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ENGLISH SPEAKING ANXIETY: SOURCES, COPING MECHANISMS, AND TEACHER MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

This undertaking determined the anxieties of students towards spoken English - its sources, coping mechanisms and teacher management. Being qualitative, audio-recorded interview was utilized to gather data. Participants were thirteen teachers and students of speech classes in a state university located in the northern region of the Philippines. Data elicited were transcribed in verbatim, confirmed by the participants, coded and categorized, and themed accordingly. Triangulation through video-recorded observation of the teachers and focus-group discussion of the students' companions established stronger validity of the data. Findings confirmed teachers' and students' awareness of existence of English Speaking Anxiety (ESA). Both teacher and student participants concur that students' ESA mainly manifests in difficulty reciting competent ideas using English, hesitation to speak due to grammar and diction inaccuracies, and being perturbed by attention from the class. Sources of ESA progress from strong influence of students' first language at home, to limited use of English language at school, and personal conclusions that the language is impractical and unnecessary in their future professions. Students cope with the anxiety by either appreciating the language's relevance and applying it in all levels of communication or remaining unconcerned. Teachers reduce ESA phenomenon within the classroom by demonstrating strict correction and guidance, encouragements, translations, and eliminated criticisms. Conclusions

revolve on ASE serving both positive and negative influences to English speaking skills of students but contributing more debilitating effects; reduction of ESA through teachers' provision of more English speaking opportunities, students' initiative of personal training, introduction and practice of English at an earlier age, and the inevitability of ESA in the affective domain which encourages teachers to enforce psychological positivism.

Keywords

Language Anxiety, Speaking Anxiety, Second Language Learning, English as a Second Language

1. Introduction

In this modern age where English is dubbed as the international language and serves an avenue for professional growth, non-native English speakers tend to adapt the language for worldwide access. English takes a positive lead in scientific communication (Tardy, 2003), information technology (Amamio, 2000), and international affairs and communication (Anyadubalu, 2010). English also plays advantageous roles in specific purposes such as mathematics, science, politics, economics, technology, entertainment, sports, and other aspects of educational training (Anyadubalu, 2010). In language teaching, Hill and Miller (2013) claim that the automatic use of English in the classroom help to create or produce something new for students.

Given the above present conditions, the Philippines is among the many nations which regard English language as a powerful tool to international elevation, prompting its national educational units to incorporate English as a Medium of Instruction through Executive Order 210 Series of 2003: Establishing the Policy to Strengthen the Use of the English Language as a Medium of Instruction in the Educational System. Within 15 years of the conduct of this policy, international studies began divulging that students who adapt English as a second language experience language anxiety, specific to speaking. This anxiety nourishes feelings of incompetence, reluctance in communicating, depression, and threat (Burden, 2004, Oxford, 2005; Liu and Jackson, 2008). It also poses negative effects on students' grades (Onem, 2015), continuity of enrolment (Oxford, 2005), and progress or status as a second-language learner (Huang, 2014).

Language anxiety, as specifically associated with learning a second language, can arise from many kinds of sources, and a cause of poor language learning (Horwitz, 2001). Thus, was the formulation of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) which was employed by most relatable researches that followed. For instance, Ohata (2005), with the use of FLCAS,

found out that the language classroom naturally presents itself as an anxiety-causing situation to some language learners, as it involves constant and periodic evaluation of the learners' performance and competence. Students unable to understand questions and relay erroneous or unrelated answers deem themselves incompetent, thus thinking "everyone else seems to understand, except me." These learners tend to become less socially-oriented, less assertive, and more withdrawn or self-conscious than in other situations (Burden, 2004).

Language anxiety is experienced in the learning of the four macro-skills, among them: speaking. Studies exposed that speaking in English in the classroom causes anxiety among learners. This context relays detrimental effects towards the comfort of their communication skills and inhibits their progress in the fine use of the international language. Basic (2011) introduces speaking anxiety as a state that affects second language learning since it impedes students in improving their oral skills which is crucial when learning a new language. Speaking anxiety automatically affects students' grades since syllabuses demand oral proficiency and activities in classrooms often require oral communication. von Worde (2003) described feelings of having speaking anxiety as something that leads to frustration and even anger. Tianjan (2010) generalized that learners were liable to experience unhappiness, discontent and insecurity; those who fear communication in general are inclined to suffer from apprehension when speaking the second language.

Studies were also conducted to investigate the sources of speaking anxiety. Mak (2011) enumerated most of the factors leading to English speaking anxiety and specified applying grammatical rules learned in speaking English as a possible cause of why students become anxious when discoursing with native speakers. This meant that the focus of learning activities done in the classroom is on form rather than the overall meaning. If the language teacher only focuses on the grammatical structures or linguistic features in class, students will feel unmotivated to learn the target language.

Iverach et al. (2011) determined fear of negative self-evaluation as another source of English speaking anxiety. Park and Lee (2005) singled out criticism as one of the three main components of anxiety for Korean learners of English, aside from communication and examination. von Worde (2003) and Huimin (2008) include teachers as a source of the anxiety wherein students portray their language teachers as someone who "tries to make you feel stupid," "very intimidating," "apathetic," "condescending," "a very nasty person," "very stern and mean she almost scared me," and even "obnoxious." Generally, students reported instances where the

teacher had either humiliated them or made them feel very uncomfortable. Tsiplakides (2009) argues that teachers do not always identify anxious students, and often attribute their unwillingness to participate in speaking tasks to factors such as lack of motivation, or low performance. As to fear of failing, being corrected when speaking is among the important factors leading to speaking-in-class anxiety. Another high stressor in speaking in English is the fear of “losing face” in front of others (Huimin, 2008). A study by Liu and Chen (2013) adds to this result through an FLCAS supervision of 216 elementary students in Taiwan. Among the top five anxieties of the respondents, failing their English course surfaced as the most prevalent.

Based on these studies, it can be gleaned that second language anxiety has a debilitating effect on the oral performance of speakers of English as a second language (Gai and Yong, 2010; Woodrow, 2014). This is backed up by Sanaei et al. (2015) who discovered that classroom anxiety acts as obstacles in producing fluent and accurate speeches.

Giving dull attention to these cases may consent students the inability to manage communicative tools such as speaking, which, in turn, can devastate their self-confidence and also future studies or work (Basic, 2011). Researches were conducted to attempt to lessen English speaking anxiety by recommending certain classroom managements to be done by language teachers, among those emphasized is encouraging and supporting the students to express themselves in English (Mohamad and Wahid, 2010; Ohata, 2005).

To summarize, the previous discussions referred to the advantages of using English in the classroom, researches related to language anxiety, researches specifying speaking English as causes of anxiety, sources of these anxieties, and recommendations to address the problem. These researches, though, have yet to show (1) the experiences of students in the Philippine classroom on their English-speaking anxiety as to sources and coping mechanisms and (2) experiences of English teachers as to their awareness and management of English speaking anxiety among their students,

Limited readings are available on students’ coping mechanisms on English speaking anxiety. Researchers have provided ample recommendations for teachers and the management on students with speaking anxieties but have very few suggestions on how the students themselves can cope with the situation. Thus, future researches related to the problem is encouraged to focus on the side of students and their coping mechanisms. Furthermore, there is a recommendation to validate the effectiveness and commonality of the suggested coping mechanisms with students of other areas (Kondo and Ying-Ling, 2003).

Schools adapting English as the medium of instruction such as the Philippines should be studied to view perspectives of Filipino students experiencing English speaking anxiety. The study of Lucas et al. (2011) indeed focuses on English speaking anxiety in the Philippines but with foreigners, not Filipinos, as the respondents. It has been used as reference by foreign researchers on their related studies. An available research on language anxiety in the Philippines focuses on reading anxiety (Guimba & Alico, 2015), and public speaking (Del Villar, 2010); other researches are either limited to being proposed or are unpublished.

Conducting this study within the locale will not only add to the knowledge of English speaking anxiety in the Philippines but may also prove its relation to the lowering proficiency of English usage in the country. In 2016, the Philippines ranked fourth in the poll of top English speaking countries in the world with approximately 89 million English speakers, summing up 92% of the population (www.mapsoftheworld.com). This survey, though, does not reveal the English proficiency of these speakers. Local studies and surveys have monitored the slow impairment of English language mastery in the country. In 2006, a survey commissioned by Promoting English Proficiency (PEP) revealed the large deterioration in self-assessment of ability to speak in English from 53% to 32% since 2000. According to the results of the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) in 2008, Filipinos who were seeking overseas jobs as nurses or engineers scored lower than Malaysia (Wilson, 2009).

Furthermore, leading this research within the Philippine classroom will be in reference to the statements of Kim (2009) and Tran et al. (2013) that language anxiety might vary in different cultural groups or instructional contexts. Studies of this nature can also contribute insights into how English teachers can develop appropriate classroom interventions to decrease English speaking anxiety among students (Zheng, 2008).

1.1 Conceptual Framework

1.1.1 Anxiety, Language Anxiety, and Speaking Anxiety

Anxiety is a psychological state related to a subjective feeling to fear, tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry inherent in human beings. It can arise from many sources, among them, second language learning. Aptly termed as language anxiety, it is the fear or apprehension occurring when a learner is expected to perform in the second or foreign language (Daubney, 2005). Greatly supporting this is the Affective Filter Hypothesis from the Monitor Model of Second Language Acquisition by Stephen Krashen. In this hypothesis, there exist obstacles which hinder English language learners. Krashen's main viewpoints are (1) the affective

filter is responsible for individual variation in second language acquisition, and (2) a raised affective filter can block input from reaching language acquisition. Thus, he also believes that a low affective filter yields to better acquisition of a second language. This limitation is caused by affective variables, to name some, motivation, attitude, anxiety, self-confidence, and stress (Bilash, 2009).

1.1.2 Speaking Anxiety among Filipino Learners of English

Since 2003, the Executive Order 210 had been in play in the Philippine education. This order establishes the policy to use the English language as a medium of instruction from the first grade. This policy was reformed by the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) of the K-12 Curriculum since 2011 which only mandates English as the medium of instruction from grades 4 onwards. Despite the change, it is still evident that the Philippines strongly acknowledge the importance of English language, making the nation on top ranks in terms of number of English speakers in the world. Over the years, though, local surveys and studies publicize the deterioration of English proficiency in the country such as low performance in English proficiency tests for overseas professional employment (Macasinag, 2011, Hernandez, 2015, and Senobio, 2015). Studying in an English-medium educational system causes language anxiety for learners of a second language (Horwitz, 2001). This finding may be a contributor to the impairment of English language proficiency in the country, which was addressed by the present undertaking.

1.1.3 Sources of Speaking Anxiety

Related studies in other countries divulged the following as sources of speaking anxiety: consciousness of grammatical applications (Mak, 2011), fear of negative evaluation (von Worde, 2003; Iverach et al., 2011), teachers (Huimin, 2008), fear of failing and corrections (Mohammad and Wahid, 2010; Lucas et al., 2011). There exist language theories which may contribute to further exploration of these sources. Among them is Altercasing by Eugene Weinstein and Paul Deutschberger in 1963, and Language Expectancy Theory by Burgoon (Burgoon and Burgoon, 2001).

1.1.4 Coping Mechanisms of Students on English Speaking Anxiety

Studies which reported on students' coping mechanisms on speaking anxiety were Horwitz (2001) and Kondo and Ling-Ying (2003). Horwitz (2001) singled out personal study and soliciting help from others are the most prevalent tactics students apply. Kondo and Ling-Ying (2003), on the other hand cohered five strategy categories: Preparation, Relaxation, Positive

Thinking, Peer Seeking, and Resignation, from their Japanese student participants. Opposite to these findings are those of Williams and Andrade (2008) who disclosed that a majority of the respondents are convinced that they cannot do anything to counteract the situation and plainly give up. The present undertaking aimed to contribute knowledge on how students may be able to cope with speaking anxiety.

1.1.5 Teacher Management on Students with Speaking Anxiety

Researches attempted to lessen English speaking anxiety by recommending certain classroom managements through the affective domain: encouraging and supporting students to express themselves in English (Mohammad & Wahid, 2010; Ohata, 2005), creating a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom (Tianjan, 2010; Basic, 2011), designing lessons and activities with group evaluations (Huimin, 2008; Lucas et al., 2011), being consistent with rewards and positive reinforcements (Salehi and Marefat, 2014), and evaluating the students' affective domains (Pappamihel, 2001; Park and Lee, 2005). This undertaking reported how English teachers in the locale manage students with English speaking anxiety. It also compared and contrasted the findings to the previous studies.

1.2 Objectives

The research was guided by the following aims: (1) identify the English-speaking anxieties of students and its sources, (2) enumerate the coping mechanisms of the students regarding their anxieties in speaking English, and (3) explain how English teachers manage students with English-speaking anxieties.

2. Methodology

2.1 Research Design

This study on English speaking anxiety in the viewpoints of teachers and students utilized the basic interpretive qualitative research design. Merriam (2002) describes the researcher in this study as one who is interested in understanding how participants make meaning of a situation or phenomenon. It is set in a social constructivism perspective, its research problems become research questions, and sample sizes can be as small as one (Biddix, 2009).

Studies in the qualitative paradigm allow the researcher to pursue to explore meanings constructed by individuals with respect to their social world. There is no constant, agreed-upon reality in a qualitative research, instead, there are various interpretations rooting from an individual's personal status, viewpoint, and experience. Furthermore, it tends to expose the

“human part of a story.” Data are collected through interviews, focus group discussions, and observations or document analysis. In the end, qualitative researchers use words and/or pictures to convey findings, rather than measurements and statistics (Merriam, 2002). Utilizing this design allowed access to determine English teachers’ awareness of English speaking anxiety, students’ anxieties and coping mechanism of that problem in speaking the English language.

2.2 Population and Locale of the Study

A state university was the specified locale of the study. State universities and colleges are government schools housing students of multiple status, intelligence, and place of origin. It also offers speech classes which proffers an apt locale for the study. Two specific groups of participants were needed: (1) teachers who facilitate speech classes and (2) students enrolled in these speech classes. Purposive sampling was utilized to select participants, giving the researcher authority to decide on who the participants of the study will be. Flick (2009) instructed that chosen participants will have a particular feature within a selection criterion. Student participants have been enrolled in speech classes regardless of levels and courses they were in. The teacher participants will have been teaching English speech classes for a minimum of two semesters to ensure mastery of the lessons, and were selected regardless of age, gender, and employment status. Both teacher and student participants were not subjected to forced participation as they were willing to take part in the study. A minimal sample number as small as one is enough in qualitative studies to document and interpret more in-depth responses (Biddix, 2009; Ritchie et al., 2014). This present undertaking did not set a definite number of participants until data conferred its saturation point, which have been thirteen teacher and student participants.

2.3 Data Collection Instrument

Interview was the primary tool in gathering data. It is considered as one of the most familiar tools in qualitative research. It provides a way of garnering empirical data about the world by asking respondents to comment on a certain issue or phenomena. They are particularly useful in uncovering the story behind a participant’s experiences (Hostein & Gubrium, 2002). Through interviews, respondents may also share experiences in context and “the meanings they hold” (Hollway & Jefferson, 2005). For the purpose of the study, structured interview was conducted using interview questions firmly guided by the objectives of the study. To file interaction between the researcher and the participants, the use of audio-recording media was most appropriate.

2.4 Data Collection Procedure

Communication letters were furnished and sent to the dean/s of the college/s where the participants belonged. Included in the letter is the objective of the research, a short description of the procedure, and the assurance of the respondents' privacy. After gaining permission, individual communication letters were distributed to the respondents with the attachment of the dean's approval. The chosen respondent may accept or reject the offer to be a part of the study. A written consent form was signed by the respondent upon his/her approval. In cases of disapproval, the researcher proceeded to other willing participants. The researcher set with participants a mutually comfortable time in order to minimize distractions which may contribute to invalid data. An audio-recording device and the questionnaire were the tools used by the researcher. The researcher first interviewed all teacher participants whereas student participants were interviewed thereafter. Data gathering commenced when responses reached its saturation point. After data gathering was the transcription of the recorded interviews. Transcripts are tools that help qualitative researchers make sense of and understand interviewees' experiences and perceptions (McLellan et al., 2003). The researcher returned to each participant to provide individual copies of the transcription for checking and validation of information they provided. The participants' signatures were affixed on every page to establish approval of their answers. With cases of inconsistency between the transcription and the recorded audio, the participant writes the correction and signs beside it. When the transcribed data was approved by the respondents, coding and theme-categorizing proceeded. These processes then led to the conclusion of the research. The researcher applied triangulation to ensure that data gathered and analyzed were valid. Triangulation is also known as the "mixed methods," whereas it allows a combination of different methodologies for a stronger establishment of conclusions (Olsen, 2004). A focused group discussion took place with persons related to both the teacher and student participants. Respondents included the student participants' peers and the teacher participants' superior. Another method of validation was processed when the researcher observed and video-recorded a live classroom interaction in both teacher-and-student-participants' speech class. Having done all that is mentioned beforehand, the researcher asserted the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

2.5 Treatment of Data

The audio-recorded interviews were transcribed. Transcriptions of the teachers were separated from the transcriptions of the students. Data gathered from the participants were coded, categorized into themes, interpreted, and gained conclusions from (Adams et al., 2007; Hoyos and

Barnes, 2012). The first problem of the study yielded 173 significant statements which was originally coded and categorized into 8, and finally themed into three. The second problem posed 163 significant statements, coded and categorized into 11, and finally themed into three. There were 86 significant statements for the third problem, coded and categorized into six, and themed into three. The fourth problem was provided with 94 significant statements, coded and categorized into 9, and themed into five. Sample of the coding of is presented in the repertoire grids on Appendix P for teacher participants, and Appendix Q for student participants.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Speaking Anxieties of Students as Perceived by English Teachers

3.1.1 No Brain and Mouth Coordination

Teachers refer to having “No Brain and Mouth coordination” when students have adequate idea to address a question but are inhibited by distorted pronunciation, grammatical errors, and limited English vocabulary. The brain is the central organ of the nervous system and thus, is responsible for motor coordination. Although an anatomically presented process, for students who suffer from this anxiety, it may seem to them their brains do not coordinate well with their speech. Teachers observe this anxiety manifested through code switching and code mixing, stammering, inevitable fillers, pauses, stops, and asking permission to speak in the native language. A considerable number of the teacher participants notice their students being “afraid to talk because ‘I don’t know the English term!’” and that some of their students will “stand there but cannot talk at all” or “they cannot finish during speeches.”

Code mixing and code switching are language behaviours inherent among bilinguals, which does not exempt Filipinos. Heredia and Altarriba (2001) explains that code switching is a plausible strategy to be better understood, that is, some ideas are better communicated in one language than another where usually, the first language surfaces more often during the process of speaking. Ludwig Wittgenstein and John Langshaw Austin founded the Speech Act Theory, a concept closely related to this language anxiety theme. The Speech Act conveys that speech is not just used to designate something, but rather ‘does’ something that expresses intention (Sbisa, 2007). On the other hand, stammering, pauses and stops, and usage of fillers are non-cooperative behaviours caused by panic (Burden, 2004, Abdullah, et al., 2010, Gai and Yong, 2011). Stammering is an involuntary disruption of a person’s capacity to speak and is more likely manifested by people who are chronically and socially anxious (Craig and Tran, 2005). Filler

words, according to Duval, et al. (2014), are any words or sounds that interject the process of speaking. Words such as like, “um”, “uhh”, or “ya know”, as well as repetitions, are among examples of filler words (Goldwater, et al., 2010).

3.1.2 Center of Attention

This is a theme that generalizes scrutiny of teachers when students become the center of the class’ attention. The figurative term ‘center of attention’ is a person or thing that attracts everyone’s interest or excitement. This occurs during graded recitations, impromptu speeches, and individual reporting evidenced by the students’ nervousness, hesitations to speak immediately when called, unwillingness to volunteer in speaking, and becoming emotional. In a recitation period where teachers inquire the class for a post-lesson, they admit to being shown “fear that they [student] don’t want to recite” and tend to be asked to repeat or clarify the question so as to buy more time for thinking. Eventually, the teachers will be confessed with “I don’t know” as an answer or will hear the students “ask their classmates, ‘Please help me with this.’” In worse cases, the teachers would encounter students who would “end up crying in class” credited to the inability to speak up in front of many. Respondents undergoing this anxiety may be unaware that they are suffering from ‘glossophobia’, which is the fear of public speaking. Glossophobia has been derived from the Greek word *glossa-* meaning tongue, and *-phobos*, fear. A glossophobic person is unable to control the overwhelming nervousness and tends to completely avoid such public speaking scenarios. The fear is not necessarily limited to bigger stage experiences, but may happen in a small classroom or even in front of a smaller group of people (Maharjan, 2017).

3.1.3 Acting Out Loud

This is the final anxiety where teachers perceive a scene when their students are unable to express themselves and pivots non-verbal gestures as the alternative to communicate. The cliché ‘speaking out loud’ is commonly used as catch phrases in language schools, but the action verb ‘acting’ was substituted in the phrase in order to emphasize how a student participant expresses ideas more intensely through actions he is not able to verbalize. This becomes overt on their display of facial expressions and other various non-verbal gestures recognized by laughing, avoidance of eye contact with the teacher, making faces, snapping of fingers, and apparent uneasiness. Teachers describe students exhibiting this anxiety to “have a lot of unnecessary mannerisms” which includes some who would “stare at the ceiling or on the floor or the walls of the classroom; brush their hair, make sounds like ‘tsk’, shake their hands, bow their heads, and simply sit down.” Mannerisms are unconscious body movements which generally carry negative connotations and are often deemed

as distracting. The study of William and Andrade (2009) identified smiling, laughing, and sounding and looking childish to be the most evident reactions the teacher participants perceive from their students.

3.2 Sources of Speaking Anxieties as Perceived by English Teachers

3.2.1 It Began at Home

Children acquire language through interaction with their parents and all other children, surrounded by conversation. It is easy for a child to acquire two or more languages at the same time, as long as they are regularly interacting with speakers of those languages (Birner, 2012). “It Began at Home” applies to the period of parenting where students’ first languages are acquired and regional accents are adapted. As a cause of speaking anxiety, one of the participants shared how a student voiced out, “We don’t usually use English inside the house. So we only get to use English in the campus because we’re using most of the time is our vernacular language. It was never our first language.” In contrast, other participants acknowledge nationality as a cause of the phenomenon, with a hint that “we are not native speakers in English language.” First Language (L1) acquisition studies infants’ adaptation of their native language or mother tongue, which is imprinted on them through the environment they are reared. Theories regarding first language acquisition abound in which the most popular are those proposed by B. F. Skinner and Noam Chomsky. In 1957, Skinner pioneered the argument that children learn language based on behaviorist reinforcement. Chomsky, on the other hand, heavily criticized the previous proposition and instead raised the issue that children have inherent ability to learn any human language (Lemetyinen, 2012).

3.2.2 It Continued in School

The phase where the students’ earlier education takes toll, this theme encompasses fewer opportunities to apply spoken English. Attributed to their being college teachers, some of the participants ascribe lack of training in the primary and high school education as sources of the anxiety, gleaned from their propositions, “Previous school was a factor,” “I really blame the elementary teachers,” and “They were not taught to think well when they were in the earlier levels of education.” A number of the participants also acknowledged that the teacher themselves and their expectations are first hand contributors to English speaking anxiety, relaying that “They’re [students] conscious of what I’m going to say as a teacher” or that the students are “pressured” to have been “required to answer in longer sentences [and] feels he or she is required to give more vocabulary to use or longer sentences to state.” These statements can be validated from the video-

recorded classroom observation which shows the teacher asking follow-up questions to a reporter who, in turn, could not provide well-versed answers in English. According to Chen and Wu (2008), foreign language anxiety in primary schools is a significant issue which should not be ignored. One might assume that young children may not experience language anxiety the same way adults do. Bekleyen (2010) challenged that assumption on his study on primary students who were already learning English, and ascertained that the participants were already experiencing similar anxieties at those early stages. In the Philippines, Executive Order 210 mandates English to be taught starting on the first grade since 2004. Although altered by the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) of the K-12 Curriculum since 2011, English is still the medium of instruction from grades 4 onwards.

3.2.3 It's Not for me at All

This is characterized by the teachers as student introversion, misconception on speaking English, scarce motivation to improve oneself, environment, and their view of English to be less interesting and impractical to their fields of specialization. The participants collate that students may have the tendency to suspect that “if you’re not smart, you cannot use English” and thus, may proceed to less motivation and poor personal training; to quote, “They do not like to read; they talk among their peers in their dialect,” and “when they text, it’s always the Filipino or Ilocano.” Supporting this is an assertion of the media as an influence to the case in which “they [media] have to make the language something that is understood; everything is *tagalized* (translated in *Tagalog*).” These may have delegated their students in committing grammatical errors and mispronunciations in speaking in English. As to practicality, a teacher participant associated with a computer-specialized college shared that “Information Technology students are actually more on application” which does not mobilize them to harness their English-speaking skills. This is backed up by another participant who recognizes that students may be more inclined in other macro-skills after encountering one who was “more of a very good writer.” Liu and Chen (2013) elicited that learning attitude and adequate is shown to have a relatively strong and significant association with language anxiety, which is supported by Cummin’s Interdependence Hypothesis that adequate motivation is needed to efficiently acquire a second language. Learners of a second language may be well motivated if they are cognizant of the reason why they need to study a language which they were not reared with (Bekleyen, 2010).

3.3 Speaking Anxieties of Students as Perceived by Themselves

3.3.1 The Common Feeling

This summarizes students' anxiety motivated by nervousness which results in mental block, increased heart rate, trembling, sweating, hesitance to speak, stage fright, and avoidance of eye contact with their teachers. Nervousness is a body reaction which is inevitable. Li and Stamatakis (2011) explained that when people feel stressed, their sympathetic nervous system typically revs up, releasing energy and preparing the body for action. The amygdala, also known as the fear center of the brain, becomes hyperactive during a panic attack. A participant described speaking in English as something 'nerve-wrecking', précising, "my hands will really, I'm gonna...like shaking. And they would really be so cold and then would like there's like butterflies in my stomach, like that." Another relayed, "I fear that when I start speaking in English that I got a fewer ideas. I got mental block then I'm gonna be choked like, silence, like that. If I'm reporting something and I got distracted then the flow of my report will be done." It has also been a norm to one of the participants to react uneasily when asked to speak in English, wherein she would normally proclaim to herself, "Oh my God! We need to speak in English!" Comparable to the triangulation with five participants' classmates, they observe certain gestures that the participants project whenever they speak in English. These are hand movements and shaking, looking at the sides, laughing in between speaking, displaying facial expressions of frustration, and scratching of the neck or head. In the video observation of one of the participants while reporting, it was observed that she spent most of the time looking at her report guide than the audience. There is also evidence of lack of fluency while speaking the language such as code switching. Similar studies do not line far from the responses elicited from these respondents. Faster heartbeat and perspiration are among other physical reactions amid speaking, while emotional reactions were having the mind go blank, inability to concentrate, remaining silent and not responding quickly (Williams and Andrade, 2009, and Liu and Huang, 2011). Nervousness is defined as a state of being tensed, stressed, and worried, and is inherent to every human being. With regard 'mental block' as inhibition to fluent English speaking, it was found out that nervousness had the consequences of decreasing memory for the speech (Jones, et al., 2011).

3.3.2 The Incompetent Me

This theme is marked by students' anxiety represented by the inability to speak fluent English due to distorted speaking and grammatical errors. Incompetence is defined as the inability to do something successfully (www.dictionary.com). The participants rounded stuttering,

mispronunciation, lack of vocabulary, and errors in verb tenses and sentence structuring as ingredients to this anxiety. A participant feels “frustrated in terms of having wrong grammar,” while another would keep asking himself, “What if I slipped? What if I would say or answer in a wrong grammar?” While others concede to limited translation skills, describing that “sometimes I get nervous because there are some things that I don’t know what to say. Like some words in Filipino – I think of Filipino words and I can’t quite translate it to English” and “I cannot seem to find the right words or how to put those words together to express what I really want to say.” Several studies correspond to this theme. Gai and Yong (2010) identified “attention to intonation and pronunciation” as among the three pillars of anxiety to students in terms of speaking the international language. Comparably, Liu’s (2006) objective to point the causes of Chinese students’ anxiety in oral English lessons was attained on listing limited vocabulary, low English proficiency, and inadequate grammatical knowledge. Hashemi (2011) also concluded in his study of language stress that the anxiety is a result of insufficient command of the target language.

3.3.3 The Limelight

This becomes an anxiety in speaking which encloses consciousness to an audience. In a theatrical setting, a limelight is a stage lighting instrument producing illumination to a specific actor. This paves a sensationalized focus to the actor most especially during a dramatic monologue and becomes inevitable to criticism. To a student influenced by speaking anxiety, an English speech class transforms into a theatre when he becomes the target of a figurative limelight. This entails fear to be criticized or laughed at, apprehensions with the person talking to, and embarrassment when corrected by the teacher. When pinpointed as the center of attraction during speaking activities, a participant admitted, “I cannot express myself in front of the crowd [if it is in English].” Often, the inability to impress the audience becomes a struggle as one related, “they [classmates] murmur, they will laugh within themselves, they laugh and they think something and they insult within their mind in using non-verbal means...they are calling anyone to laugh with them,” and another added, “I’m not that fluent so sometimes they [classmates] laugh.” In addition, a number of participants concur that their anxiety takes effect depending on the person they converse English with, or when they are joined in a class of English-fluent people. One divulged that while speaking in front of an English major or a teacher who is well-versed in English, she would unintentionally panic and think, “Oh my gosh! I should watch out about my grammar or the words that I say because she or he is like an expert in that area!” The studies of Burden (2004), Huimin (2008), and Abdullah, et al. (2010) yielded parallel discoveries when student participants

of their studies disclosed that their level of anxiety escalates with the thought of other students being better or more adept in the language than them. Students use classmates as points of comparison and their perceived failure is attributed to the belief that they have less language proficiency than their peers. Ohata (2005) termed this specific anxiety as “the fear of losing ‘face.’” This is particularly experienced by students when their knowledge and performance in English utterances, grammar use and other communication means concerned were to be monitored by people around them.

3.4 Sources of Speaking Anxieties as Perceived by Students

3.4.1 It Comes from Within

This synthesizes intrinsic sources of speaking anxiety. Inclusive of this are the uncertainties to speak in English due to possible grammatical errors and mispronunciations, and meager interest. Participants are aware of their insufficient fluency in speaking in English, thus with their statements, “I do not know about the pronunciation,” and “I think I just forget the rules. Sometimes I forgot how to use the rules of verbs so I commit mistakes.” Motivation is the heap under this theme as almost all of the participants honestly stated their treatment of the English language. A few of the many expressions are, “Sometimes in our subject I sleep...I don’t listen,” “I really hate adverbs and prepositions,” and “English language was hard for me.” Factors that curb the students’ interest in practicing spoken English would also be their inclination to other language macro-skills and majors, thus their assertions, “Math *lang po interesado ako* (I’m only interested in Math),” “I’m more on reading,” and “I like Science better than English when I was younger.” Congruent to this finding, the studies of Hashemi (2011) and Tran et al. (2013) presented intrinsic factor as the most identified cause of language anxiety among his student participants. Included in the intrinsic factors are learning ability, attitudes to learning the English language, prior negative EFL learning experiences, and other psychological factors.

3.4.2 It Wasn’t Nursed Well

It compounds the amount of training received by the student both at home and school. According to the participants, their first language is a benefactor to the constraints on being well-versed in spoken English, proven by some of their quotes, “The language that was taught to me was Filipino and Iloco,” and “I was comfortable with speaking my own language, or my native language.” Appending the inevitable case of growing up with a first language, the participants also singled out under-training of speaking both in and out of school: “I have no other field where I can speak English,” and “Most of my subject were in Filipino language, not English.” Within the

school, teachers became the attention of anxiety source, as enumerated, “My teacher when I was in elementary gave me a failing grade in English...because when I’m going to recite, I cannot express my ideas in class in English,” and “Teachers do not use English words that are easily understood.” A significant number of the participants also agree that school activities “are not enough” to master the English language. In similar light, related researches agree that many students often complain that they are not given enough chances to practice spoken English, and that opportunities to practice their foreign language skills take place only in the classroom (Gai and Yong, 2010, and Liu and Chen, 2013). Additionally, the responses are parallel with the Interdependence Hypothesis pioneered by Cummins which states that proficiency in second language learning will occur, provided that there is adequate exposure to that ‘other’ language either in the school or environment (Hashemi, 2011).

3.4.3 They’re looking for Errors

This gathers the participants’ anxieties while speaking in English to an audience, their expectations of the participants’ enrolled course, and awareness that the person they’re conversing with is inclined in the language. Concerns on being corrected or ridiculed have been recorded, such as, “I know that the interviewer is good in English” and “Knowing that everyone is better than me or as good as me would make me believe that I’m not that good enough to speak in English language.” A participant who experienced conversing in English with foreigners observed that grammar may be provided deficit attention but “Filipinos are really good in looking for mistakes.” Student participants majoring in English undergo an elevated level of anxiety attributable to expectations. One AB-English participant conveyed, “They know that I am an English language student so they call me every time they see me...to speak a little bit about the occasion.” In the language theory of Altercasing by proponents Weinstein and Deutschberger (1963), as cited by Lacap (2010), situations of this sort identify with Manded Altercasing in which the audience remind the participants of their major as reinforcement to their expectations of them having higher proficiency in English than anyone else in the present crowd. Anxiety takes effect on the English major participants as they are ‘forced’ to accept a role mandated to them despite not having adequate mastery in speaking the language. Fear of being negatively evaluated might become a positive predictor of performance in English (Liu and Huang, 2011). Additionally, the manner of error correction is often cited as a contributor to anxiety. The study of Lucas, et al. (2011) concluded that students are more concerned about how their mistakes are corrected rather than whether error correction should be administered in class.

3.5 Coping Mechanisms of Students on Speaking Anxiety

3.5.1 Acceptance

This clusters consenting of teachers' feedbacks and encouragements with regard refining spoken English. The term is described as the action of consenting to receive or undertake something offered (www.dictionary.com, 2017). Participants expounded awareness of limitations in spoken English and specified feelings of happiness and gratefulness upon reception of the teacher's corrections. "I get feedbacks positively and I don't think of it negative," explains one participant. "I'm happy because my errors are what makes me grow," another recounted. Bound by their roles as learners in the educational landscape, the students do what are instructed by their mentors and gave details of activities they perform in their English classes. Some of these are "speech, role playing...writing essays and then reading it in front of the class" and being obliged to the EOP, specifically stating, "We are forced to speak in English even if it's not reporting." Student participants who welcome teachers' corrections may be among whom Andrade and Williams (2009) describe to be those who come to the classroom mentally prepared to experience some type of anxiety. This expectation may explain to some degree why the majority of students do not feel intense, persistent, hindering anxiety that affects a small minority.

3.5.2 Application

It delineates the students' self-remediation when realizing an error in his speaking, which entails intrinsic correction, focus, positivity, and out-of-school activities. Dictionary.com (2017) specifies application as the action of putting something into operation. Students who experience anxiety when singled out by the teacher during a speaking activity have their means to counter the situation. Their testimonies are as transcribed: "Before I recite...I try to edit my sentences first," "I just smile...to boost my confidence," and "I just get to pause and gather my self-confidence again." One also applies a tip to maintain concentration, "I usually hold my fingers...to think deeply...according to research, if you're trying to massage the tip part of your fingers, you can think deeply." When recognizing an error while speaking, the participants also apply self-correction before the teacher does, "If I think the word in my sentence is wrong, I immediately change it before I finish." Most of the participants accede to personal training to supplement learning in school, such as conversing and "mingling" with foreigners, reading books to widen vocabulary, watching foreign movies with subtitles, consulting the internet for online tests and proper pronunciation, and chatting and video-calling with relatives using the target language. These responses confer that the manner of students' treatment to language anxiety plays a larger

role improving their spoken English. Comparably, Gai and Yong (2010) reported that students' personal efforts could greatly improve spoken English level, which can be greatly caused by intrinsic motivation. Usually referred to as 'Facilitative Anxiety', this has been credited as the cause for learners to study harder and make stronger efforts to perform better on classroom tasks. While confronting this anxiety, students who are really concerned about learning were more likely to benefit from the situation, which are opposite to those who are not. However, there are disagreements as to whether this emotional state can really be identified as anxiety or simply arousal and that there are far more debilitating than beneficial effects identified (Tran, et al., 2013).

3.5.3 Apathy

Given meaning as lack of interest, enthusiasm, or concern (www.dictionary.com, 2017), this best defines the number of participants who demonstrate indifference towards negative reactions. This is due to confidence that they themselves still perform better than the critics despite the flaws in their speaking. "Even if they keep saying I'm dumb...well I just don't care," a participant verbalized, complemented by another, "It doesn't hinder me; I still continue in speaking and my body language is telling them, 'I'm better than you.'" Oya, et al.'s (2004) study reported that students who would less likely feel anxious about their errors have positive chances of high proficiency in the language. In a similar light, interviewees in the triangulation process validated that the participants whose statements were quoted earlier were confident in speaking in English. Supportive of this are their statements, "He is think fast and he *use* words which most of us do not know...because [he] is always speaking English outside the classroom, when going home..." and "I never heard the teacher correct him when he is speaking in English."

3.6 Teacher Management on Students' Speaking Anxiety

3.6.1 The Compass

Teachers demonstrate this role when giving feedbacks, whether immediate or delayed correction, during speaking activities such as recitations, readings, and reporting as source of their evaluation or class standing. A compass is an instrument which is read to point to the four directions. Before the bloom of technology, compasses serve a very significant tool for travellers (www.dictionary.com). In a figurative light, forms of guiding the students are ushered through repetitions, time-allowance, and classmate support. Delayed corrections are conducted through the following: "I finish their sentences [and] tell them what's wrong with their sentences," and "They have to finish speaking first and slowly take the opportunity to correct the mispronounced word." Teachers as well "wait and give time" during speaking activities to provide more chances of the

student to speak, while others would prefer to “call on another student” if time is limited. Studies argue that teachers’ inappropriate attitudes play an important role in causing students discomfort in speaking. Among these inappropriate attitudes is the incorrect belief that instructors should always correct students (Huimin, 2008, and Liu and Chen, 2011). Brown (2000) and Ellis (2001) argued that human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making of mistakes and they occur because the learner is unaware of what is correct.

3.6.2 The Cheerleader

This role takes place when teachers appeal to the students’ affective domain by ways of encouragements, establishment of rapport, and demonstration of personal interest and concern. In a literal sense, a cheerleader is often observed in pep rallies and sports events, taking a side between competing teams and leading the spectators to encourage the chosen team (www.dictionary.com, 2017). Unlike The Compass, this role is not observed in graded speaking activities where corrections are imposed, but rather occur randomly throughout the class hours. Teachers act this role as they enumerate tips for calibrating students’ spoken English skills, such as telling them to “be friends with their dictionaries” and that the “best way to learn the target language is to never think of any other language.” Personal interest is exhibited when the teachers “allow them [students] to just feel the way they feel and not demand them anymore.” One also expressed, “I show them that I do listen to them” as another balances strictness and leniency by informing the class, “I don’t expect you to be perfect.”

3.6.3 The Referee

This role appears to reduce pressure inside the classroom through audience control and provision of anxiety-reducing activities. The term is described as someone who settles or arbitrates an argument (www.dictionary.com, 2017). To reduce speaking anxiety, the teachers represent various techniques such as reviewing of basic rules, practice of oral activities, provision on interactive activities, enhancement of vocabulary, and demonstration of side-lessons as a form of error correction. The teachers would “use more of the communicative approach,” “let them speak one vocabulary everyday” and give “outcomes-based performance test and exposure.” Half of the teacher respondents claim to use the Communicative Approach in speaking classes, which Huimin (2008) strongly recommended after using the approach for a semester and gleaned positive results such as increased confidence, lessened inhibitions from the audience, and enjoyment of a non-competitive atmosphere. The Communicative Approach theorizes that language learning is attained with the involvement of authentic communication.

3.6.4 The English Nazi

This induces force to implement the EOP throughout the class hour. This means that students “are not allowed to speak in *Tagalog* or their native tongue” in all forms of spoken communication happening inside the classroom. Historically, a Nazi was a member of the Adolf Hitler’s Aryan Supremacy during the World War II. In the recent times, a Nazi is referred to a person who inflicts strict application of a specific guideline (www.dictionary.com, 2017). A participant also added, “When I see that they’re [students] talking in *Tagalog*, I ‘Just a moment, you forgot your English language’ and then they shift.” The teachers who impose EOP are guided by the principle that the students are “enrolled in the English language” and that it is “only at an hour that they could practice English,” thus, coercing the students to speak the language. Gai and Yong (2010) assert that forcing students to speak English in class enhances motivation. They believe that college students have learned enough English words to express their ideas, so the English teacher can demand students to speak English in class whether when they ask questions or when they answer questions.

3.6.5 The Polyglot

This is generated when teachers provide allowance to use the vernacular language when there is no other means for the student to express himself. The term polyglot originated from the Latin words *poly-*, many, and *-glossa*, language. It refers to people who are able to speak, read, or write more than a couple of languages (www.dictionary.com, 2017). They let them [students] “speak eventually in the vernacular if they cannot speak in English anymore” and “speak in ‘Carabao English’ or *Tagalog*” although some of the participants would still require their students to translate the vernacular into English after the answer has been stated. Similarly, the studies of Liao (2006) and Kavaliauskiene (2009) observed that translation is widely used in learners’ foreign language learning process. Translation is sometimes referred to as the fifth language skill alongside the four basic skills. It was argued that learners often use translation as a learning strategy to comprehend, remember, and produce a foreign language, and that the learners customarily rely on their mother tongue in learning English.

4. Summary of Results

The first problem inquires on what the speaking anxieties of the students are and the sources of these anxieties, according to teachers.

The speaking anxieties of students according to teachers, are:

- a. No Brain and Mouth Coordination: students abound in ideas but are unable to express them in English. The anxiety is evidenced by speaking inhibitions such as code switching and code mixing, stammering, fillers, pauses and stops, and inadequate English vocabulary.
- b. The Center of Attention: students are afraid to speak in English in the class alone. The anxiety is manifested psychologically, such as nervousness, hesitations, unwillingness to volunteer, and becoming emotional.
- c. Acting Out Loud: students exhibit mannerisms and unusual non-verbal gestures as an alternative to spoken English communication. The anxiety is overt on staring at anything but the teacher, making faces, nervous laughter, finger-snapping, and apparent uneasiness.

The sources of these anxieties are:

- a. It Began at Home: parenting styles, first language acquisition, and being in the inevitable state of being non-native speakers of the target language.
- b. It Continued in School: this applies to previous education such as in primary and high school, wherein the students were not trained well. The teachers themselves were also acknowledged as a factor to the anxiety.
- c. It's Not for me at All: this is noted by internal motivation, misconceptions on spoken English fluency, lack of personal training in the target language, and impracticality to the students' interest or major. The media was also pinpointed in this aspect.

The second problem asks on what the English speaking anxieties of students are, and its sources as perceived by themselves. The speaking anxieties of students according to themselves, are:

- a. The Common Feeling: this is 'nervousness' per se, a psychological influence, which results in mental block, increased heart rate, trembling, sweating, hesitation to speak, stage fright, and avoidance of eye contact with teachers.
- b. The Incompetent Me: this is the inability to speak fluent English credited to distorted speaking and grammatical errors. This anxiety is specific on spoken English inhibitions such as stuttering, mispronunciation, limited vocabulary, and verb tenses and sentence structuring errors.
- c. The Limelight: this refers to consciousness to an audience while speaking in English, especially when conversing with persons who are more fluent and proficient in spoken English. This anxiety is mainly caused by fear of embarrassment and corrections.

The sources of these anxieties are:

- a. It comes from Within: this synthesizes intrinsic sources of spoken English anxiety such as doubts on correct grammar and pronunciation, and lack of motivation due to interest and/or major.
- b. It wasn't Nursed Well: this compounds the insufficient training the students received, more specific to growing with the first language, and lack of opportunities to speak the language. Teachers were also highlighted to be a contributor to spoken English Anxiety.
- c. They're Looking for Errors: this refers to students' consciousness to an audience, which escalates if the audience is more adept to the English language. Another source of the anxiety is the audience's awareness that the students are English majors, and thus expect highly of them.

The third problem requires answers on what the students' coping mechanisms are with regard spoken English anxiety. The participants divulged the following coping mechanisms which were categorized into three:

- a. Acceptance: when the student gratefully consents to corrections of the teacher with regard an error in spoken English, and does classroom activities that the teacher instructed to do.
- b. Application: when the student uses previous learning to correct himself upon committing errors in spoken English, and performs initiative to further his spoken English proficiency outside the classroom.
- c. Apathy: when the student is uninterested with error correction coming from less proficient English speakers, with the confidence that they are more skilled in the language than the ones giving the feedback.

The fourth problem queries on how teachers manage their students' spoken English anxiety. The teachers' managements were themed into the following:

- a. The Compass: teachers guide their students through error correction, time-allowance, and support solicitation from classmates.
- b. The Cheerleader: teachers appeal to the students' affective domain by encouragements, establishment of rapport, and demonstration of personal interest and concern.
- c. The Referee: teachers control the audience and prevents them from bullying and making unnecessary comments to a student speaking in English, and manages side lessons from the errors committed by the student.

- d. The Polyglot: teachers allow translation and minor use of the vernacular language within the classroom to aid understanding. This also paves way for students to express their ideas clearly.
- e. The English Nazi: teachers practice the English-Only Policy (EOP) to force their students to speak in English at all times inside the class.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

1. Speaking anxiety influences motivation for students to practice English but generally has more debilitating effects on the English communication skills of students.
2. Speaking anxiety can be reduced (1) when teachers provide more opportunities, preferably practical situations, for students to practice spoken English, and (2) when students apply personal training in speaking in English to assist classroom learning.
3. Speaking anxiety can be reduced when children are introduced to the language at an early age.
4. Speaking anxiety is inevitable. It is emphasized in the affective domain and requires psychological effort. Proficiency in speaking the language can be attained with increased self-confidence, motivation, and coupled with training. Thus, English teachers need to moderate treatment of students' errors in speaking in English, establish a friendly classroom interaction and provide activities which require the students to speak in the language more often.

To add knowledge on the nature of this study, interested researchers may consider the following recommendations:

1. Experiment on activities that may reduce anxiety in speaking in English.
2. Consider involving a psychologist to aid in gaining better results and recommendation for teachers and students, aside from present published literature related to the topic.
3. Since the present study has been conducted among tertiary students, it is also encouraged to conduct the study among high school and primary students as there may be differences in the levels of anxiety according to age and academic levels.

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