on L1 when they had less anxiety and stronger enthusiasm, and willingly took risks. With regard to reduction of anxiety, there has been some controversy among previous researchers related to the frequency of TL use, as discussed in Chapter 1.

Therefore, the present chapter focuses on the third research question: "Does frequent use of English out of class have a positive effect in reducing FLCA among Japanese EFL college students?" One issue that is especially applicable to Japanese EFL college students is whether increased exposure to English reduces the degree of anxiety, as reported by Levine (2003), or increases it, as reported by Young (cited in Levine, 2003). The present data suggested that increased exposure to English out of class tended to reduce FLCA and increase risk-taking and enthusiasm in English task-based classrooms, although even students who had many opportunities to speak English outside class preferred some use of L1 in class. The results of the questionnaire were supported by interview findings.

In the interview data, important reasons given for less anxiety when speaking more English outside class included: having strong enthusiasm to communicate in English away from the classroom, the provision of situations where English is the language of communication, the desire to achieve a good command of the language, and the self-confidence to put oneself forward without feeling self-conscious or having a fear of negative evaluation. Therefore, after preparing students for exposure to these former three factors, it seems to be vital to maximize TL use while allowing some L1 use, focusing on students' affective needs to create a comfortable language learning environment. If it were possible to do so, students could acquire these latter two factors

accordingly. Students definitely need to make every effort to use English in task-based English classes, but especially highly anxious ones cannot join activities and tasks if they are not allowed to use some Japanese. Therefore, the balance in code-switching between the two languages is important, though the ideal balance between English and Japanese is beyond the scope of the present research. At minimum, though, I can say that students on the one hand should discipline themselves to use Japanese only when really needed, and on the other hand should become autonomous learners (i.e. those who willingly use English out of class) who are usually less anxious in the EFL classes.

In this chapter, the results of the quantitative analysis are in Section 5.1; the results of the qualitative analysis: focus group interviews are in Section 5.2; a discussion of both quantitative and qualitative results is in Section 5.3 and Section 5.4 provides a summary.

5.1 Results of quantitative analysis
5.1.1 Relationship between speaking opportunity and independent variables

Table 5.1 presents the results of Pearson's correlation analyses of the relationship between speaking opportunity and independent variables. Positive correlations with speaking opportunity were observed for variables such as enthusiasm ($r = .21$, $p = .0011$) and risk-taking ($r = .27$, $p < .0001$), and there was also a negative correlation with speaking opportunities and anxiety ($r = -.25$, $p < .0001$). These correlations were all shown to be statistically significant. In other words, students who spoke more English out of class during the week showed higher levels of enthusiasm, less anxiety, and willingly took risks in class. However, for other independent variables such as study hours, comprehension, understanding, perfectionism, and emotion, correlations with speaking opportunity did not reach a statistically significant level.

Table 5.1 Pearson's Correlations between speaking opportunity and independent variables

Variable	Correlation (*r*)	Count (N)	Sig.(*p*) (two-tailed)
Study hours	.14	248	.0250
Enthusiasm	.21	251	.0011*
Comprehension	.13	251	.0404
Anxiety	-.25	251	< .0001*
Risk-taking	.27	251	< .0001*
Understanding	-.11	251	.0826
Perfectionism	.06	251	.3859
Emotion	-.14	251	.0286

*After Bonferroni correction: a criterion of significance of the alpha-level (.05) was divided by the number of tests conducted (8), significant at the .00625 level

5.1.2 Required versus optional classes

Table 5.2 shows that students (n = 122) who took English as an optional class had a higher level of English use (M = 1.84, SD = 4.63) than the students (n = 129) who took it as a required class (M = 0.84, SD = 1.77). In short, there was a difference in the amount of time spent speaking English out of class according to each class type group (required or optional).

Table 5.2 Descriptive statistics for speaking opportunity in class type groups

Class type	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	Mini.	Max. (hours per week)
Required	129	0.84	1.77	0.16	0	12
Optional	122	1.84	4.63	0.42	0	40

Table 5.3 presents an independent-samples *t*-test of the differences in speaking opportunity between class types. It reveals a significant difference in the amount of time spent speaking English according to each class type group (t (154) = 2.25, p = .0261). In other words, students who took an optional class spent more time speaking English outside the classroom during the week.

Table 5.3 Results of independent-samples *t*-test of speaking opportunity for class type groups

		t	*df*	Sig.*(p)* (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Class Type	Equal variances not assumed	2.25	154	.0261*	1.00	0.45

*Note. *p* < .05; Effect size (Cohen's d) = 0.56

5.2 Results of qualitative analysis: focus group interviews

A significant *negative* relationship was found between speaking opportunity and anxiety, thus supporting Levine's (2003) statement that "The more frequently students speak English, the less anxiety they experience". In fact, 36 out of 37 students agreed that more opportunities to speak English helped to reduce anxiety. Only one student, 29F, a female junior English major in the high anxiety group, gave a neutral answer:

> *If I cannot say anything in English when talking with others, I may feel more anxiety and my English will not improve at all. However, if I can get used to speaking English in an environment where I am forced to speak English, I may be able to reduce my anxiety. However, I have had no experience with studying abroad and don't make an effort to speak English out of class, so I don't know for sure whether this is true.*

Fourteen students stated that talking often with friends or a host family reduced their anxiety. Ten students said that they felt less anxious when there was no choice but to use English for communication. As they became more familiar with spoken English, they noticed a reduction in their level of anxiety. Six students expressed a desire to brush up their English, and as a result made an effort to speak it more often. Their enthusiasm to speak English led to a significant reduction in their anxiety. Five students agreed that more opportunity to speak English made them feel more self-confident and less anxious. Three students stated that they stopped worrying about mistakes and being judged by others when they started speaking English regularly. These five positive developments appear to occur naturally when students have more opportunity to speak TL more frequently. The results of these interviews are presented in the bar graph in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Reasons given for feeling less anxiety when speaking more English.

Reason	Count
Less fear of errors/judgement	3
Attainment of self-confidence	5
Desire to improve English	6
English only environment	10
Willingness to communicate	14
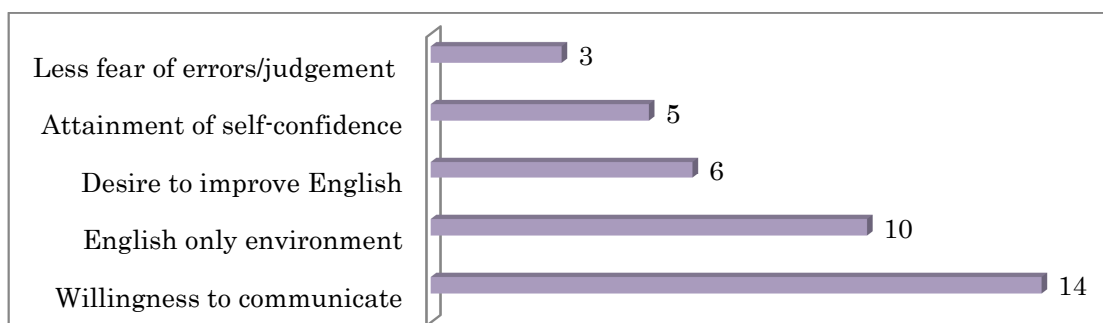
Fourteen students maintained that WTC was important; if they had a strong desire to communicate with their host family, friends and classmates, they felt less anxiety. 15F, a female freshman English major in the intermediate anxiety group, expressed her passion to communicate:

> *As I like to communicate with others, I often talked with my host family, classmates and friends in English during my short stay in Britain. The more I spoke English, the less anxiety I felt. Unfortunately, my anxiety came back after I had returned to Japan.*

15F suffered from anxiety because she felt her English might deteriorate in Japan, where she had fewer opportunities to communicate with others in English outside the classroom. In other words, she felt less anxious when she was exposed to English.

Ten students expressed a preference for an English-only environment because this helped to lower their anxiety. As it is natural to speak English in English-speaking countries, students seem determined to speak English without relying on Japanese. 12F, a female sophomore Spanish major in the intermediate anxiety group, explained her reason for this:

> *I was alright if I was forced to be in the environment where I had to speak English. In Japan, I feel uneasy when I talk with my friends in English because, being the same nationality, we can communicate better in Japanese.*

So clearly, the environment in which students have to speak English can make a difference to their mindset, and affect their autonomy when speaking English.

155

Six students stated that a desire to improve their level of English proficiency was important for reducing anxiety when speaking English. 6M, a male freshman English major in the low anxiety group, had a passion for studying English:

> *I had to acquire basic knowledge of grammar and vocabulary before speaking English. However, it would have been better to start using that knowledge practically after acquiring the basics. The more I speak English with native speakers, the more I can learn various expressions and improve my proficiency.*

This comment implies that speaking practice is important. Students need to practice speaking English after acquiring basic vocabulary and grammar.

Five students emphasized the importance of having self-confidence. 9M, a male freshman English major in the low anxiety group, summarized his own feelings about this:

> *When I went to Canada, I was initially anxious about speaking English. However, my host family was nice and we often had good conversations. Through this practice, I acquired self-confidence, which reduced my anxiety.*

Frequent use of English increases students' self-confidence about speaking the language, thus reducing their anxiety, and further improving their English proficiency.

Three students stated that being less scared of making errors and of being negatively judged by others played an important role in reducing their anxiety when speaking more English. Students felt relaxed in an environment where they felt making mistakes did not matter. 33F, a female sophomore Chinese major in the high anxiety group, shared her homestay experience:

> *My host family often talked to me, so I made an effort to answer them. They helped me, without criticizing my poor English. In this way, I became used to speaking English. I don't like to be negatively judged by others, or for others to think I cannot speak English well.*

Some students like 33F are afraid of losing face when making mistakes and being negatively judged by others. This suggests the importance of creating an unthreatening classroom environment.

However, even students who frequently spoke English out of class wanted to use Japanese in class on some occasions. In terms of L1 use for clarification purposes, quite a few students expressed opinions similar to those of 25F, a female freshman Korean major in the high anxiety group:

> *I understand the school's 'English-only policy' in English classes. However, what should I do if I don't understand a teacher's instruction? I want to join activities but I am at a loss. I sometimes feel that our understanding would increase if a teacher explained difficult words or grammar in Japanese. I think students should be allowed to consult a bilingual dictionary or help other classmates in Japanese.*

In addition, students with frequent opportunities for speaking English outside the classroom still wanted some L1 use in class. Even student 1F, who had a different perspective on L1 use in class, felt there was some room for flexibility:

> *I am very motivated to learn English well, so I often speak English outside the classroom and avoid using Japanese in class. However, I sometimes follow my classmates and flexibly code-switch. This means I will respond to them in the language they use, because I think it is more natural in conversation.*

These interview excerpts suggest that legitimate use of L1 may be a better strategy than a complete ban on L1 use for most students, regardless of their anxiety levels.

5.3 Discussion of both quantitative and qualitative results
5.3.1 TL versus L1 use

It is crucial to find effective ways to teach English to Japanese college students in order to improve their communication ability. In the context of EFL, the classroom may be the only place where students have the opportunity to speak English. Therefore, an English-only policy has been preferred by many universities in most EFL countries for maximizing students' exposure to English. This idea supports Turnbull (2001), who

disagrees with L1 use in EFL classes, arguing that maximum use of L2 can increase students' speaking fluency and L1 should be, at best, an emergency open channel. However, it seems that the L1 versus TL debate is unlikely to be resolved easily. Cook (2001) has stated that L1 can be a useful resource, not only for reducing anxiety, but also for promotion of L2 learning if L1 is used judiciously in a class of single-nationality students. Moreover, Sampson (2012) has suggested that a ban on L1 use could be detrimental to communication and L2 learning. Therefore, the issue of whether L1 or TL should be used in EFL classes needs to be addressed.

The present correlation analyses suggest that students who frequently had an opportunity to speak English in their daily lives experienced less anxiety, supporting the results of Levine (2003) and Dewaele (2007), who both found that the more frequently students used TL, the less anxiety they had in speaking it. Similarly, Liu (2006) observed that, in many cases, students' anxiety levels were reduced in oral communication classes as time went on and their exposure to spoken English increased. Moreover, the results of the correlation analyses support the view that students who used more English out of class also took more risks in class and had greater enthusiasm to study English.

Furthermore, there was a significant difference in speaking opportunities among class types (compulsory and optional). Students who took an optional class spoke more English out of class, indicating their strong enthusiasm for the language. Greater enthusiasm leads to more frequent use of spoken English outside class and, in turn, greater opportunity to speak English outside class further increases enthusiasm, thus creating a "virtuous circle".

However, enthusiasm was not the only factor instrumental in increasing opportunities to speak English. There was no significant negative relationship between speaking opportunity out of class and L1 use in class for either clarification or emotional support. That is, although opportunities to speak English outside the classroom raised enthusiasm and lowered anxiety, this should not be equated with a desire for an English-only environment inside the classroom. Perhaps surprisingly, even students with many opportunities to use English outside the classroom tended to advocate some use of Japanese in the classroom, especially for clarification. This suggests that students should be allowed to use some Japanese in order to clarify terms that would otherwise remain obscure, and to accomplish tasks. This reflects the findings of Fotos (2001) that L1 can

be used generally by learners in L2 classrooms with difficult aspects to seek lexical or content help and to focus on ongoing L2 tasks. These findings are also supported by McDonough (2002) and Rivers (2011), who considered that students' preference for L1 is related to comprehension support. Rivers (2011) has also mentioned that when students are lacking vocabulary or suitable phrases for explaining their ideas and cannot understand what is taking place in the classroom, they have a desire to use L1 in order to avoid becoming silent or feeling uncomfortable. In other words, some students would be less anxious about speaking English if they knew they were allowed to use Japanese as a last resort. Allowing students to use some Japanese is useful when there is a communication breakdown, or in order to develop a strong collaborative relationship with their classmates. Taken together, these issues suggest that maintaining an appropriate balance between L1 and TL is more productive than imposing a complete ban on L1 use.

5.3.2 Boosting the use of English: an examination of five closely interrelated factors

The present independent-samples *t*-tests showed that students who joined an optional class spoke English more often out of class than those who took only required classes. The more enthusiastic students elected to take an additional English class on top of their compulsory English lessons. These results suggest the importance of perceiving enthusiasm as one strategy for studying English more diligently and becoming more engaged with English speaking outside the classroom. In fact, this particular finding was in line with the Pearson's correlation, indicating a significant *positive* relationship between enthusiasm and speaking opportunity.

The qualitative survey indicated that 36 out of 37 students felt a reduction of anxiety about speaking English if they had more opportunities to use it. Firstly, students that became autonomously involved in conversations were less anxious and showed higher levels of WTC. Fourteen students (38%) wanted to chat with their friends and classmates or, for those who had experienced studying abroad, their host family and did not feel anxious because their attempts to communicate were motivated by a strong desire to convey their own feelings, opinions, ideas and explanations about culture. Moreover, some of them worried about having fewer opportunities to use English in conversation after returning to Japan from abroad.

Secondly, students who were placed in a life environment where English was the only language of communication did not feel anxious. Ten students (27%) insisted they would feel comfortable speaking English while spending time in countries where English is used in everyday life. In such places, students could be determined to speak English because there was no other choice. It is natural for students to feel uneasy about speaking English with fellow Japanese in Japan because they can communicate much better in their native tongue. Although students had to practice speaking English with their classmates, they felt it was not a natural communication environment and were uneasy in such an artificial situation. Students understood that they needed to follow an English-only rule in lessons, but felt strange speaking English with Japanese friends out of class, and even in class.

Thirdly, the desire for improvement in English ability helped to overcome anxiety. Six students (16%) demonstrated a strong enthusiasm to study English and used English more to help them overcome their anxiety. One student, who had an ambition to study English more seriously, explained that his strategy was to practice talking more with native English speakers after acquiring basic vocabulary and grammar.

Fourthly, self-confidence was also an asset that helped to reduce anxiety. Five students (13%) emphasized the importance of speaking English more often to increase self-confidence and reduce speaking anxiety. By speaking more, students gained confidence and, as a result, felt less anxious about conversing in English. In short, more speaking practice reduced the degree of speaking anxiety.

Lastly, students stated that they felt less anxiety when they did not worry about making mistakes or being negatively judged by others. Three students (8%) proposed creating a carefree environment to reduce speaking anxiety because they did not like to be criticized and labelled themselves as poor English speakers whenever they made mistakes. They were sensitive to peer pressure, which was consistent with Kang's (2005) finding that students were reluctant to speak English if they were afraid of making errors and being misunderstood, thereby resulting in loss of face. This is a more complex feeling that is related to both speaking ability and peer interactions, and is in accord with Scrivener's (2011) opinion that students are afraid of losing face when they are wrong and do not have enough ability to express what to say in TL. Students need a satisfying experience to make them feel comfortable learning a new language, resulting in WTC (Yashima, 2002).

In short, practicing English out of class increases familiarity with speaking it, helps students gain self-confidence, and lowers anxiety in communication with less fear of making mistakes. Students are more committed to using TL when they do not have any other choice but to speak it. The students with higher enthusiasm speak more English in their daily life, not only out of WTC with others, but also because they want to improve their language skills.

5.4 Summary

Most previous research has focused on TL/L1 use in the cognitive domain, and the affective domain has received little attention. Considering that anxiety is closely related to performance, research on the relationship between anxiety and TL/L1 use is extremely important. When anxiety is reduced, enthusiasm and less L1 reliance go up and eventually proficiency improves. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter was to focus on whether students' anxiety would decrease through exposure to a lot of English out of class.

According to the results of the quantitative survey, high enthusiasm, low anxiety, and willingness to take risks are attributes that would make a student more likely to speak English away from the classroom. Moreover, students who took an optional English class, reflecting strong enthusiasm for the language, spoke more English out of class. However, greater opportunity to speak English outside the classroom was not linked with less use of Japanese inside the classroom for both clarification and emotional support. Therefore, it can be inferred that even students with higher enthusiasm for speaking English sometimes want to use Japanese on some occasions. It appears that students definitely become less anxious about speaking English when they know they are allowed to use Japanese as a last resort.

The results of the interview survey suggest that the following factors are closely linked to the relationship between frequency of TL use and speaking anxiety. Students clearly need to make every effort to practice speaking TL, and require attributes such as high WTC, strong enthusiasm for acquisition of TL and, ideally, exposure to an environment where TL is spoken naturally in daily life in order to practice speaking TL seriously. When they gain self-confidence through practice and become less self-conscious about making mistakes, their anxiety decreases. Therefore, the statement "The more English,

the less anxiety in speaking TL" is applicable to Japanese EFL college students. However, without the above attributes, students may feel severe anxiety when they have to speak TL in class.

Both the quantitative and qualitative data suggest that, if they want to speak English fluently, students need to practice it by reducing their amount of spoken Japanese. However, a complete ban on Japanese in task-based English classes is counter-productive. It is important to maintain flexibility in order to create a proper balance between English and Japanese, and the possibility of using Japanese out of necessity helps to promote English proficiency. Although the ideal balance between the use of English and Japanese is beyond the scope of the present research, this issue warrants further investigation. The next chapter summarizes and concludes this research, and discusses implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research in more detail.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

The present study has explored FLCA and the relationship between anxiety and other variables, particularly L1 use, among Japanese EFL college students in task-based English classes. On the basis of a literature review, the present research design and questions were formulated. Research data were acquired using a mixed methods approach involving quantitative analysis supported and elaborated by qualitative assessment, and the findings were discussed in Chapters 3-5.

In this final chapter, my conclusions are presented. Section 6.1 provides a summary and implications, Section 6.2 discusses the limitations of the study, and Section 6.3 provides suggestions for further research.

6.1 Summary and implications
6.1.1 Summary

The findings of this study support certain strands of previous FLCA research while adding further insights to this interesting and important field. More practically, my results have a number of implications for English-speaking education in Japanese universities. Previous empirical research had suggested that FLCA was closely related to causes such as fear of making presentations in front of the class (Price, 1991) and of making mistakes (Horwitz et al. 1986), unwillingness to take linguistic risks (Ely, 1986), low motivation (Gardner, 1985; Gradner & MacIntyre, 1991), poor self-confidence (Young, 1990), time pressure (Gregersen et al., 2014), peer pressure (Yan & Horwitz, 2008), gender differences (MacIntyre et al. 2002), an uncooperative class atmosphere (Fotos, 2001), perfectionism (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002), less tolerance for ambiguity (Dewaele & Shan Ip, 2013), low TL proficiency (Ahmad, 2009), lower frequency of TL use (Levine, 2003), and restriction of L1 use (Rivers, 2010).

Cook (2001) has advocated that L1 use is gaining acceptability, although serious debates are still ongoing with regard to the proper balance between L1 and TL in the cognitive domain (see Introduction). Among research on the relationship between L1 and TL in Japan, Rivers (2011) has recommended that legitimate L1 use should be allowed in order to aid clarification and reduce anxiety. However, it has also been reported that learners who use TL frequently have lower levels of anxiety (Levine, 2003), and there also seems

to be no clear and conclusive consensus about the relationship between L1 and TL use in the affective domain (see Introduction). In an EFL situation, students prefer to use L1 because it affords them a better understanding, allowing them to participate fully in class activities, and thus reducing anxiety, increasing their subjective feeling of achievement, and thus raising self-confidence. However, no-one has investigated the relationship between language choice and student anxiety in Japan holistically. The present research examined more closely the relationship between FLCA and L1/TL use, gender, reported English proficiency, enthusiasm, self-confidence, and teacher-type preference, which all may affect students' English learning.

The present findings support those of previous studies, showing that anxiety arises through fear of making presentations and of making mistakes in TL, time and peer pressure, gender differences, lower enthusiasm, lower self-confidence, less willingness to take risks, lower TL proficiency, restriction of L1 use, less frequent use of TL, and an uncomfortable classroom atmosphere. Differences in anxiety level between the genders has been a controversial topic among previous researchers, but in this study females displayed more anxiety than males. My interview survey revealed that female anxiety arose out of self-consciousness and peer pressure. One finding of concern was that some female students intentionally downgraded their English to protect their pride. The higher levels of anxiety in females may in part be dependent on the language learning environment including teacher-related factors, so this result may be limited to populations such as female-dominated language-oriented universities. As this study was not designed to control for environment variables, it may be difficult to draw any specific conclusions about gender differences.

In terms of teacher-type preference, I speculated that anxious students might want to use L1 and prefer to learn from a BJNT. This was supported by correlation analyses, which demonstrated that students with higher anxiety had a stronger desire to use L1, and one-way ANOVA showed that BJNT enthusiasts had the highest anxiety and wanted to use L1 most. Furthermore, two-way ANOVA including gender showed that female BJNT enthusiasts had the highest anxiety and the strongest desire to use L1 among all the groups. However, MENT enthusiasts had the highest anxiety in the male group, suggesting that even students with higher enthusiasm for studying English may feel stronger anxiety in the absence of L1 help when they are using difficult materials, although this anxiety may be facilitative.

Students appeared to avoid overusing L1 because they understood that L1 use would not improve their proficiency. However, students who favored L1 use were, on the whole, those who were less enthusiastic about their subject, beginners (who wanted to use L1 for clarification), those who had higher anxiety, and those who did not take risks. The one-way ANOVA result that levels of self-confidence were unrelated to the desire for L1 use supported the surprising two-way ANOVA result that BJNT enthusiasts in the high self-confidence group wanted to use more Japanese than BJNT enthusiasts in the low self-confidence group and had the highest desire for L1 use among all the groups.

Interestingly, this study revealed that for reducing anxiety, it was important to increase self-confidence, but for reducing L1 use, it was necessary to improve TL proficiency because less self-confident students with higher proficiency were able to express themselves satisfactorily without overusing L1. During the interviews, however, some advanced-level students indicated they also wanted to use some Japanese for clarification when dealing with difficult content. The interviews also revealed there were some opinions against L1 use. L1 overuse impeded improvement in TL, which was contrary to the main purpose of learning. Code-switching sometimes caused confusion, and reduced concentration and enthusiasm. Additionally, students who used L1 felt both peer pressure (being labelled as lazy or incompetent) and self-pressure (feelings of personal dissatisfaction such as guilt or frustration).

With regard to the last research question, the quantitative data obtained in this study showed that increased use of English reduced student anxiety, enhanced enthusiasm, and increased willingness to take risks, and this was equated with interview data suggesting that the more English students spoke outside class, the less anxious they became. Additionally, students who enrolled in an optional class, indicating that they had stronger enthusiasm for learning, spoke English frequently out of class. The interview findings also suggested that WTC, a classroom environment that required the speaking of English, the desire to improve English, higher self-confidence, and less fear of mistakes and negative judgements were important factors that increased TL use.

However, even students who spoke more English away from the classroom expressed a preference to use L1 for clarification and emotional support in higher-level activities. This was supported by correlation analysis that demonstrated no relationship between the frequent opportunity to speak English outside class and less desire for Japanese use in

class. This appears to indicate that L1 may have importance as an effective tool for improving comprehension and as a conversation 'lubricant', making students less anxious. Students who frequently used TL outside class tended to be less anxious, highly motivated, and those who willingly took risks and attended an optional class. However, even these students sometimes wanted to use L1 for clarification and cooperation in situations where the content would have been difficult to grasp without L1 help.

Therefore, I conclude that students should make every effort to use TL both in and out of class for reducing L1 reliance, while at the same time considering L1 use as a last resort for avoiding trouble. At the same time, teachers should have appropriate expectations of their students in terms of their English proficiency, provide them with appropriate materials, and use intelligence in handling students' L1 use. They should also exercise consideration when interacting with highly anxious students, be mindful of gender differences when creating pairs/groups, and try to cultivate a collaborative atmosphere. Universities should allow legitimate L1 use, divide classes according to speaking proficiency level, increase lessons involving exchange students, and offer study abroad programs and job consulting services to every student in need.

Additionally, Japanese compulsory education should establish a teaching style that encourages students to vocally express their opinions in all subject classes starting from elementary school, as some of the students I investigated told me that they hesitated to speak out in class, even in Japanese. It is only to be expected that such students would have higher speaking anxiety in task-based English classes. If students become familiar with stating their opinions, arguing with others, and having discussions in all subject classes, this would have a mitigating effect on their English speaking anxiety in EFL classes.

6.1.2 Implications

I have already discussed in detail some of the important implications of my study findings in Chapter 3 above. However, in summary: Anxiety has a negative effect on speaking performance, so a psychologically secure, non-threatening classroom atmosphere (e.g. where mistakes are considered a necessary part of the learning process) is important for TL acquisition. For example, beginners or highly anxious students tend

to need L1 as they lack sufficient ability to express themselves or become extremely nervous when dealing with difficult material. Therefore, teachers should not criticize students for L1 use or silence. Such support from teachers will help students to develop positive emotion. Instead of implementing a strict English-only policy, teachers should allow L1 use in task-based English classes, placing more emphasis on "judicious use of L1" as a last resort to overcome communication breakdown, with perhaps greater clarification about when L1 can and cannot be used at the earliest opportunity. As the main purpose of English lessons is to improve English proficiency, then naturally it would be ideal to conduct lessons and tasks only in English. However, as FLCA can be detrimental to student performance, a better strategy would be to allow students to use some Japanese legitimately to reduce their anxiety when teachers think classroom activities are beyond their students' ability.

It is also important for teachers to be sympathetic about student anxiety. Dealing with gender differences (females showing stronger peer pressure and tending to compete with each other) may be more difficult to tackle, but possible strategies should be implemented to alleviate such negative emotions by carefully considering grouping or pairing. Some advanced-level speakers look down on poor speakers and sometimes hurt them verbally. Therefore, teachers ought to stop such hurtful activity and instead instruct advanced-level students how to help beginners by adopting a teacher-like role.

Teachers may need to reflect on their teaching style and adjust their teaching methods for students within the same class and also between different classes, while taking different student opinions into consideration to get the best out of the limited time available in mixed-ability classes. The quantitative results obtained in this study suggested that students who had less anxiety were more enthusiastic about learning TL, studying TL longer at home, having more opportunities to speak TL out of class, showing more willingness to take linguistic risks, and having less desire for L1 use in class. Additionally, less anxious students tended to have higher self-confidence. However, highly anxious students also included some who were at an advanced level. Despite their high TL proficiency, they had high anxiety and low self-confidence. They were not satisfied with their TL proficiency because they always had high expectations at every stage of their progress. The existing literature suggests that this kind of anxiety may be categorized as facilitative, and that in such cases teachers should try to ensure that this does not become debilitative.

167

In addition, if teachers are native English speakers, but make efforts to acquire the L1 of their students and use it in class when students need L1 help, this would help to cultivate student-teacher rapport and intimacy. This type of gesture on the part of the teacher might be seen as a good role model (i.e. teachers can make mistakes too, but still have the courage to try their best), making the students feel less anxious and encouraging them to take more risks with their spoken English in class without worrying about making mistakes or being judged negatively by others, thus ultimately helping them to reduce their L1 reliance.

Some of the present quantitative results may be generalized to other populations. Students who have more opportunities to speak TL outside class, study longer at home, have stronger enthusiasm for learning TL, have higher comprehension ability and self-confidence, take risks willingly and want to use less L1 in class may have less anxiety. The more English students speak, the less anxious they become when they already have WTC, a strong desire to improve their English, and a suitable environment in which to speak English. With more English speaking practice, students can improve their self-confidence and become less fearful of making mistakes and receiving negative judgements.

As the subjects of the present study were Japanese college students, any implications for students outside the Japanese context may be debatable. However, it can be tentatively suggested that in an EFL context where students share the same mother tongue, anxious students may want to use their L1 in English classes when in trouble, and prefer to learn from bilingual teachers who can help them in this respect. Additionally, students who have a greater desire to use L1 may be beginners, have less enthusiasm, and take fewer risks in class.

6.2 Limitations

A significant limitation of this research was that it was conducted in only one language-oriented university in Japan, where the levels of student enthusiasm and proficiency were high. This means it was not possible to make comparisons with other language-oriented colleges, or indeed other non-specialist universities and colleges in Japan. However, it was striking that even these enthusiastic foreign language students felt they wanted, and would benefit from, some judicious use of L1. Therefore, it would

be interesting to know the extent to which the present findings could be extrapolated to a less language-oriented environment. Moreover, the study was also limited to college students, and therefore the findings may not be applicable to younger students at junior or senior high school level.

Additionally, as this was a cross-sectional study, the results may be somewhat difficult to interpret, especially with regard to the frequency of TL use and its effects on anxiety in the target students; for this, a longitudinal study may have been more appropriate.

In the present study, with the benefit of hindsight, it seems apparent that a few of the question items in both focus group and individual interviews may have led respondents to a particular answer, despite the fact that I had asked other teachers to check the questions for both types of interview. This suggests the importance of ensuring that interview questions are checked more carefully.

In the responses to the five-point Likert scale questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha for perfectionism did not reach a reliable value (below .7), because only six of the thirty statements from the FMPS were used. These statements were selected on the basis that they least resembled each other, and no clear rationale for the selection was employed, thus explaining the low alpha value. This low alpha value meant that there was no significant correlation between perfectionism and other independent variables. As perfectionism is a personality trait with a close relationship to anxiety, it may be better to use the whole FMPS scale for future research.

Another study limitation was the non-random recruitment of teachers (seven in total). This number was too low to allow any significant conclusions to be drawn about the role or influence of teacher types (e.g. gender or personalities) and teaching styles. Additionally, as I could only access the students of participating teachers, the student cohort may not have been totally random. Moreover, as only students who answered the questionnaire and agreed to participate in further study were included in the qualitative survey, further data bias may have been introduced. This was compounded by the fact I had no access at all to one class for classroom observations. For that class, I was only able to gather data using the questionnaire survey and by focus group and face-to-face interviews. The questionnaire was distributed by the teacher, who asked his students to complete it at home, and this reduced the recovery rate (13 out of 18). Additionally,

because of this lack of observation opportunity, I was unable to obtain a clear grasp of actual student behavior in this particular class.

There was also an imbalance in the number of participants between year groups, especially at senior level. Among 257 students, only 17 representatives at the senior level participated in the questionnaire survey, and none of them took part in the qualitative survey. Additionally, none of the students in the class taught by Teacher 5 (consisting of third-year and a few fourth-year students) participated in the qualitative survey because most of them (19 out of the 22) declined to take part in it, citing time pressure because of job hunting and writing up their own theses. As senior students were more experienced, their opinions would have been interesting for comparison with younger students.

Furthermore, this study did not examine variation in student anxiety between teachers. For instance, Teacher 3 and Teacher 5 did not mind L1 use, so their students might have had less anxiety. Conversely, Teacher 2 and Teacher 4 did not use L1 at all, and always encouraged their students to use English. Therefore their students might have had a higher anxiety level. Teacher 1 code-switched effectively, according to the purpose or content of the lesson, and so her students might have had less anxiety. Teacher 6 gave students pair/group work and also made every effort to create a comfortable atmosphere; furthermore, the students had taken his class as an optional one, and had stronger enthusiasm for speaking English. Moreover, the teacher tried to explain difficult words in easy English and used the little Japanese he had acquired to introduce Japanese proverbs, although he was categorized as a monolingual native English teacher. Therefore, his students might have had less anxiety. Variation in student anxiety between teachers was not examined more closely because of the small number of teachers involved. Therefore, any differences would have been difficult to interpret without examining differences between teachers (for instance, background influences, training and experience) in more detail. A study with sufficient power to examine teacher-dependent student anxiety would require significantly more teachers and larger samples of students from each of their classes.

6.3 Suggestions for further research

It would be interesting to conduct similar FLCA research focusing on L1 use and gender differences at other universities with a greater proportion of male students, or in universities that are not so language oriented.

Investigation of teacher-related student anxiety would also be informative. As the personalities and teaching methods of teachers would likely contribute significantly to student anxiety, one approach that would yield useful data would be to compare strict teachers who employed textbook instruction, including rote memorization, and top-down methods with teachers who adopted unthreatening and friendly approaches, offering creative lessons involving pair/group work, who obviously enjoyed interacting with students, and who were tolerant of misinterpretation or misunderstanding. Even if the same teaching materials were used, individual teachers might achieve different results according to their personality or teaching approach.

Another potentially interesting avenue might be to investigate whether teacher gender influences student anxiety, and to compare the level of anxiety between male and female students. Although qualitative analysis of teachers is needed, assessment of teachers is difficult because, in general, teachers are averse to being assessed in the classroom environment. Therefore, it would be important to find ways of assessing teachers without making them feel threatened. Direct observation is not ideal because teachers may behave differently when they know they are being assessed or monitored. Teachers and students need to give more consideration to teacher-student interaction, and offer a lively and productive exchange of ideas. For this purpose, observations and stimulated recall interviews might be feasible.

An intriguing finding in the interviews was that students who spoke more English out of class might have had more exposure to English through learning in an English conversation school or private tutoring from early childhood. Therefore, it would be interesting to examine relationships among length of TL exposure, frequency of TL use, and anxiety. Another noteworthy finding was that students felt less anxious about their use of English in English-speaking countries, in comparison with Japan. A period of study abroad may have a positive influence on student anxiety levels. The target students in the present study had had only short-term experience of studying abroad

(mean period about seven weeks), which meant that they were not appropriate for research on this aspect. However, it would be interesting to investigate this issue at another university where many students have had long-term experience of studying abroad.

These possibilities for further research offer exciting opportunities to build on this investigation. It is hoped that the findings of my study of L1 use and anxiety will help to promote a student-centered approach for reduction of classroom anxiety through judicious and careful L1 use, thus significantly enhancing both the experience and attainment of learners of foreign languages.

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Appendix 1: Information sheet and Consent form

<u>Information sheet</u>

Department of Applied Linguistics and Communication, BIRKBECK
University of London, Malet Street, London WC1E 7HX   020 7631 6000

Title of Study: The learning of English in Japan
Name of researcher: Takako Inada (tinada01@mail.bbk.ac.uk)

The study is being done as part of my PhD degree in the Department of Applied
Linguistics and Communication, Birkbeck, University of London. The study has received
ethical approval.

If you agree to participate, you will agree a convenient time and place for me to observe
and interview you. You are free to stop and withdraw at any time without any penalty. A
code and/or a nickname will be attached to your data, so it remains totally anonymous.

The analysis of the observations and the interviews will be written up in a report of the
study for my degree. You will not be identifiable in the write up or any publication which
might ensue.

The study is supervised by Dr. Jean-Marc Dewaele who may be contacted at the above
address and telephone number.

<u>Consent form</u>

I have been informed about the nature of this study and willingly consent to take part in it.
I understand that the content of the observations and the interviews with audio-recording
will be kept confidential. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time
without any penalty. I am over 16 years of age.

Name_____

Signed _____

Date _____

Appendix 2: Paper-based Questionnaire

The research: Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey on the experiences of bilingual students who have studied in English learning classrooms in Japan. This research project is organized by the Department of Applied Linguistics and Communication at Birkbeck, University of London. The aim of this research is to help better understand the relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) and use of the first language (Japanese) during interaction in English classes. I want to know about your general feelings about your experiences of English speaking classes at University. There is no right or wrong answer to any of these questions. Please read each item carefully before responding. The information I get from you is vital to the success of this project.

Consent agreement: I have been informed about the nature of this study and willingly consent to take part in it. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time. Please circle the opinion you choose.

Agree   Disagree

1. A five-point Likert scale questionnaire

Please circle the opinion you choose. １つ選んで丸で囲って下さい。

A.

A1. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in English class.

英語のクラスで自分から自発的に答えるのは戸惑う。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

A2. I feel confident when I speak in English class.

英語のクラスで話す時、自信がある。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

A3. I always feel that the other students are speaking English better than I do.

自分より他の生徒の方が英語を上手に話すといつも感じる。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

A4. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in English class.

英語のクラスで話している時、緊張して混乱する。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

A5. I do not care what other students think of me when I speak English.

英語を話す時、他の生徒が自分をどう思うかは気にならない。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

B.

B1. I like to wait until I know exactly how to use an English word before using it.

英語の単語を使う前は、それをどのように使うかをきっちり知るまで、使いたくない。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

B2. I like trying out difficult sentences in English class.

英語のクラスで難しい文を試したい。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

B3. At this point, I don't like trying to express complicated ideas in English in class.

今の時点では、クラスで複雑な考えを英語で表現しようとしたくない。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

B4. I prefer to say what I want in English without worrying about the small details of grammar.

文法の詳細を気にすることなく、自分の望むことを英語で言う方を好む。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

B5. In class, I do not need to say a sentence to myself before I speak.

クラスで話す前に、話そうとしている文を（自分の中で）確認する必要はない。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

B6. I prefer to follow basic sentence models rather than risk misusing the language.

言葉の間違った使い方をする危険を犯すよりも、基本的な模範文に従いたい。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

C.

C1. When teachers use Japanese, it is easy to understand instructions about tasks.

教師が日本語を使用する時、タスクに関する指示を理解し易い。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

C2. When teachers use Japanese, it is difficult to impose discipline.

教師が日本語を使用する時、規律を守らせ難い。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

C3. When teachers use Japanese, it is easy to understand instructions about tests.

教師が日本語を使用する時、テストに関する指示を理解し易い。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

C4. When teachers use Japanese, students do not feel the authority of teachers.

教師が日本語を使用する時、生徒は教師に対し権威を感じない。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C5. When teachers use Japanese, it is easy to understand feedback.

教師が日本語を使用する時、フィードバックを理解し易い。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C6. Japanese use can promote understanding of new and difficult vocabulary, idioms and phrases.

日本語使用は新しく難しい単語、イデオム、フレーズの理解を促進できる。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C7. Translation cannot help understanding of content.

翻訳は内容理解に役立たない。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C8. Japanese use can help explain grammar well.

日本語使用は文法をよりよく説明するのに役立つ。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C9. Contrastive analysis cannot help understanding of linguistic forms.

対照分析は言語形式を理解するのに役立たない。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C10. Japanese use can improve comprehension and understanding of meanings.

日本語使用は読解や意味の理解を促進できる。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C11. Japanese use cannot facilitate in-depth discussion.

日本語使用は深い議論を促進できない。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C12. Japanese use can save time in English classrooms.

日本語使用は英語のクラスで（説明する）時間を節約することができる。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C13. Japanese use cannot enhance students' communicative competence.

日本語使用は生徒の伝達能力を高めることはできない。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

C14. Japanese use can help avoid uncertainty at the beginning of the conversation.

日本語使用は会話の始めで、不確かさを避けるのを助けることができる。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

D.

D1. I set higher goals than most people.

他人より高い目標を掲げる。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

D2. I am very poor at focusing my efforts on attaining a goal.

目標を達成するめに集中して努力するのがとても苦手だ。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

D3. It takes me a long time to do something 'right'.

何かを「正しく」行うのには時間がかかる方だ。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

D4. I do not mind if I am not perfect what I do.

自分がしていることを完璧にしなくても気にならない。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

D5. If I do not do as well as other people, it means I am an inferior person.

もし他人と同じくらい良くできなければ、自分が劣っているからだと思う。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

D6. People will probably not think less of me even if I make a mistake.

たとえ間違いをしても、他人は自分を劣っているとは思わないだろう。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

E.

E1. Japanese use can help students utilize their prior knowledge and experience.

日本語使用は生徒の既存の知識や経験を活用するのを助けることができる。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

E2. Japanese use cannot make students more motivated.

日本語使用は生徒をよりやる気にさせることはできない。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

E3. Japanese use can help both teachers and students understand other cultures and other ways of thinking when giving opinions about cultural points.

日本語使用は教師や生徒が文化について意見を述べる際に、異文化や異なる考え方を理解するのを助けることができる。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

E4. More frequent English use makes students more comfortable and reduces anxiety.

英語使用が増える時、生徒は心地よく感じ不安感が減る。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

E5. Japanese use can relieve tensions by creating an appropriate learning environment that gives students more confidence.

日本語使用は、生徒により自信を与えるという相応しい学習環境を作り出すことによって、生徒の緊張を緩和することができる。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

E6. Speaking English gives students more freedom to express themselves.

英語を話す時、生徒は自分自身を表現する自由をより感じる。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

E7. Teachers' use of Japanese for emotional support in teacher-centered classrooms can help students overcome their anxiety.

教師中心の教室で、情緒サポートのために使われる教師の日本語は、生徒が不安感を克服するのを助けることができる。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

E8. If teachers use only English, students can feel more comfortable and relaxed in English classrooms.

もし教師が英語だけを使うなら、生徒は心地よさを感じ、英語のクラスでよりリラックスできる。

strongly agree　　agree　　neither agree nor disagree　　disagree　　strongly disagree

E9. Teachers' use of Japanese cannot reduce students' silence and unwillingness to speak English.

教師の日本語使用が生徒の沈黙や話したがらなさを減らすことはできない。

strongly agree　　　agree　　　neither agree nor disagree　　　disagree　　　strongly disagree

E10. When teachers have a positive, friendly and relaxed attitude towards students who use Japanese, students can overcome their reticence to speak English.

教師が日本語を使用する生徒に肯定的で友好的な打ち解けた態度を示す時、生徒は英語を話す際に無口を克服することができる。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

E11. Japanese use can enhance a student-centered, comfortable language learning atmosphere.

日本語使用は生徒中心で快適な学習環境を高めることができる。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

E12. Collaboration with empathy and solidarity are ruined by Japanese use in group or pair work.

グループワークやペアワークで共感や結束感を持ち協力することは、日本語使用により台無しになる。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

E13. Japanese use can avoid fear of losing face when speaking in English classrooms.

クラスで英語を話す時、日本語を使用することで面目を失う恐怖を避けられる。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

E14. Some Japanese use in student-student interactions does not enhance understanding.

日本語を（時々）使いながらの、生徒間の相互作用が（学習の）理解を深めることにはならない。

strongly agree   agree   neither agree nor disagree   disagree   strongly disagree

2．**An open-ended questionnaire**

Please write your opinions in Japanese. 日本語であなたの意見を記入して下さい。

1. From whom do you want to learn English? Please circle one of the following:
どの先生から英語を習いたいですか？１つ選んで丸で囲って下さい。

A) Bilingual Japanese-native teachers (BJNT): 二言語話者で母語が日本語の教師

B) Bilingual English-native teachers (BENT): 二言語話者で母語が英語の教師

C) Monolingual English-native teachers (MENT): 一言語話者で母語が英語の教師

The reason for the choice (その理由は何ですか？):

2. Please describe incidents in English speaking classes where teachers' Japanese use relieved your anxiety or increased your anxiety. Why?
英語を話す授業で、教師の日本語使用が不安を削減した、又は不安を増やした出来事とその理由を記述して下さい。

3.Please describe good points and bad points of Japanese use in speaking English. Give examples and the reasons from your experiences.
英語を話す際の日本語使用の良い点と悪い点を記述して下さい。あなたの経験から、その例と理由を上げて下さい。

1) In whole-class lessons　　　クラス全体での授業の時の経験と理由は？

2) Group work　　　グループワークの時の経験と理由は？

3) Pair work　　　ペアワークの時の経験と理由は？

4. How will your behavior or feelings in group work and pair work change depending on the different grouping or pairing (the difference of proficiency, the familiarity, and willingness to communicate)?

グループワークやペアワークの時、それぞれ、メンバーやパートナーの違い (英語力, 親しさ, 話す熱意の違い) により、どのようにあなたの態度や気持ちが変わりますか？

1）In group work　　グループワークの時

2）In pair work　　ペアワークの時

5. Please describe your opinions and the reasons about the following statement.

次の文章に対するあなたの意見とその理由を書いて下さい。

"Low-level students especially need Japanese in English classes. In addition, advanced-level students still need the help of Japanese in working with more difficult materials in order to figure out the requirements of the tasks."

「英語の授業で、レベルの低い生徒は特に日本語が必要だ。上級レベルの生徒も、より難しい教材に携わる際に、タスクで要求されていることを理解するために、依然日本語の助けが必要である。」

6. What do you think that the amount or the content of your Japanese use may change depending on the overall purpose of the course? Please describe your opinion.

受講しているクラスの目的によって、日本語使用の量や内容が変わると思いますか？あなたの意見を述べて下さい。

3. Background information

1. Name: Surname (姓):   ; First name (名):

2. Email address (E メールアドレス):

3. Gender (性別):   Male (男);   Female (女)

4. Age (年齢):   years old (才)

5. Nationality (国籍):

6. Native language (母国語):

7. Grade and department (何年生ですか？どの学部ですか？):
        Grade (何年生):   Department (学部):

8. Have you ever taken optional English classes in university? If yes, how many classes did you take so far?
大学で必修ではなく選択科目として英語のクラスをとったことはありますか？あるなら、今までにいくつとりましたか？
        Yes: class(es);   No

9. How many years have you studied English?
今まで何年間くらい英語を勉強してきていますか？
            year(s)

10. Have you ever been to an English speaking country? If yes, how long in total?
英語を話す国での滞在経験はありますか？もしあるなら、全部でどのくらいの期間滞在しましたか？
        Yes: month(s);   No

11. Do you have the opportunities to speak English outside the classroom nowadays? If yes, how many hours in total per week?
現在クラス外で英語を話す機会はありますか？もしあるなら、週に何時間位ですか？
        Yes: hour(s) a week;   No

12. How many hours do you spend a week on studying English recently?
最近、英語の勉強は週に何時間くらいしていますか？
         hour(s) a week

13. Are you pleased with the grade you received in college English classes so far?
今まで大学の英語のクラスでつけられた成績に満足していますか？
        Yes   No

Q14-16 is a self-evaluation. Please reflect your inner thought and answer it in Q14 and Q15 by using percentage from 0 to 100 %. 100 % is regarded as the highest and 0 % is the lowest.

Q14-16 は自己評価です。Q14 と 15 は自分の内面を熟考して 0~100%内のパーセントで答えて下さい。100%は一番よく、0%は一番悪い評価となります。

14. My degree of enthusiasm for learning English is around ___%. Please put the figure in the underline.

英語を勉強したいという情熱は今現在__%位ある。下線部に数字を書き込んで下さい。

<div align="center">Around _____%</div>

15.I understand what my teachers are saying in college English classes about ___% of the time. Please put the figure in the underline.

大学の英語の授業で先生がクラスで言ったことを大体__%位理解できる。下線部に数字を書き込んで下さい。

<div align="center">About _____%</div>

16.How would you rate your current English proficiency level? I consider myself to be a basic-level, an intermediate-level, or an advanced-level student. Please circle one of these levels.

自分の今の英語力はどのレベルだと思いますか？初級、中級、上級のどれかを選んで、丸で囲って下さい。

Basic-level (初級);   Intermediate-level (中級);   Advanced-level (上級)

17.What is your test score?

テストのスコアを教えて下さい。

TOEIC: TOEFL: STEP:

18.I am happy to co-operate in further research.

今後のリサーチに喜んで協力します。

Yes   No

<div align="center">

Thank you for participating in this survey!

</div>

ID	Anxiety	Risk-taking	Major	Year	Self-confidence	Proficiency
37F	25	12	Korean	3	1	1
36F	25	13	Chinese	2	1	2
35M	24	15	English	1	1	2
34F	24	17	Spanish	3	1	1
33F	24	18	Chinese	2	2	2
32F	24	18	English	1	2	2
31M	23	9	Vietnamese	2	1	1
30F	23	12	Thai	2	1	1
29F	23	14	English	3	1	2
28F	22	11	Spanish	2	2	1
27F	22	13	Korean	3	1	1
26M	22	14	Portuguese	2	1	1
25F	22	14	Korean	1	1	1
24F	22	15	Indonesian	2	2	1
23F	22	15	English	1	1	2
22F	22	18	English	1	1	2
21M	18	12	Vietnamese	2	1	1
20M	18	15	English	1	1	2
19F	18	15	English	2	2	2
18F	18	16	Portuguese	2	2	2
17F	18	17	Spanish	2	1	1
16F	18	20	English	1	1	2
15F	18	20	English	1	2	2
14M	18	21	English	2	2	2
13F	18	22	Spanish	1	1	1
12F	18	22	Spanish	2	2	2
11F	18	23	English	1	2	2
10F	11	21	Spanish	1	1	2
9M	11	21	English	1	2	1
8F	11	22	English	1	2	2
7F	11	23	English	2	1	2
6M	10	23	IC	1	1	3
5F	10	26	Chinese	1	2	2
4M	9	20	Chinese	3	3	2
3M	9	28	IBC	1	2	3
2M	8	27	English	2	3	1
1F	8	28	Spanish	1	2	2

Appendix 3: List of students selected for the qualitative survey

Appendix 4: Correlation Matrices: Pearson's pairwise correlations

Variable	by Variable	Correlation	Count	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Sig. (*p*)
study hours	speaking opportunity	0.1424	248	0.0181	0.2623	0.0250*
Enthusiasm	speaking opportunity	0.2056	251	0.0839	0.3213	0.0011*
Enthusiasm	study hours	0.3615	249	0.2484	0.4649	<.0001*
comprehension	speaking opportunity	0.1294	251	0.0057	0.2493	0.0404*
comprehension	study hours	0.0383	249	-0.0865	0.1618	0.5477
comprehension	Enthusiasm	0.2731	253	0.1550	0.3835	<.0001*
Total anxiety	speaking opportunity	-0.2493	251	-0.3620	-0.1295	<.0001*
Total anxiety	study hours	-0.2410	249	-0.3547	-0.1203	0.0001*
Total anxiety	Enthusiasm	-0.3343	253	-0.4395	-0.2201	<.0001*
Total anxiety	Comprehension	-0.4106	253	-0.5082	-0.3026	<.0001*
Total risk-taking	speaking opportunity	0.2704	251	0.1517	0.3815	<.0001*
Total risk-taking	study hours	0.0867	249	-0.0381	0.2087	0.1728
Total risk-taking	Enthusiasm	0.2978	253	0.1811	0.4062	<.0001*
Total risk-taking	Comprehension	0.2966	253	0.1799	0.4051	<.0001*
Total risk-taking	Total anxiety	-0.4919	257	-0.5794	-0.3932	<.0001*
Total understanding	speaking opportunity	-0.1098	251	-0.2305	0.0142	0.0826
Total understanding	study hours	-0.0187	249	-0.1427	0.1058	0.7687
Total understanding	Enthusiasm	-0.2835	253	-0.3931	-0.1659	<.0001*

Variable	by Variable	Correlation	Count	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Sig. (*p*)
Total understanding	Comprehension	-0.1365	253	-0.2556	-0.0134	0.0299*
Total understanding	Total anxiety	0.2260	257	0.1065	0.3389	0.0003*
Total understanding	Total risk-taking	-0.2612	257	-0.3717	-0.1434	<.0001*
Total perfectionism	speaking opportunity	0.0550	251	-0.0693	0.1776	0.3859
Total perfectionism	study hours	0.0726	249	-0.0522	0.1952	0.2536
Total perfectionism	Enthusiasm	0.1730	253	0.0507	0.2901	0.0058*
Total perfectionism	Comprehension	-0.0039	253	-0.1272	0.1195	0.9505
Total perfectionism	Total anxiety	0.0723	257	-0.0505	0.1929	0.2483
Total perfectionism	Total risk-taking	-0.0479	257	-0.1692	0.0749	0.4447
Total perfectionism	Total understanding	-0.0617	257	-0.1827	0.0611	0.3243
Total emotion	speaking opportunity	-0.1382	251	-0.2576	-0.0146	0.0286*
Total emotion	study hours	-0.0216	249	-0.1455	0.1030	0.7348
Total emotion	Enthusiasm	-0.3039	253	-0.4118	-0.1876	<.0001*
Total emotion	Comprehension	-0.1502	253	-0.2686	-0.0274	0.0168*
Total emotion	Total anxiety	0.3127	257	0.1979	0.4190	<.0001*
Total emotion	Total risk-taking	-0.3435	257	-0.4471	-0.2308	<.0001*
Total emotion	Total understanding	0.5837	257	0.4968	0.6590	<.0001*
Total emotion	Total perfectionism	-0.0495	257	-0.1709	0.0733	0.4290

Appendix 5-1: Classroom observation sheet for a teacher (a sample)

Date & Time	October 11th, 2013 (Friday), 13:30-15:00	Teacher's code	Teacher 1
Class & Department	Integrated English class, English department	Aim	Improve reading and speaking skills
Grade & Level	Freshman, Advanced-level	Materials	A textbook, a practice reading material for TOEFL

Activity (a teacher)	Instances & Functions of L1 (a teacher)	Activity (students)	Instances & Functions of L1 (students)
Vocabulary quiz: give students the quiz, write the answers on the blackboard after 5 min., and collect them	***Feedback: praise students** "Your scores are getting better. Keep it up!" ***Explain: rewrite correct words on the blackboard and explain the meaning of them** "Sorry, I mistakenly wrote a wrong word on the blackboard." ***Humor: give one of the students humorous comments with laughing privately** "It is a good analysis!"	Exchange the answer sheet with a classmate sitting next to each other and check the partner's answers Q&A privately	Some students were checking the answers in Japanese for asking more detailed knowledge about the vocabulary. One of the students talked to the teacher about a word during the quiz.
Explain the theme in the textbook reading that was assigned as homework	***Friendly talk: establishing solidarity** "Did you do homework?" "Do you have a Facebook account? "How many Facebook friends do you have?"	Answer to the teacher in class	
Discuss good and bad points about social media		Pair work	Some pairs used Japanese for unknown words.

Summarize three paragraphs in the textbook	*Provide instructions:* "You can explain your opinion in Japanese if you cannot say it in English."	Pair work and report the summarization in class	Some pairs needed some Japanese help for difficult parts to explain. The student called on by the teacher was at a loss for words, so she was allowed to use Japanese.
Q & A quiz in the textbook	*Provide instruction:* "You can discuss the quiz with classmates nearby. You may use some Japanese when you cannot do it in English."	Small group or pair work	Most students made an effort to discuss Q&A quiz in English, but some often code-switched.
Explain contents & difficult grammar: write some English sentences with difficult grammar	*Comprehension check & L1-L2 contrasts:* "I will explain the difficult grammar in Japanese to improve clarification."	Individual work	Students used a bilingual dictionary and tried to translate the sentences with difficult grammar.
Explain homework for the next lesson and the schedule for the submission	*Provide instructions for homework:* "I will provide the information about HW in Japanese because everyone should understand it."		A few students asked some questions about HW in Japanese.
A practice reading material for TOEFL: give students 10 min. for the reading with comprehension questions in class. After that, give answers and explanations.	*Provide instructions for the TOEFL reading:* "From now on, I will conduct the lesson in Japanese as the content of the reading is difficult." *Translation: vocabulary* *Explain: difficult parts*	Individual work	Students did the reading quiz in class. Some students took memos in Japanese for comprehension. After checking the answers, they took notes, listening to the teacher's explanations. Some students did them in Japanese.
A practice reading material for TOEFL: discussion and Q&A	*Provide instructions:* "Discuss the parts you made mistakes with your partner." "If you have any questions, ask me."	Pair work	Students checked new words and difficult parts with a pair partner in Japanese. A few students asked comprehension questions about the contents of the reading in Japanese.

Note: Students did not get any reprimands for discipline in Japanese because they were adult students.

Appendix 5-2: Classroom observation sheet for a student (a sample)

Date & Time	November, 6th, 2013 (Wednesday), 11:00-12:30	Student's code	37F (Teacher 3's student)
Class & Depart.	CSK advanced English class, Korean department	Aim	Improve listening and speaking skills
Grade & Level	Junior, Intermediate-level	Materials	A textbook about tourism

Activity (a teacher)	Activity (students)	Instances & Functions of L1 (the student # 37F)
Vocabulary quiz: give students the quiz, write the answers on the blackboard after 7 min.	Self-checked the answers	***Translation vocabulary** ***Friendly talk: establishing solidarity** 37F sat down with close friends whose major was Korean, used a bilingual dictionary, and often talked with the pair partner in Japanese. For example, for checking the answers, asking more detailed knowledge about the vocabulary, and joking each other.
Pre-listening exercise: ask students about their past trips and check new vocabulary in the textbook	Pair work The students pointed out by the teacher spoke in class	***Providing information** 37F talked about her past travel experiences with her pair partner in Japanese.
While listening exercise: listen to CD twice and answer True/False questions in the textbook	Individual work Pair work	***Vocabulary & comprehension check** ***Friendly talk: establishing solidarity** 37F used a bilingual dictionary for unknown words and checked the comprehension with the pair partner in Japanese.

After listening exercise: answer comprehension questions in the textbook	Individual work	***Vocabulary & comprehension check**
	Pair work	***Friendly talk: establishing solidarity** 37F used a bilingual dictionary for unknown words and checked the comprehension with the pair partner in Japanese. 37F could not understand the meaning of a question in the textbook. After consulting a bilingual dictionary, 37F knew the meaning of some unknown words, but did not figure out what was asked in the question.
	Report the answers in class	When 37F was called on by the teacher, 37F made an effort to answer the question in English. However, 37F suddenly stopped in a middle of her talk and the pair partner (her close friend) helped her with giving a word she forgot.
Grammar exercise: read the article in the textbook. Analyze some sentences by breaking them down into component parts	Individual work	***Vocabulary check**
	Pair work	***Friendly talk: establishing solidarity** 37F understood some unfamiliar words by using a bilingual dictionary. Then she did the grammar exercise. 37F often used Japanese with the pair partner during activities.

Note: The teacher often used Japanese in class because it was a required class for juniors at an intermediate English proficiency level in the CSK (Chinese, Spanish and Korean) department. The purpose of the class for most students was to take the class credit for graduation. The major of the students was not English so that they were busy studying their major languages. The teacher understood the situation so that she did not give them much homework, allowed them to use Japanese whenever they wanted especially for clarification purposes, and did not correct the students' minor errors. 37F admitted that she often discussed in Japanese with a pair partner because there was no English only policy in class. However, 37F tried to answer questions and make presentations in English. When 37F could not do it, she spoke only words in English without using correct grammar. 37F was afraid of being called on by the teacher because she used most of her studying time for Korean and did not prepare for English lessons properly.

# Appendix 6-1: Focus Group Interview Discussion Questions

1.How have you been studying English so far in order to speak English fluently?

これまで英語を流暢に話せるようになる為にどうやって勉強してきましたか？

2.Do you feel anxious when speaking English in classes? What is the best strategy to reduce your anxiety? How do you feel when teachers call on you or correct your errors while you are speaking?

クラスで英語を話す時、不安を感じますか？あなたの不安を減らすのに、一番いい手段は何ですか？また、教師が名指しで当ててきたり、話している時に間違いを直してきたらどう思いますか？

3.What do you think about the statement of "the more frequently you speak English, the less anxiety you will have in speaking it?" "英語を話す頻度が増えれば増える程、英語を話す際に不安は減る"と思いますか？

4.Do you have any belief or idea about the use of Japanese in acquiring English?

英語習得の際の日本語使用に対する信念や考えはありますか？

5.Do you think that beginners have to make a bigger effort to study under English-only classes? Could you give some advice to them? 初級レベルの学生は English only の環境で勉強するよう、かなり努力をしなくてはいけないと思いますか？何か英語のできない人へのアドバイスはありますか？

6.An opinion was expressed in the questionnaire that "When bilingual Japanese-native teachers try teaching in the style of monolingual English-native teachers, the lesson is not as good." Do you agree and if so then what kind of style should bilingual Japanese-native teachers adopt? " アンケート結果に「日本人教師が英語ネイテブ教師と同じやり方で教えようとするなら、単に劣化になる。」と言う意見がありました。その意見に賛成ですか？もし賛成なら、日本人バイリンガル教師はどんな教え方をすればいいと思いますか？

7.How do you tackle difficult tasks given to you in group or pair work? How do you prepare for a presentation when there is a big difference in proficiency between your Japanese and English in order to make a successful presentation? Group work や pair work で与えられた難しい課題（タスク）をどのようにこなしますか？日本語と英語の能力差が大きい段階で、プリゼンを成功させるためにどのように準備しますか？

8.What's the best way of selecting students for group or pair work? Group work や pair work のために、どのように学生を分けるのが一番いいと思いますか？

9.Do you feel you are perfectionist? Can you stand ambiguity when you communicate with others?

あなたは完璧主義だと思いますか？他人と会話をしている時、曖昧さに耐えられますか？

10.Is there any difference between male students and female ones on anxiety in speaking English?

英語を話す時に感じる不安に関して、男女差はあると思いますか？

Appendix 6-2: Individual Interview Discussion Questions

1.Have you ever had any successful experiences using English?　今までに英語を使って何かをして成功したという経験はありますか？

2.Is there anything you want someone to do or not to do for you in order to lessen your anxiety when you try speaking in English?　英語を話す時の不安を和らげる為に、何か他人からして欲しいこと、あるいはして欲しくないことはありますか？

3.How do you achieve a balance between practicing speaking English more to improve your oral skills better and using Japanese when you are in trouble?　英語を話す技術を上げるためにより多く英語を話す練習をする一方で、困った時は日本語を使うという，相反する考えのバランスをどのようにとっていますか？

4.What can you do to gain more confidence speaking English?　英語を話すのに，より自信を持てるようになる為に、何をすることができると思いますか？

5.What can friends, teachers or the school to do for you in order to gain confidence in speaking English?　英語を話すのに自信が持てるようになる為に、友人・教師・学校はあなたの為に何をすることができるでしょうか？

6.How best can bilingual Japanese-native teachers help you to reduce your anxiety?　不安を減らす為に日本人バイリンガル教師はどのようなことをしてあげるのが一番いいと思いますか？

7.Should English education in Japan be changed in order to improve your speaking skills in English and if so what changes do you think can be made?　英語を話すスキルを伸ばす為に日本の英語教育を変えるべきだと思いますか？もしそう思うなら、どんな変化がなされうると思いますか？

8.Do you think the rule where you lose points whenever you speak Japanese in English lessons is effective? Does the rule make students reticent?　「英語の授業で日本語を使用すると減点」というルールは、効果があると思いますか？返って生徒を無口にしてしまうと思いますか？

9.Do you feel anxious when you think about the marks you will get in English class? Do you make an effort to speak out in class in order to get a better mark?　英語のクラスで付けられる成績のことを考えて不安になりますか？いい成績を取るために頑張ってクラスで英語を話そうと努力しますか？

10.Do you have any goals for the future or a career you want to follow? Does this make you feel more enthusiastic or lessen your anxiety?　将来の目標やなりたい職業は決まっていますか？それが原因でやる気が増えたり、不安が下ったりしますか？

11.Does learning a third language help you improve your English?　第三言語を学ぶことが英語力アップに繋がると思いますか？

12.Do you think there are differences in anxiety or in risk taking between males and females?　不安やリスクを取る行動に男女差があると思いますか？
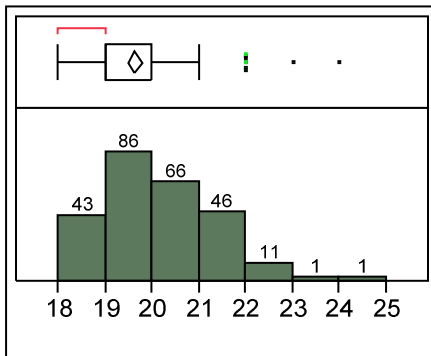
Appendix 7: Distributions

Gender
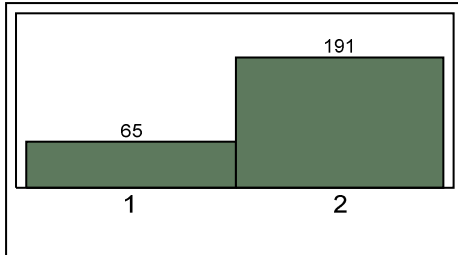
Frequencies

Level	Count	Prob
1. Male	65	0.25391
2. Female	191	0.74609
Total	256	1.00000

N Missing1   2 Levels

Age

Quantiles

		years of age
100.0%	maximum	24
99.5%		23.725
97.5%		22
90.0%		21
75.0%	quartile	20
50.0%	median	19
25.0%	quartile	19
10.0%		18
2.5%		18

	years of age
0.5%	18
0.0% Minimum	18

Summary Statistics

	years of age
Mean	19.61811
Std Dev	1.152342
Std Err Mean	0.0723044
Upper 95% Mean	19.760505
Lower 95% Mean	19.475715
N	254

Grade
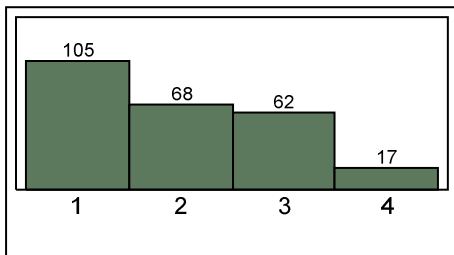
Frequencies

Level	Count	Prob
1. freshman	105	0.41667
2. sophomore	68	0.26984
3. junior	62	0.24603
4. senior	17	0.06746
Total	252	1.00000

N Missing 5   4 Levels

Major
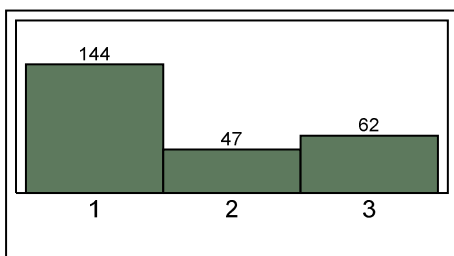
Frequencies

Level		Count	Prob
1.	English	144	0.56917
2.	Spanish, Portuguese	47	0.18577
3.	Asian language	62	0.24506
Total		253	1.00000

N Missing 4   3 Levels

Class type
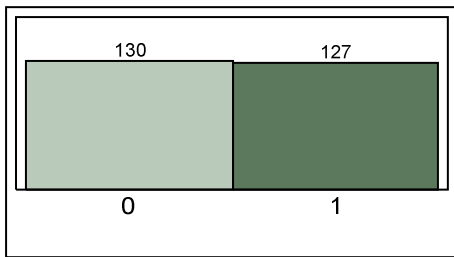
Frequencies

Level		Count	Prob
0.	Required	130	0.50584
1.	required elective	127	0.49416
Total		257	1.00000

N Missing 0   2 Levels

Elective
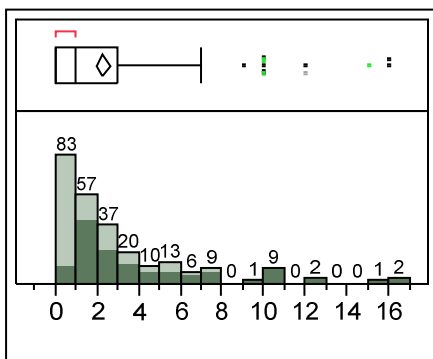
Quantiles

		class(es) taken
100.0%	maximum	16

		class(es) taken
99.5%		16
97.5%		10
90.0%		6
75.0%	quartile	3
50.0%	median	1
25.0%	quartile	0
10.0%		0
2.5%		0
0.5%		0
0.0%	minimum	0

Summary Statistics

	class(es) taken
Mean	2.26
Std Dev	3.0100901
Std Err Mean	0.1903748
Upper 95% Mean	2.6349502
Lower 95% Mean	1.8850498
N	250
Median	1
Mode	0
Range	16

English study
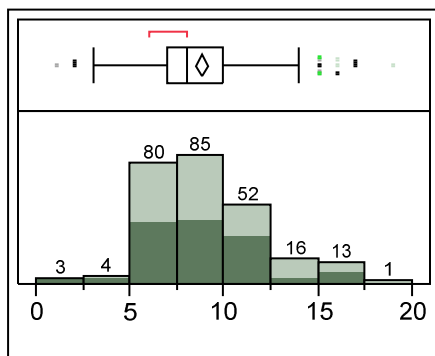
Quantiles

		year(s)
100.0%	maximum	19

		year(s)
99.5%		18.45
97.5%		15.625
90.0%		13
75.0%	quartile	10
50.0%	median	8
25.0%	quartile	7
10.0%		6
2.5%		4
0.5%		1.275
0.0%	minimum	1

Summary Statistics

	year(s)
Mean	8.7795276
Std Dev	2.7541945
Std Err Mean	0.1728135
Upper 95% Mean	9.1198639
Lower 95% Mean	8.4391912
N	254
Median	8
Mode	8
Range	18

Years abroad
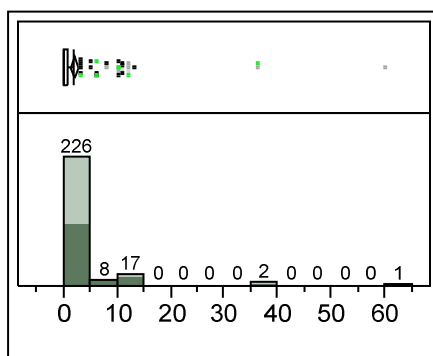
Quantiles

		month(es)
100.0%	maximum	60

99.5%		53.4
97.5%		12
90.0%		6
75.0%	quartile	1
50.0%	median	0
25.0%	quartile	0
10.0%		0
2.5%		0
0.5%		0
0.0%	minimum	0

Summary Statistics

	month(es)
Mean	1.8133858
Std Dev	5.5775965
Std Err Mean	0.3499695
Upper 95% Mean	2.5026105
Lower 95% Mean	1.1241611
N	254
Median	0
Mode	0
Range	60

Speaking chance
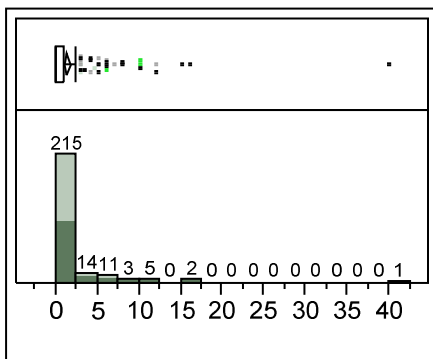
Quantiles

		hour(s) a week
100.0%	maximum	40

	hour(s) a week
99.5%	33.76
97.5%	10
90.0%	4
75.0% quartile	1
50.0% median	0
25.0% quartile	0
10.0%	0
2.5%	0
0.5%	0
0.0% minimum	0

Summary Statistics

	hour(s) a week
Mean	1.3243028
Std Dev	3.4939386
Std Err Mean	0.2205354
Upper 95% Mean	1.758647
Lower 95% Mean	0.8899586
N	251
Median	0
Mode	0
Range	40

Study hours
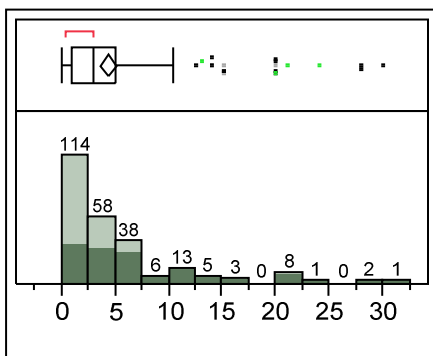
Quantiles

	hour(s) a week
100.0% maximum	30

	hour(s) a week
99.5%	29.5
97.5%	20
90.0%	10
75.0% quartile	5
50.0% median	3
25.0% quartile	1
10.0%	0
2.5%	0
0.5%	0
0.0% minimum	0

Summary Statistics

	hour(s) a week
Mean	4.3140562
Std Dev	5.2781048
Std Err Mean	0.3344863
Upper 95% Mean	4.9728523
Lower 95% Mean	3.6552601
N	249
Median	3
Mode	1
Range	30

Motivation
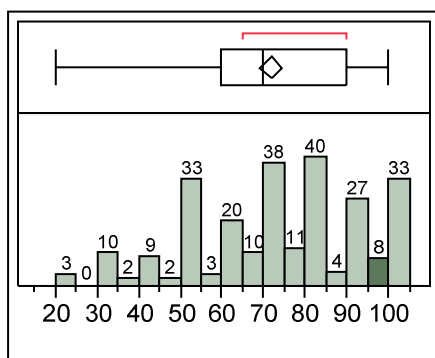
Quantiles

		%
100.0%	maximum	100

		%
99.5%		100
97.5%		100
90.0%		100
75.0%	quartile	90
50.0%	median	70
25.0%	quartile	60
10.0%		45
2.5%		30
0.5%		20
0.0%	minimum	20

Summary Statistics

	%
Mean	71.478261
Std Dev	20.107561
Std Err Mean	1.2641515
Upper 95% Mean	73.967909
Lower 95% Mean	68.988613
N	253
Median	70
Mode	80
Range	80

Grade satisfaction
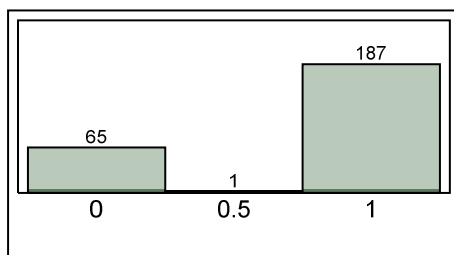
Frequencies

Level	Count	Prob
0. unsatisfied	65	0.25692
0.5. middle	1	0.00395
1. satisfied	187	0.73913

Level	Count	Prob
Total	253	1.00000

N Missing 4   3 Levels

Understanding
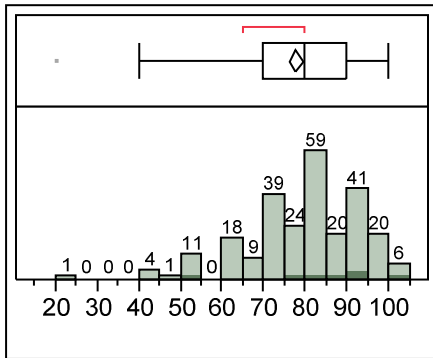
Quantiles

		%
100.0%	maximum	100
99.5%		100
97.5%		99.65
90.0%		95
75.0%	quartile	90
50.0%	median	80
25.0%	quartile	70
10.0%		60
2.5%		46.75
0.5%		25.4
0.0%	minimum	20

Summary Statistics

	%
Mean	77.482213
Std Dev	13.394972
Std Err Mean	0.8421347
Upper 95% Mean	79.140732
Lower 95% Mean	75.823695
N	253
Median	80

	%
Mode	80
Range	80

Self-assessment
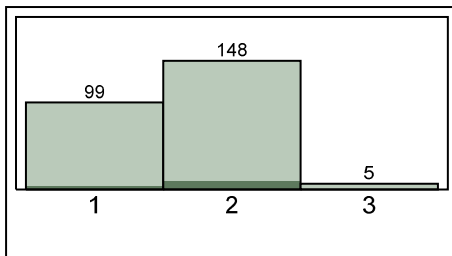
Frequencies

Level	Count	Prob
1. basic	99	0.39286
2. intermediate	148	0.58730
3. advanced	5	0.01984
Total	252	1.00000

N Missing 5   3 Levels

Level
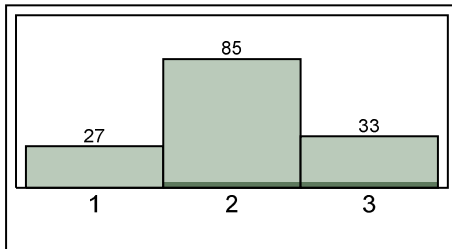
Frequencies

Level	Count	Prob
1. basic	27	0.18621
2. intermediate	85	0.58621
3. advanced	33	0.22759
Total	145	1.00000

N Missing 112   3 Levels

Teachers' type
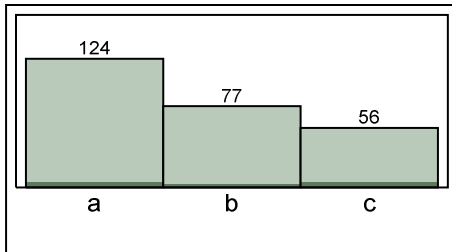
Frequencies

Level	Count	Prob
a. bilingual Japanese-native teachers	124	0.48249
b. bilingual English-native teachers	77	0.29961
c. monolingual English-native teachers	56	0.21790
Total	257	1.00000

N Missing 0   3 Levels