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Investigating foreign language anxiety (FLA) through nonverbal cues: an analysis of performance and behavior in a speaking exam

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Abstract

Described as one of the best predictors of L2 achievement Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) is a complex affective factor that has been well documented in EFL literature, yet the methods employed to investigate the phenomena have been largely constrained to surveys and traditional qualitative methods, such as diaries and interviews leaving gaps in our understanding of how it manifests itself in the student's nonverbal behavior in real time. In addition to investigating FLA in relation to performance, this study is the first to analyze nonverbal behavior in an Asian context by adapting methods first introduced by Gregersen (2005). Though findings show a negative relationship using Spearman's correlation (ρ = -.8, p<0.05, N=8) in comparing the FLA to speaking exam scores, this study was unable to demonstrate results consistent with Gregersen's (2005) findings. The implications of this study draw attention to the role pedagogy in design and delivery of speaking exams.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my aunt, Barbra Wallace, who passed away during the course of my MA studies after a courageous battle with cancer. Ever since my youth, she was a constant source of encouragement and always pushed me to excel academically.

List of Acronyms

EFL – English as Foreign Language

FLA – Foreign Language Anxiety

FLCAS – Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

LCDH – Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis

OECD - Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

PEC 1 – Practical English Communication 1[1]

TOEIC – Test of English for International Communication

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[1] PEC 1 is a required freshman EFL course offered through the university where this study took place.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale for this study

The seminal work of Gardner & Lambert (1959, 1972) theorized that successful language learning is attributed to social psychological factors in the form of the integrative orientation - the desire to interact with and even become members of a target language community; and/or the instrumental orientation - learning a second or foreign language to achieve an objective. Their findings suggest students who gravitate to the integrative orientation tend to enjoy greater degrees of language learning success. Though nearly four decades old, the integrative/instrumental conceptual framework remains a theoretical foundation in EFL literature and can help understand the sociolinguistics of English and its place in the Korean education system.

Best characterized as an outer circle country in Kachru's (2006) concentric circles model, the majority of the Korean population have few opportunities to use English outside the language classroom, though proven English proficiency remains a valuable asset almost all walks of life (Choi, 2008). Beginning in middle school, proven English proficiency is often a critical factor in admission to a prestigious high school. The process again repeats itself when students compete for admission to prestigious universities, and ultimately for many prestigious jobs in both the public and private sector following graduation (Park, 2010). Knowing what is at stake, many students strive for perfection devoting countless hours to study memorizing complex grammar and vocabulary in preparation for multiple-choice exams that tend to concentrate mainly on receptive skills: i.e. reading and listening (Park, 2009; Cho, 2013).

Students who learn English under these conditions often experience what Scovel (1978) describes as "feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry" (p.134). Results from studies in other contexts have demonstrated that such feelings are often heightened when students are tasked to speak L2 (Young, 1990; Aida, 1994; Cheng et al., 1999; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Liu & Jackson, 2008; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; MacIntrye et al., 1997; and Hewitt & Stephensen, 2011). In early 2015, it was

reported that a man "committed suicide due to acute depression over his inability to learn English" (Chosun Ilbo, 2015). Though explicit in its motive, Korea has consistently ranked in the top countries for suicide rates per capita among all Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), an unsettling number of whom are students have directly cited the societal pressures for scholastic achievement as the cause of their anguish (Lee, F., 2011; Lee, J., 2011; Lee & Lamers, 2013; Jeon, 2016). While no empirical studies have directly linked to suicide to difficulties in language learning, there has been a substantial body of theoretical literature on the topic of anxiety in learning a second or foreign language, commonly referred to what Horwitz et al. (1986) call foreign language anxiety (FLA).

FLA is one of the best predictors of language learning success (Krashen, 1981), and in the words of Ellis (2008), can constitute "a physiological and automatic response to external events [that] manifests itself in particular in a reluctance to communicate in the L2" (p.691). Thanks in large part to the work of Horwitz et al. (1986), FLA received much attention in scholarly literature throughout the 1980s and 1990s, yet there remains little consensus whether it is the cause or result of language learning performance. Sparks & Ganschow (2007), for instance, posit that individual differences in language learning stem from language aptitude "warning that any hypothesis that views affective variables as causal factors in learning a [foreign language] must be approached with caution" (p.251). More recently, the work of Srivastava et al. (2009) in the field of cognitive psychology have called on scholars to rethink the negative perceptions that have long been associated with anxiety. They suggest that anxiety is merely the body's natural response to apprehensive situations and that suppressing such feelings has the potential to do more harm than good.

Studies on FLA have been constrained traditional methods of inquiry such as diaries (Bailey, 1983), interviews (Tóth, 2011), and surveys, most of which derive from the foreign language classroom anxiety scale designed by Horwitz et al. (1986). In 2005, an American scholar introduced a method that, in theory, can supplement these research methods by comparing the nonverbal behavior of anxious and nonanxious students.

Focusing specifically on behavior within the context of a speaking exam, Gregersen (2005) reported that "anxious foreign language learners tended to maintain more tense facial muscles, limiting the movement of the brow. They blinked more, smiled less, and had more limited eye contact with the teacher, sometimes even closing their eyes completely" (p.393). Gregersen (2005) postulates two implications: "kinesic behavior is highly communicative" (p.393), and that "kinesic behavior of the anxious foreign language participants differs from the nonanxious" (ibid).

While Gregersen (2005) acknowledges more research is needed in different cultural contexts to add validity to her findings, the ability catalogue and decode these nonverbal signals to identify those who experience FLA can be beneficial for the teacher and can particularly be appealing the 7,500 native English instructors in the public school system (Korean Herald, 2013) in addition to foreign language professors and those employed at institutes in the private sector – many of whom, like me, arrive with limited ability to communicate in Korean (L1). Identifying these students can not only aid the teacher in developing adaptive learning dimensions and making informed pedagogic decisions but can also better understand how FLA manifests itself in real-time. In the wake of a man who committed suicide over failure to acquire English proficiency, coupled with the societal issues that have arisen from academic rigors of Korea's education system, exploring alternative methods to identify those who struggle with FLA is both timely and warranted.

1.2 Research aims

Drawing from Gregersen (2005), the purpose of this study is to compare how performance and behavior differ between anxious and nonanxious students within the context of a speaking exam. It is the first study to embark on such a feat within an Asian EFL context and can lend insight into cultural differences in nonverbal communication. As it will be revealed towards the latter half of Chapter 2, this proved to be a challenging endeavor because important details in Gregersen's (2005) study were either absent or vaguely described. This is not uncommon. In their replication of Philips's (1992) study on FLA, Hewitt & Stephenson (2011) encountered similar difficulties, suggesting "that most

language anxiety research does not provide enough detail about tests, questions, or instruments to allow replication. Indeed, this may be why replication studies are so scarce in the language learning arena" (p.173).

1.3 Dissertation Outline

This dissertation is comprised of six chapters. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 reviews literature on FLA theory and FLA studies within the context of a speaking exam. The chapter concludes with the research questions formulated to guide this study. Chapter 3 reviews the method employed to address the research questions. After reporting on a pilot study and reviewing the background information, a four-step procedure is used to investigate performance and behavior within the context of a speaking exam. In Step 1, students complete the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz et al. (1986) so that the teacher can obtain a quantitative assessment of FLA. In Step 2, the teacher conducts a thorough speaking exam review following procedural guidelines outlined in Burgess & Head (2005). In Step 3, students participate in the speaking exam which, given their abilities and learning needs, was formatted similar Dornyei's (2007) description of a semi-structured interview. In Step 4, video data is collected to analyze the nonverbal cues of the eight students: four students who reported the highest FLCAS scores, and four students who reported the lowest FLCAS scores. Chapter 4 presents the results of the study. The chapter concludes by drawing together the main findings. Chapter 5 identifies the limitations, which is followed by the conclusion of this study.

CHAPTER 2: FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXEITY AND NONVERBAL CUES

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the theoretical foundations of FLA in relation to speaking exam performance: Phillips (1992) and Hewitt & Stephensen (2011). Next, Gregersen's (2005) theoretical and analytical frameworks are reviewed to investigate how FLA manifests itself in real time within the context of a speaking exam. The chapter concludes with the two research questions formulated to guide this study.

2.2 Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) theory

Historically, Trang (2012) suggests that foreign language anxiety (FLA) research has evolved from the roots of psychology research. That is, anxiety in relation to language learning was diagnosed as either trait anxiety - the permanent predisposition to be anxious, or state anxiety - "apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a response to a definite situation" (Spielberger, 1983 cited in Ellis, 2008: p.691). Noting limitations of the trait/state distinction and perhaps influenced by Scovel (1978), Horwitz et al. (1986) was the first to proclaim that FLA is a "situation specific anxiety arising from the uniqueness of the formal learning of a foreign language, not just a case of general classroom anxiety being transferred to foreign language learning" (cited in Trang, 2012: p.70).

Horwitz et al. (1986) define FLA as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.128). In validation of Horwitz et al. (1986), MacIntyre & Gardner's (1991) reported that the learners who experienced heightened levels of anxiety were able to perform well in other subjects and contexts but failed to perform well in learning French as a second language. One explanation, MacIntyre & Gardner (1994) concluded in a later study, is that FLA interferes with L2 learning in three stages: input, processing or storing, and output. Ellis (2008) submits that

FLA can constitute "a physiological and automatic response to external events [that] manifests itself in particular in a reluctance to communicate in the L2" (p.691).

Fundamentally, Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest FLA is comprised of three core components: 1) communication apprehension, 2) test anxiety, and 3) fear of negative evaluation. From this construct, they commissioned the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). Often used as an instrument to correlate FLA and performance, this FLCAS is a 33-item questionnaire. The design of the 5-point Likert scale comprised of 24 positively worded items such as "I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class", and 9 negatively worded items such "I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes".

2.3 FLA on speaking exam performance

Though the FLCAS has been used in a number of correlational studies to examine FLA in relation to performance, I limit this review to Phillips (1992) and Hewitt & Stephensen (2011) because their methods in the design and delivery of their speaking exams are recounted in exceptional detail. Phillips' (1992) investigated FLA on intermediate-level Anglophone students learning French as a foreign language at the territory level. The speaking exam required students to discuss one of three possible topics and participate in a role-play a conversation from situations and English expressions reviewed in the course. The teacher evaluated the students based on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency. Prior to the exam, "the teacher took all of the commonly- accepted precautions to ensure that students were as comfortable as possible with the exam" (Phillips, 1992: p.19). This included a thorough exam review (i.e. target structures and cultural readings) and allowing students the opportunity to role-play their conversations with each other.

Correlating their scores on the speaking exam to their scores tabulated in the FLCAS, Phillips (1992) reported a negative correlation (r= -.49, p< .01) concluding that "students who expressed more foreign language anxiety tended to receive lower grades than their less anxious classmates" (p.17-18). In the one-to-one interviews with the six students who had the highest FLCAS scores (hence - the most anxious students), Phillips (1992)

reported that all six students found the speaking exam to be an unpleasant experience. The students experienced feelings of nervousness and intimidation, compounded with feelings of frustration for failing to speak L2 they knew (ibid).

Nearly twenty years later, Hewitt & Stephensen (2011) replicated Phillips' (1992) study in an attempt to "contribute to the validity, the reliability, and the generalizability of Phillips' instruments and findings" (p.172). Replicating Phillips' s (1992) study on a group of intermediate Spanish EFL students Hewitt & Stephensen (2011) reported highly consistent results (r= -.40, p<.001). Like students in Phillips' (1992) study, Hewitt & Stephensen's (2011) students described the speaking exam to be a "very nerve-racking experience" (p.180). Adding to Phillips' (1992) findings, Hewitt & Stephensen (2011) observed that the anxious students with low L2 ability felt powerless to address their FLA by noting that they resorted to memorization and translation strategies during the speaking exam.

2.4 Criticisms of foreign language anxiety

Despite widespread recognition in EFL literature, FLA theory has not been immune to criticism. The Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis (LCDH) introduced by Sparks & Ganschow (1991) postulate that a "students' anxiety about FL learning is likely to be a consequence of their FL learning difficulties" (Sparks et al. 2000: p.251). They argue that "learning is based primarily on one's native language learning ability (i.e., language aptitude)" (ibid). In response, MacIntrye (1995) argues "[the LCDH] makes a significant omission by assigning mere epiphenomenal status to affective variables in general and language anxiety in particular" (p.90). In response to the LCDH, Tóth's (2011) interviewed a number of Hungarian students with advanced levels of proficiency in English as an L2. Students in Tóth's study reported the following:

> I virtually start to tremble and break out in sweat when I'm called on to speak. Sometimes I'm beginning to go numb, don't know whether it has ever happened to you, but it's very [...] very unpleasant. (Edit, pp.3, 4 cited in Tóth, 2011: p.44)

> Usually my hands are totally red, 'cos I keep wringing them, and I seem to
> drop my voice, then the teacher says, "speak up!", and I can't, don't want to,
> and that's the end. I can't say anything else. (Zsófi, p.16 cited in Tóth, 2011:
> p.45)

Horwitz & Gregersen (2002) characterize these students as "perfectionists", ones who are particularly prone to FLA. Recently, Horwitz chaired an open discussion with what appeared to be graduate students and language teachers and remained adamant that teachers must take an active role to anxious students because they underestimate the inherent difficulty associated with language learning (Saffari, 2013). Drawing on Brophy (1999), Gregersen & Horwitz (2002) advocate for teachers to "[explain] how perfectionism is counterproductive" (p.569) and to "reassure perfectionist students that they will get the help they need to achieve success" (ibid).

These imperatives seem well intended, but seem maligned to the kind of advice student's would benefit from prior to the exam. Srivastava et al. (2009) suggests that viewing anxiety in this light has the potential to do more harm that good because it suppresses physical changes (e.g. increased heart rate, perspiration) that are the body's natural response to anxiety-provoking situations. Drawing from Grodsky (2013), McGonigal (2013) cataloged a number of studies that show how stress can be of benefit, arguing that it is not a matter of whether anxiety or stress is positive or negative, but rather of an issue awareness and acceptance of these physical responses. The time prior to the exam period is critical because it affords teachers the opportunity to take appropriate action to help students channel with their FLA. This includes "building a friendly, supportive learning environment" (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002: p.569), and "presenting themselves as helpful instructors concerned primarily with promoting student learning, rather than as authority figures concerned primarily with evaluating student performance" (ibid). In the case of beginner-level students, I would add that the teacher would do well focus on specific strategies on how the learners can achieve success in the exam. For example, the teacher

might want to give an outline of the types of questions to be included on the exam and review how students will be evaluated.

To this point, studies on FLA theory and its relation to performance show that students who suffer from heightened anxiety tend to score lower on speaking exam compared to their less anxious classmates. While these studies, among others, have been helpful contributions it is important to note that they have been constrained traditional methods inquiry: surveys (e.g. Horwitz et al., 1986), interviews (Tóth, 2011), and diaries (Bailey, 1983). Useful in their own right, these studies fall short in understanding how anxiety manifests itself in real time. The following section seeks to address this gap by reviewing a method to identify anxious students through analysis of nonverbal cues.

2.5 Investigating FLA through nonverbal cues

Nonverbal cues are actions distinct from speech manifested through "facial expressions, hand and arm gestures, postures, positions, and various movements of the body or the legs and feet" (Mehrehbian, 1972: p.2). Characterized as "spontaneous, harder to fake, less likely to be manipulated, and hence more believable" (Knapp & Hall, 2009: p.14) analysis of nonverbal cues can lend helpful insight into the study of FLA and may be particularly appealing for teachers who are unable to communicate in the student's L1. Just over ten years ago, Gregersen (2005) introduced a method to analyze nonverbal cues in a language learning context. Three raters independently analyzed three broad categories of nonverbal cues.

The first category referred to as 'Facial Expressions' examined kinesic movements of brow behavior, blinking behavior, smiling behavior, and facial activity – which Gregersen (2005) defines as the "frequency of facial muscle tension, twitches, grimaces, and contortions" (p.391). The second category referred to as 'Gaze Behavior' examines four types of eye movements: 'Eyes Closed', 'Gaze Up', 'Gaze Down', and 'Gaze at Teacher'. Recognizing the importance of eyes in nonverbal communication, Gregersen (2005) quantifies both the frequency and duration of each type of gaze behavior. The third category, 'Posture and Body Movement' examined 'Body-focused adaptors' such as

fist clenching and grooming gestures, 'Object-focused Adaptors' such fidgeting with a pencil or phone, and 'Speech dependent' gestures such as using hands to illustrate verbal pronouncements. Analysis on posture and body movement was "presented in a more qualitative fashion because, unlike the expressive changes that occurred in the faces of the participants, the data on body movements and posture demonstrated quite consistent behaviors" (p.393).

Since each speaking exam varied in duration, "only the first 4 minutes of the videotaped sessions were evaluated in order to have consistent measures for frequency and duration of observation criteria" (p.390). Below is a synthesis of her findings:

1) Facial Expression: Nonanxious students conveyed greater frequencies of facial activity, brow behavior, and smiling behavior in terms of both frequency and duration. In contrast, anxious students conveyed greater frequencies of blinking behavior.

2) Gaze Behavior: Nonanxious students gazed up and gazed at the teacher more frequently and in longer duration. In contrast, anxious students gazed down for longer durations and in less frequency. Low anxious students also closed their eyes in greater frequency and for longer durations.

3) Posture and Body Movement: Regarding Posture - nonanxious students leaned toward the teacher, conveyed an open and relaxed body position. In contrast, high anxious students leaned back against the chair, sat upright, and conveyed a closed position such as crossing their arms. Regarding Body Movement – nonanxious students did not convey body-focused adaptors. Nonanxious students used few speech dependent gestures, showed more head nods and movement on their limbs appeared to be spontaneous and natural. In contrast, high anxious students frequently adjust their clothes, often fidgeted uncomfortably in the chair. Head movements of high anxious students tended to be more side-to-side and less positive head movements.

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Gregersen (2005) reported that "the raters agreed on the duration and frequency of the criteria 91% of the time" (Gregersen, 2005: p.391) and claimed that nonverbal behaviour is highly communicative. She concludes that "the evidence gathered […] demonstrates that the nonverbal behavior of anxious and nonanxious foreign language learners differs when they participate in a high anxiety-provoking situation such as an oral foreign language exam" (Gregersen, 2005: p.393).

While these findings are encouraging, it must be noted that vital information is omitted or vaguely described in Gregersen's (2005) study. What role did the teacher play in the design and execution of the speaking exam? Were the questions in the speaking exam specific or open-ended? What kind of camera was used to record the nonverbal cues? How much time did the raters spend collecting and analyzing the data? This MA thesis allows for sufficient space to elaborate on these details so practitioners will be encouraged to replicate the methods employed in this study.

2.6 Research questions

Though much has been written on the topic of FLA, content reviewed to this point has highlighted gaps in the literature. First, pedagogic approaches that have been typically employed to suppress heightened feelings of FLA seem misunderstood and maligned. As an alternative, this study applies Burgess & Head's (2005) approach the speaking exam pedagogy, then seeks to answer the following:

1) How will the anxious students perform in a speaking exam relation to the nonanxious classmates?

Gregersen's (2005) innovative approach to identifying students with FLA can be particularly appealing for language teachers who lack the ability to communicate in the student's L1, yet remains untested in other contexts. Inspired by her findings and the high inter-rater reliability reported in her study, the second research question is formulated as follows:

2) How do the nonverbal cues of anxious and nonanxious Korean students compare within the context of a speaking exam?

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

3.1 Introduction

To answer the first research question this study employed existing methods in EFL literature to correlate performance to FLA (Phillips, 1992; Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011). In an attempt to answer the second research question, Gregersen's (2005) method for collecting and analyzing nonverbal cues was used. Addressing gaps identified in the literature, a 4-step procedure is reviewed in vivid detail, so that others will be encouraged to replicate methods employed in this study.

3.2 Context and participants

This study took place within the teaching context of Practical English Communication 1 (PEC 1), a compulsory EFL course designed for freshmen students. PEC 1 is taken during a 16-week semester during the first semester of the school year. However this study took place during the summer session, which afforded the opportunity to investigate a unique group of language learners. There were 34 students enrolled in PEC 1 were ages 22 – 26, all of whom had previous experience learning English in the Korean school system. None of the students had either traveled to or lived in an English-speaking country for more than 30 days. Of the 34 enrolled students, 33 had previously taken PEC 1 at some point in their university studies and received a failing or unsatisfactory grade according to university records. Three students were absent on the day the survey was administered. One student had a physical disability and opted to complete an alternative learning task in place of the speaking exam. In total, the participating students included 23 males and 7 females (N=30).

The course was comprised of three (3) hours of in-class study per day for a total of eleven (11) consecutive days, excluding weekends. Despite these conditions, the teacher was encouraged to replicate teaching materials and methods. The syllabus for the PEC 1 summer session consisted of the same elements (attendance, in-class participation, speaking exam, and a PowerPoint presentation), it was necessary to make adjustments given the condensed learning schedule. As a result, the midterm and final exam were

combined into one exam, so that students would take one speaking exam worth 40% of their final grade as opposed to two separate exams worth 20% each. In spite of these circumstances, the director suggested that the speaking exam should not vary in length or structure.

3.3 Pilot test

Intrigued by Gregersen's (2005) findings, four intermediate-level students volunteered to participate in a mock speaking exam that lasted between 4-6 minutes. Having taught all four students previously, the teacher designed the speaking exam to fit within their L2 capabilities. Like Gregersen (2005), "students were given general parameters of what the exam would entail, but were not supplied with the exam questions prior to the exam period" (Gregersen, 2005: p.390). The purpose of the pilot test was not to evaluate the student's proficiency, but rather to gain first-hand experience replicating Gregersen's (2005) methods.

Unlike Gregersen (2005) who used two cameras placed in close proximity facial and nonfacial cues, one Iphone 4 camera was attached to a tripod that was placed on the windowsill of the office where the speaking exams took place. Positioning the camera this way would be a less intrusive means of gathering data on the nonverbal cues, but made it difficult to micro-analyze the frequency and duration of smiling and gaze behavior. The analysis was painstakingly slow and replete inter-rater reliability issues. As a result, the researcher had to decide whether to use two cameras in close proximity to the students potentially, or 2) eliminate these nonverbal cues from the analysis.

Ultimately, the second option was the obvious choice. First, the speaking exam in this study took place in the context of a credit conversation course at a university. Grades from these courses and the drive for scholastic achievement play a pivotal role in shaping the trajectory of a student's career (Choi, 2008; Park, 2009). Since these students were competing for marks with their classmates, positioning two cameras in close proximity would not allow them to participate in the exam on a level playing field. Second, it is not clear as to why Gregersen (2005) went to such elaborate lengths to record the frequency

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and duration of smiling and gaze behavior. Not to discount the importance of these nonverbal cues in nonverbal communication, but rather it remains unclear why, for instance, gazing up and gazing down are delineated into separate categories. The raters and the researcher agreed that synthesizing gaze behavior into two categories ('gaze at the teacher' and 'gaze away from the teacher') would be a more efficient means for analysis without compromising the integrity of the data.

Third, the teacher's role in the speaking exam (i.e. Asking questions, giving prompts, and other nonverals such as smiling and nodding) seemed to affect the duration of smiling and gaze behavior. In moments, where the student was unsure how to respond to a question, there were extended moments where s/he would gaze away from the teacher to a point where the teacher would have to interject to move onto another question. To avoid ambiguity among the raters, it was determined that the duration of a nonverbal cue would be measured in seconds. If the duration of student's smile, for instance, lasted for two seconds, the raters would be required to place two check marks on the observation instrument (See Appendices 3 and 4). Despite these modifications in collection and analysis, the initial findings from the pilot test were highly consistent with Gregersen's (2005) findings: in moments of apprehension, some students smiled less, avoided eye contact, fidgeted, and filled in moments of silence with nervous laughter.

3.4 Procedure

To address gaps in the literature, a four-step procedure was employed in this study. Step 1 obtained a quantitative assessment of FLA to identify the four most and four least anxious students in PEC 1. Step 2 applied Burgess & Head's (2005) approach to the design and delivery of a speaking exam for false beginner students by conducting a speaking exam review. In Step 3, the students participated in a speaking exam formatted to their learning needs and abilities. By employing a modified version of Gregersen's (2005) method, Step 4 analyzed nonverbal behavior within the context of a speaking exam.

3.4.1 Step 1 – Students complete the FLCAS

To obtain a quantitative assessment of FLA, students completed a translated version of the FLCAS as shown in Appendix 1 in the absence of their teacher. The teaching assistant who administered the questionnaire assured the students that their replies would not affect their grade in the course. Table 1 shows the results:

Participant	FLCAS Score
Table 1: FLCAS results of high and low anxious students	
High anxious	
Student #1	122
Student #2	119
Student #3	115
Student #4	109
Low anxious	
Student #5	85
Student #6	70
Student #7	67
Student #8	57

Gregersen's (2005) use of the terms 'nonanxious' and 'anxious' to describe students could be perceived as a misnomer in describing their affective states. Table 3 shows that the 'nonanxious' students (#5-#8) experienced anxiety to some degree. Henceforth, this study suggests the terms 'high anxious' to represent Students #1, #2, #3, and #4, and 'low anxious' to represent Students #5, #6, #7, and #8 are more appropriate to represent the two groups of students.

Nomenclature aside, these findings show consistency with Gregersen (2005) who reported mean of 78 with a standard deviation of 21. In this study the mean FLCAS score was 88 with a standard deviation of 18. Comparable results at this phase of the study were necessary to justify moving onto the next phase: video recording the speaking exams of all eight students. Before that however, pedagogic modifications were made to suit the needs of the students and answer to McGonigal's (2013) call that anxiety should be managed, not suppressed.

3.4.2 Step 2 - Speaking Exam review

Gregersen (2005) does not disclose what types of questions were asked during the exam or how the students were scored. Most beginner-level students lack the L2 ability to respond to certain types of questions such as negotiation tasks and open-ended questions on certain topics. In the absence of clear guidelines on how students will be scored or what the exam will entail, the design, format, and pedagogic preparations to prepare students for the speaking exam could have heightened levels of anxiety.

To accommodate the learning needs of beginner-level students, Burgess & Head (2005) advocate for teachers to inform their students of performance expectations and include content that is within their L2 capability. Burgess & Head (2005) offer a number of speaking exam formats. For this study, the interview format was selected because it applied to a range of items covered in the textbook throughout the semester. Aware of the strengths of limitations of the interview format (e.g. See Adamson, 2006), the questions were designed so that the student would be the person would be tasked to do most of the talking throughout the exam. The speaking exam (see Appendix 2) required students to use expressions reviewed in the course and was organized in four parts: Part 1 required students to introduce themselves. In Part 2, students would have to ask relevant follow-up questions in response to the teacher's statement. Part 3 required students to explain their plans for the summer vacation. In Part 4, students expressed their opinion of the PEC 1. Students were aware that they would have to reply to follow-up questions that would be asked sparingly throughout the exam.

Recognizing the anxiety-provoking nature of L2 speaking exams, Burgess & Head (2005) recommend a thorough speaking exam review before the exam period. In this study, the teacher limited to the contents to topics that were covered in class and went to great lengths to review sample questions that could be asked on the exam. As shown in Table 3, students were given clear guidance on how they would be evaluated.

Table 2: Metric to evaluate speaking performance

Criteria	Definition
Accuracy (/10)	Evaluated the student's ability to speak grammatically correct sentences relevant to the teacher's statement or question.
Fluency (/10)	Evaluated the student's ability to respond to the teacher's statement within a reasonable amount of time.
Vocabulary (/10)	Evaluated the student's ability to use English expressions learned throughout the course.
Creativity (/10)	Evaluated the student's ability to speak sentences that highlighted uniqueness. This often came in the form of vocabulary not taught in the course or if the student explained some kind of unique interest.

The speaking exam was scored out of forty (/40) points. Students were given the remainder of the class to prepare for the speaking exam by role-playing speaking exam prompts/questions shown in Appendix 2.

3.4.3 Step 3 - Speaking Exam

As Hewitt & Stephensen (2011) remark, "measuring language performance, in general, and oral performance, in particular, is essential to our understanding of how language anxiety and language ability are interconnected" (p.173). Therefore, the teacher used a merit system that scored the each student's speaking performance by typing symbols into an Excel spreadsheet as the student spoke during the exam. Table 4 shows the symbol and its meaning.

Table 3: Merit system to evaluate speaking performance	
Symbol	**Meaning**
X	Denotes issues of accuracy such as not responding to a question or statement from the teacher in the expected grammar tense and/or with vocabulary taught in class.
/	Denotes issues of fluency such as *umms* and *awws*, or hesitating to respond to the question within a time span of 2-3 seconds.
S	Denotes positive features of the student's responses including a broad use of words (vocabulary) reviewed in class, and creative statements that show uniqueness (creativity).

These symbols cover all four facets of the grading rubric and provide a quantitative assessment on the student's speaking performance. The total number of 'x's and '/'s were deducted from the student's score in categories of accuracy and fluency respectively. The number of occurrences where the student attempted a complex sentence structure or used vocabulary not covered in the course material was denoted by an 'S'. The following formula was used to process the student's score:

40 – (the total number of 'x's + the total number of '/'s) + the total number of 'S's

During the exam, the computer was positioned so that students could not see the symbols being entered onto the Excel spreadsheet. A key benefit to scoring the speaking exams this way is that it can help alleviate subjectivity by producing a quantitative result.

3.4.4 Step 4 – Nonverbal cues
After identifying the four most and four least anxious students based on the FCLAS scores, the teacher approached the eight students to request their participation in the study. To abide by the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2011) ethical guidelines, each student was asked to volunteer to have their video exam recorded for academic research: written consent was obtained, and every effort was made to ensure their confidentiality and anonymity.

Results from the pilot exam drew attention to issues in the collection and analysis of data. While Gregersen (2005) did not disclose what kind of camera she used in her study, it was determined that the camera on an Iphone 4, would suit the needs of this study. Similar to the pilot study, the Iphone 4 was placed on the window under the pretense that it would be a less invasive means for collecting data under these heightened conditions. After receiving consent from the students, the teacher showed where the camera would be positioned exam. To avoid ambiguity among the raters, the duration of a nonverbal cue would be measured in seconds. If the duration of student's smile, for instance, last for two seconds, the raters would be required to place two check marks on the observation instruments (Appendices 3 and 4). Despite these modifications, data was coded using key components of Gregersen's (2005) study. In the first category, Facial cues, the raters used the instrument shown in Appendix 3 to count the frequency of the following four categories:

(1) Facial activity – Count the frequency of facial contortions, grimace, or muscle tension;
(2) Brow behavior – Count the frequency of occurrences when the student raises or lowers his/her eyebrows;
(3) Smiling behavior – Count the frequency of smiles; and
(4) Gazing away from teacher – Count the frequency of occurrences when the student gazes away from the teacher.

In the second category, Nonfacial cues, the raters used the instrument shown in Appendix 4 to count the frequency of the following four categories:

(1) Body-focused adaptors – Count the frequency of movements in the arms, legs, and feet. Do not count movements in the fingers, but do note this in comments if it is a salient cue;
(2) Object-focused adaptors – Count the number of the number of occurrences where a student touches or fiddles with an object such as a pen or pencil;
(3) Speech dependent gestures – Count the frequency of gestures used to compliment verbal pronouncements;
(4) Head shaking– Count the frequency of head shaking.
(5) Head nodding – Count the frequency of head nodding.

Gregersen (2005) mentioned that the duration of each exam last between 4-7 minutes, though only the first 4 minutes of each exam were analyzed. To analyze the speaking exam in its entirety, this study proposes an alternative. The mean number of occurrences

among the three raters would be divided by the total number of seconds in the speaking exam multiplied 60 is necessary to provide comparable results: see formula below.

Mean # of occurrences among the 3 raters ÷ total # of seconds of the speaking exam (x60)

To record qualitative observations, raters were asked to provide a descriptive analysis of any peculiar nonverbal cues that did not fit within the quantitative framework provided above and that they deemed peculiar or salient as shown in Box 5 in Appendices 3 and 4. The qualitative data was interpreted using Tóth's (2011) constant comparative method, which aims to "identify recurring themes and sub-themes" (p.43).

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The four-step procedure reviewed in Chapter 3 aimed to address shortcomings in FLA literature by investigating performance and behavior within the context of a speaking exam. The results presented in this chapter are discussed in relation the two research questions formulated to guide this study. First, a regression analysis chart illustrates the speaking exam performance of the two groups of students, followed an in-depth look at the speaking exam scores in the four categories: Accuracy, Fluency, Vocabulary, and Creativity. The latter half of the chapter provides the quantitative and qualitative results of the nonverbal cues between the anxious and nonanxious learners. The chapter culminates in drawing together the main findings of the study.

4.2 Speaking Exam results

The first research question posed in this study inquired the following: employing Burgess & Head's (2005) approach to the design and delivery of speaking exams, how will the anxious students perform in a speaking exam relation to the nonanxious classmates? Figure 1 shows a negative correlation (= -.8, p<0.05, N=8) in comparing FLA to speaking exam performance. Low anxious students (#8, #7, #6, and #5) scored higher on the exam than their high anxious counterparts (#4, #3, #2, and #1).

Figure 1: Relationship between speaking exam performance and FLA
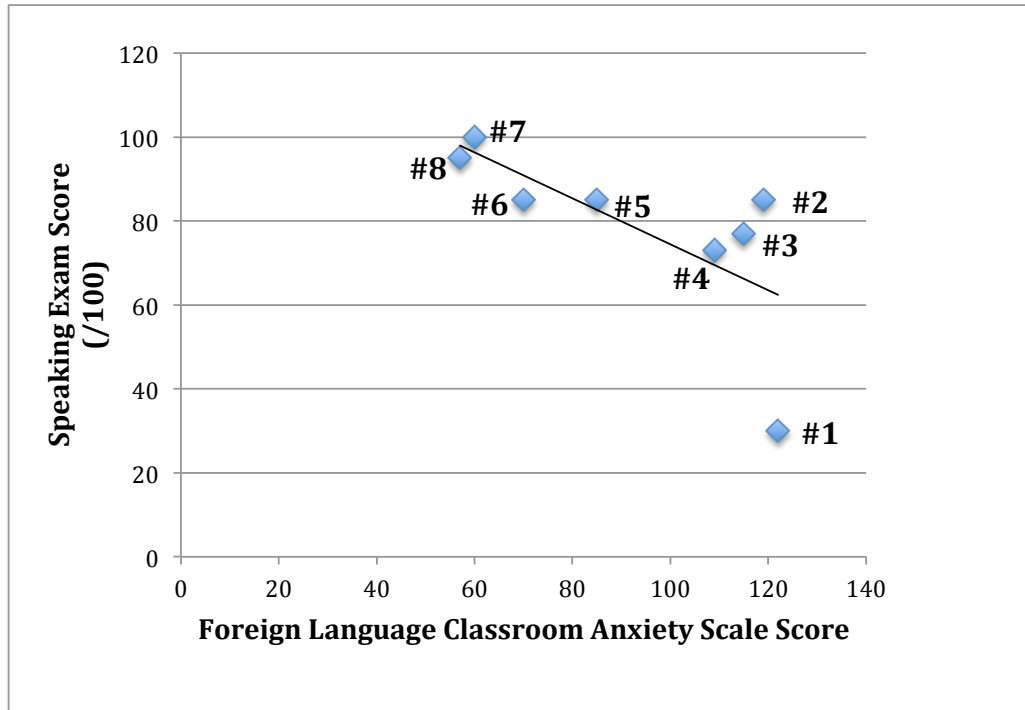
This finding is consistent with numerous other correlational studies on FLA, including Phillips (1992) who reported r =−.40, p < .01 (p. 18) and Hewitt & Stephensen (2011) who reported r=−.49, p < .001 (p.182). The detailed results each student's performance in each category provides further evidence.

Table 4 – Results of the speaking exam					
Participants	**Accuracy (/10)**	**Fluency (/10)**	**Vocabulary (/10)**	**Creativity (/10)**	**Total (/40)**
High Anxious					
Student #1	3	3	3	3	12
Student #2	8	7	9	10	34
Student #3	7	7	8	9	31
Student #4	7	8	7	7	29
Low Anxious					
Student #5	9	8	8	8	34
Student #6	9	8	8	8	34
Student #7	10	10	10	10	40
Student #8	9	8	10	10	38

In the category of Accuracy, the mean score of the low anxious students was 9.25, whereas the mean score for the high anxious students was 6.25. Similarly, the mean score of the high anxious students in the category of fluency was 8.5, whereas the mean score of the high anxious students was 6.26. In the category of Vocabulary, the mean score of the high anxious students was 9, whereas the mean score of the high anxious students was 6.75. Finally, the mean score of the low anxious students in the category of Creativity was 9, whereas the mean of the high anxious students was 7.25. These findings, at least on the surface, add further evidence to the notion that FLA interferes with the language learning process.

Closer inspection of the data presented in Table 4, however, indicates that Student #1 is an outlier. Removing Student #1 from analysis reveals only a slight difference in comparing the scores between the two groups of students. Removing Student #1 from analysis, the scores from the high anxious students are as follows: Accuracy mean = 7.3, Fluency mean = 7.3, Vocabulary mean = 8, and Creativity mean = 8.7. Though the mean scores in all four categories are still slightly higher for the low anxious students, the difference is minuscule. Further evidence is shown in the cast of Student #2. Student #2 reported the second highest score on the FLCAS yet received the same score on the exam as low anxious students #5 and #6.

4.3 Nonverbal cues

The second research question formulated to guide this study attempted to answer the following question: how do the nonverbal cues of high and low anxious Korean students compare within the context of a speaking exam? The methods employed to collect and analyze data drew from Gregersen (2005) but excluded analysis on the duration and frequency of certain nonverbal cues in light issues identified in from the pilot study. Additionally, preparations for the exam and collection of data were designed in a way to create a less anxiety-provoking experience for the students. Only was camera was used to video-record the nonverbal cues. Second, the teacher conducted a thorough exam review and chose questions that were reviewed throughout the course.

4.3.1 Quantitative findings

To collect the data, three raters were asked to count nine nonverbal cues arranged into two categories: facial and non-facial. Since each student's exam varied slightly in duration, the data for each nonverbal cue presented in Tables 5 and 6 were calculated using this formula:

Mean # of occurrences among the 3 raters ÷ total # of seconds of the speaking exam (x60)

The data presented in Table 5 shows the findings of facial movements.

Table 5 – Results of facial cues (*Frequency of occurrence per minute*)				
Participants (*Duration of speaking exam in seconds*)	**(1) Facial Activity**	**(2) Brow Behavior**	**(3) Smiling Behavior**	**(4) Gaze away from teacher**
High Anxious Student #1 (293)	0	0	0	constant
Student #2 (267)	4.6	0	2.3	4.9
Student #3 (220)	1.9	3.7	4.5	4.5
Student #4 (277)	4.1	0.8	0.8	3.9
Low Anxious Student # 5 (222)	5.9	3.7	0.7	5.2
Student # 6 (248)	6.4	8.6	0.3	3.2
Student # 7 (258)	4.2	2.7	0.9	5.1
Student # 8 (218)	9.1	0	1.9	7.6

Similar to the findings in analysis of speaking exam performance, the low anxious students displayed a mean of 6.4 movements in facial activity, the nonverbal cue, whereas the high anxious students conveyed an average of 2.7 movements. Similarly, the mean number brow behavior movements were 3.75 for low anxious students whereas the mean number for high anxious students in this category was 1.3. Taken together, these findings are consistent with Gregersen (2005) and paint a picture of what these students looked like during the exam: the low anxious students were more animated in these categories throughout the exam, whereas the facial movements in the high anxious students rigid and constrained. Interestingly, however, the low anxious students smiled slightly less than their anxious counterparts: the mean for the low anxious students was

0.95 whereas the mean for the high anxious students was 1.9. This result is inconsistent with Gregersen's (2005) who reported that low anxious students displayed significantly more smiling behavior than their anxious counterparts. The mean for the low anxious students was 5.3 in the category of Gaze Away From the Teacher, while a comparable number could not be identified for the high anxious students given the behavior of Student #1 who, the raters agreed, constantly gazed away from the teacher throughout his exam. Removing Student #1 from analysis, the mean for the three remaining anxious students in this category was 4.4, which is inconsistent Gregersen's (2005) findings.

The data presented in Table 6 shows the findings of nonfacial movements.

Table 6 – Results of nonfacial cues (*Frequency of occurrence per minute*)					
Participants (*Duration of speaking exam in seconds*)	(1) Body-focused adaptors	(2) Object-focused adaptors	(3) Speech-dependent gestures	(4) Head nodding	(5) Head shaking
High Anxious					
Student #1 (293)	1.8	0	0	0	0
Student #2 (267)	4.3	1.1	0	1.4	0
Student #3 (220)	4.5	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.1
Student #4 (277)	1.6	0.8	1.4	0	0.8
Low Anxious					
Student # 5 (222)	0	0	0.7	0	0.4
Student # 6 (248)	0.3	1.3	0.3	0.7	0
Student # 7 (258)	0.3	0	2.1	2.6	0.6
Student # 8 (218)	0.4	0	2.8	2.2	0

In the first category, Body-focused adapters, high anxious students conveyed an average of 3.1 movements where the mean for the low anxious students was 0.25. This finding was the largest difference in comparing the two groups of students and represents strong consistency with the findings of Gregersen (2005). In the category of Object-focused Adaptors, the mean of the high anxious students was 0.83 whereas the mean for the low anxious students was 0.33. Though this finding represents moderately consistent with Gregersen (2005), it should be noted that Students #2, #3, #4, and #6 were the students who brought objects into the exam. It is not possible to know whether the other students would have fidgeted with such objects had they brought them into the exam. The average

number of movements for Speech Dependent Gestures for the high anxious students was 0.63 whereas the average for the low anxious students was 5.9. This finding contrasts sharply with Gregersen (2005) whose low anxious students conveyed "very few" (p.393), while the high anxious students rarely used such gestures. In the category of Head Nodding, the mean for high anxious students was 0.63, where the mean for the low anxious students was 1.4. In the category of Head Shaking, 0.73 was the mean for anxious students where as the mean for low anxious students was 0.25. This finding is moderately consistent with Gregersen (2005) who reported that high anxious students displayed more head shaking than nodding than their nonanxious classmates. Noted in more detail in the chapter that follows, however, this finding remains inconclusive because some students were not given opportunities to use this type of gesture; that is, they did not were not asked yes/no questions.

4.3.2 Qualitative observations

The qualitative data was collected from the raters' written descriptions in Box 5 of the observation instruments in Appendices 3 and 5. To identify reoccurring themes, the data was analyzed by Tóth's (2011) constant comparative method. As noted previously, the speaking exam format included a semi-structured interview that tasked students to respond to prompts and questions material taken the course textbook. In the case of some of the students, there were moments when they were unable to respond to a question or prompt. It was in these moments when verbal communication was absent that a student's nonverbal cues became more pronounced. In analysis of the raters comments, there was very little evidence consistent with Gregersen's (2005) findings; that is, it was difficult to identify common themes among the two groups of students. Rather the themes that were recognized contrasted the behaviour of Student #1 to others in the study, and there were what appeared to be moments of idiosyncratic behaviours.

Similar to the data presented in Tables 4, 5, and 6, qualitative observations of Student #1's nonverbal behaviour was in stark contrast to the other seven students in the study, high anxious and low anxious alike. Unlike the other seven students in this study, the raters were unanimous in their observations of Student #1's nonverbal cues in that there

seemed to be extended moments throughout the exam where he was unable to respond to most of the questions and prompts posed by the teacher. During these moments of silence, he restricted his movement mainly to body focused adaptors such as face touching, hair grooming, foot tapping. It seemed as though eye contact with the teacher was a piercingly discomforting experience as these moments were limited and hard accurately identify because the spectacles he was wearing obscured made it difficult to see the direction of his gaze. His stiff, rigid posture was illustrated his demeanour: feet planted firmly on the floor with both arms extended and hands resting/gripping his kneecaps throughout the exam. Wearing his backpack as he sat in the chair, the raters agreed that he seemed eager to have the test completed as soon as possible.

Student #4, a high anxious student who received the second lowest mark among the eight students in this study, sat in the chair wearing his backpack with both leaning slightly forward with both hands gripped firmly on his umbrella. Like Student #1, the raters interpreted Student #4's combination of posture and nonverbal cues as strong indicators that he was eager to have the speaking exam over with as quickly as possible. Unlike Student # 1, however, Student #4 was still able to respond to the majority of the questions and prompts during the speaking exam. In the few moments when he was unable to respond, he directed his gaze towards the ceiling, which can be interpreted as a normal reaction when one is trying to process new information Richmond & McCroskey (2000). The might explain why Student #1 constantly directed his gaze away from the teacher.

As for the other students in the study, low and high anxious alike (Students #2, #3, #5, #6, #7, and #8), all were able to respond to the questions and prompts posed during the speaking exam with apparent ease. Students #3, #7 and #8, for instance, removed their backpacks and appeared relaxed during the exam. Their gaze was towards the teacher, and they were more animated in their both their facial and nonfacial movements. They smiled more and used hand gestures to emphasize certain words and phrases throughout the exam. Low anxious Students #5 and #6 were more rigid in their posture, but were still able to respond quickly to prompts and questions posed during the speaking exam. Consciously or unconsciously, it seemed as though these students wanted the teacher to

focus on their verbal communication, so they rarely moved their arms and legs throughout the speaking exam.

4.4 Main findings

This study set out to compare the performance and nonverbal behavior of high and low anxious students within the context of a speaking exam. Address the former, the students' scores on the speaking exam were correlated to their self-reported FCLAS scores. The result was a negative relationship (= -.8, p<0.05, N=8), a finding that is consistent with Phillips (1992) who reported r =−.40, p < .01 (p. 18) and Hewitt & Stephensen (2011) who reported r=−.49, p < .001 (p.182). On the surface, this suggests that students who have heightened levels of FLA tend to score lower on speaking exams.

In a similar result, quantitative analysis of certain nonverbal cues were consistent with a key finding in Gregersen (2005). Like the high anxious English-speaking students who were learning French as a foreign language in Gregersen's (2005) study, the high anxious Korean students learning English as a foreign language in this study conveyed less facial activity and less brow behavior. Compared to their low anxious classmates, there were relatively more moments during the exam where high anxious students were unable to reply quickly to the teacher's prompts or questions making their nonverbal cues noticeably salient. During these moments of silence, high anxious students sat motionless in a rigid posture, directing their gaze away from the teacher, and limiting their movements to what Gregersen (2005) termed as body-focused adaptors (neck/face touching, knee shaking, hair grooming, crossing/uncrossing arms) and object-focused adaptors (fidgeting with pens, pencils, umbrellas, backpack straps..etc).

These findings lend credence FLA theory championed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and add supporting evidence to MacIntyre & Gardner (1994) who suggest that FLA interferes with L2 learning in the stages of input, processing/storing, and output. In the case of Student #1, FLA could result in "a physiological and automatic response to external events [that] manifests itself in particular in a reluctance to communicate in the L2" (Ellis, 2008: p.691). Citing a number of scholars, Gregersen (2005) prescribes actions language

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teachers to address this affective malady through positive reinforcement (Price, 1991), using effective language to correct student errors (Gregersen, 2003), increasing feelings of self-efficacy (Pappamihiel, 2002), arranging students in pairs or small groups to participate in EFL games, simulations, and structured exercises that alter the communication patterns (Crookall & Oxford, 1991), and commissioning students to participate in relaxation exercises, behavioral contracting, and journal keeping (Horwitz et al., 1986).

On the other hand, closer inspection of other findings in this study reveals less of a distinction between the two groups of students. First, the average number of movements for Speech Dependent Gestures for the high anxious students was 0.63 whereas the average for the low anxious students was 5.9. This finding contrasts sharply with Gregersen (2005) whose high anxious students "rarely used" (p.393) such gestures, while the low anxious used "very few" (ibid). The low anxious students smiled slightly less than their anxious counterparts: the mean for the low anxious students was 0.95 whereas the mean for the high anxious students was 1.9. On the contrary, Gregersen (2005) reported that the low anxious students smiled more than their high anxious classmates. In sum, these findings are inconsistent with Gregersen's (2005) results, which indicates that more research is needed to add to the generalizability, validity, and reliability of her claims.

Another key finding was that Student #1's performance and behavior significantly contrasted to the other participants. Student #1's score of 12/40 was 17 points lower than Student #4, the student who received the second lowest mark on the exam among the eight students in this study. As a collective, the average score from the high anxious students was 26.5/40. Removing Student #1, however, the average score of the three remaining high anxious students (Students #2, #3, and #4) was 31.3/40, which is only slightly less than the average score of the low anxious students (36.5/40). Unlike the other students in the study, high and low anxious alike, Student #1 was the only student who constantly direct his gaze away from the teacher. This made it difficult to determine the average number of occurrences for high anxious students in the category Gaze Away

from the Teacher. Accounting for the three anxious remaining anxious students, the average number of occurrences in the category of Gaze Away from the Teacher is 3.3. Interestingly this result is less than the number of occurrences from the high anxious students whose average was 5.3, a finding that is inconsistent with Gregersen (2005).

Analysis of the qualitative data revealed that Student #1's behavior clearly deviated from other students in this study, high and low anxious alike. The raters were unanimous in their observations describing his posture as anxious and ridged. His utterances were disjointed and seemed highly memorized as he positioned his head towards the ground, careful as to avoid eye contact with the teacher. In moments where he was unable to speak, his clasped his hands firmly to his kneecaps as he sat rocking very so slightly in apparent discomfort. In contrast, the other seven students were able to respond to the questions and prompts posed in the exam with little difficulty and thus displayed few visible signs of discomfort. Following the quantitative analysis, the raters were asked to identify the four anxious students. The raters identified Student #1 as an anxious student with apparent ease, but were unable to point out the other three high anxious students. For instance, Student #2, the student who was ranked as the second most anxious student according to his FLCAS score, performed admirably on the speaking exam receiving the same score as his low anxious classmates, Students # 5 and #6.

The inconsistency in the findings compared Gregersen's (2005) study serve as a reminder to teachers "that any hypothesis that views affective variables as causal factors in learning a [foreign langauge] must be approached with caution" (Sparks & Ganschow, 2007: p.251). Three of the four high anxious students scored slightly lower than their low anxious classmates, and it was not possible to identify any common themes in terms of nonverbal behavior in comparing the two groups of learners. This could be attributed to the measures taken to ensure a less anxiety-provoking experience: see Burgess & Head's (2005: pp.99-121). On the contrary, Gregersen's (2005) pedagogy subjected beginner-level students "general parameters of what the exam would entail but they were not supplied with the test questions" beforehand (p.390), while "two cameras were rolling throughout the exam" (ibid). Making matters worse was the fact that two cameras were

rolling throughout the exam. Given the methods and subsequent results in this study compared to Gregersen (2005), pedagogic decisions in the design and delivery of the speaking exam play a critical role in heightening the student's FLA.

Drawing this section to a close, findings in this study demonstrated slight levels of consistency with the view that FLA interferes with language learning performance on a speaking exam. Further examination of the data, however, revealed that there is only a slight distinction in comparing the performance and behavior and high and low anxious students. The implication of these findings seems to suggest that the pedagogic decisions pertaining to the design and delivery of the speaking exam plays a critical role in heightening FLA prior to and during the exam period. Rather than devote time and energy to awareness of FLA (Eg. relaxation exercises, behavior contracting, and journal keeping as suggested by Horwitz et al., 1986), it would seem that FLA is an issue that takes care of itself when the speaking exam and methods for preparation are conducted to suite the learning needs of the students.

CHAPTER 5: LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

Hewitt & Stephenson (2011) remark, "that most language anxiety research does not provide enough detail about tests, questions, or instruments to allow replication. Indeed, this may be why replication studies are so scarce in the language learning arena" (p.173). Similarly, this study encountered difficulty replicating Gregersen's (2005) study because critical information was omitted, vaguely described, or maligned to the learning needs of beginner level students. As a result, one of the goals of this dissertation was to provide detail so that the methods in this study could be applied to other learning contexts. This chapter comments on the limitations of the methods employed in this study and suggests avenues for further research. After discussing the role of the teacher prior to and during the speaking exam, this chapter discusses the findings of Student #1, culminated in final thoughts of this study.

5.2 Role of the teacher prior to the exam

In comparing the methods and findings in this study to Gregersen (2005), it seems clear that pedagogic decisions play an important role in managing a student's FLA before the exam period. During this critical stage, the teacher is responsible for choosing the format and types of questions. The types of questions posed in the exam also seem to be correlated with the level of difficulty. Consider the following examples of questions taken from the website of the Educational Testing Service (2016):

1) How often do you watch television?

2) Some people prefer to take a job that does not pay well but does provide a lot of time off from work. What is your opinion about taking a job with a low salary that has a lot of vacation time? Give reasons for your opinion.

The first question evaluates the student's comprehension of a typical conversation question, whereas the second question tasks the student to demonstrate higher levels of L2 cognition. It seems unlikely that Gregersen (2005) would include questions similar to the second example, but even questions similar to the first question can be just as anxiety

provoking if the teacher does not take the time to review vocabulary, grammar, and clearly outline what would constitute a perfect answer.

On the other hand, it could be argued that the methods employed in this study did not adequately challenge the students. It would be hard to justify Gregersen's (2005) approach the design and delivery of the speaking exam given context and participants of this study. While it remains unclear whether the students in this study would have responded similarly to the students in Gregersen's (2005) had they be given "general parameters" (p.390), findings in this study suggest that pedagogic decisions pertaining to the speaking exam type and kinds of questions seem to play a role in heightening a student's anxiety prior to the exam period.

5.3 Role of the teacher during the exam

The role of the teacher can affect the student's behavior during the exam. In this study, the teacher asked follow up questions using the present perfect tense: e.g.,. have you ever…? In response to these yes/no replies were often accompanied with head movement: i.e. nodding with 'yes' replies; shaking with 'no' replies. Students #2, #7, and #8 were not asked any yes/no questions in the exam, so it is not known whether they would have conveyed any head movement. Student #1 was asked four yes/no questions as a part of follow up questions to the original items listed in Appendix 2. Students #3, #4, #5, and #6 were the only students to convey the nonverbal cues of head shaking and nodding. To ensure reliability and validity, it would therefore seem necessary to include a fixed number of yes/no questions.

The methods employed in both Gregersen (2005) and this study fall short in reporting how the teacher's use of nonverbal behavior affects the nonverbal behavior of the students. The findings of Sime's (2006) qualitative analysis revealed that students were able to identify three types of functions of their teacher's use of gesture plays in the language classroom: cognitive, i.e., gestures that facilitate the learning process; emotional, i.e gestures that function as reliable communicative devices of the teacher's emotions and attitudes; and organizational, i.e., gestures that assist with classroom management. All

three functions, particularly the emotional function, seem relevant to the context of the speaking exam. It would be worthwhile to investigate how the teacher uses gesture and other nonverbal cues within the context of the speaking exam to see whether there would be significant differences in interactions with anxious and high anxious students.

In Gregersen's (2005) study, "the length of time taken for the exam ranged from 4 to 7 minutes" (p.390), and "only the first 4 minutes of the videotaped sessions were evaluated in order to have consistent measures for frequency and duration of observation criteria" (ibid). It is unclear which students had the longest tests; nor is it known what role the teacher played during the first four minutes of the exam; namely how much time did the teacher allow for each student to respond before moving onto the next question? Was this done consistently with both groups of students? Based on the findings in this study, these were the moments where students tended to convey nonverbal cues of anxiety: i.e. body-focused adaptors, object-focused adaptors, and gazing away from the teacher. Recognizing this, the teacher tried to keep these moments to a minimum by moving onto the next question once it became clear the student was unable to utter a response. Because of this intervention, however, there were few moments in the exam where the raters could identify nonverbal cues with the exception Student #1.

5.4 The curious case of Student #1

The methods employed in this study do not adequately account for the behavior and performance of Student #1, the student who reported the highest FLCAS score and received the lowest score on the speaking exam. During Student #1's exam, which lasted for 4 minutes, 53 seconds, the longest duration among the 8 students in this study, he was unable to respond to most of the questions and displayed nonverbal behaviors that were highly consistent to the high anxious students in Gregersen's (2005) study: limited facial movement including avoidance of eye contact, no smiling behavior, no brow behavior; his nonfacial nonverbal cues included a rigid posture, no head movement, and moments where he resorted to gripping his knees (i.e. body-focused adaptors). Taken together, it would seem as though FLA interferes in the language learning process.

On the other hand, the findings of Students #2 - #6 were unable to show clear differences between high and low anxious students. To that end, it is within reason to speculate that other Student #1's performance and behavior could be attributed to other factors such as proficiency (i.e. Sparks & Ganschow, 1991) or perhaps a learning disability (i.e Johnson & Myklebust, 1967). To provide a clearer understanding on the struggles of Student #1, a case study that examines his performance in relation to other academic subjects and ethnographic observation of his performance in the language classroom would be helpful contributions to the literature.

5.5 Final thoughts

At the onset of this study, it was noted that the sociolinguistics of English and its place in the Korean education system puts a lot of pressure on students to achieve exemplary scores. Aware that scholastic achievement can shape the trajectory of one's career, students embark on a perilous drive for perfection devoting countless hours of study in school and private academies. It has reached a point where students are suffering from serious mental health issues and are committing suicide in record numbers (Lee, F., 2011; Lee, J., 2011; Lee & Lamers, 2013; Chosun Ilbo, 2015; Jeon, 2016).

To address this issue, it was hypothesized that Gregersen's (2005) method would be a useful strategy to identify students suffering from FLA by analyzing performance and behavior within the context of a speaking exam. Based on the experience conducting research for this study, however, identifying anxious students was extremely time consuming and failed to show definitive differences in comparing the two groups of students. By no means does this provide a complete solution to the societal issues mentioned above. Rather, the inconsistent findings in relation to Gregersen's (2005) study serve as a good reminder that language teachers might be wise to consider the following implications.

First, there may be factors other than FLA that inhibit language learning. At the time of this writing, the literature has not reached a consensus whether anxiety is the cause or result of language learning failure. In reference to Student #1, for instance, FLA may

have interfered with his ability to perform on the speaking exam but it is equally possible that he may be lack linguistic aptitude. The point that needs to highlighted is that L2 research on individual differences in language learning would do well to move away from this kind false dichotomy because it both theories argue one point using two entirely different sets of assumptions, which is akin to "two tennis players trying to win a match by hitting beautifully executed shots from either end of separate tennis courts" (Minchin, 2013).

Second, pronouncements that call on teachers to remind their students that "perfectionism is counterproductive" (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002: p.569) seems way out of touch with reality over the fact is that Korea's education system is unlikely to change. Such sentiments lack empathy and create conditions that may lead to frayed rapport in the language classroom. As an alternative, teachers remind their students that such anxious feelings are a natural response to anxiety-provoking situations (e.g. see McGonigal, 2013; Srivastava et al. 2009). If students can be convinced, they will be in a better position to channel their energy towards preparing for the speaking exam.

In addition, it is imperative that the speaking exam be formatted to suit the needs of the students. Choosing Burgess & Head's (2005) approach to the design and delivery of a speaking exam for beginner level students was a calculated decision derived from hours spent in class observing and interacting with the students to understand their personalities, identifying common errors, and taking notes. After designing an exam that is within the L2 capabilities of the students, the teacher would be wise to thoroughly review its contents so that learners will be a better position to focus their energy on the items contained in the exam as opposed to actions suppress their affective domains such as "relaxation exercises" (Horwitz et al., 1986: p.131), "behavioral contracting, and journal keeping" (ibid).

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

Aware of the societal issues that have arisen from learning English in Korea's education system, this study investigated FLA guided by two research questions. Employing Burgess & Head's (2005) approach to the design and delivery of speaking exams, the first research question sought insight into how high anxious students performed in a speaking exam relation to the low anxious students? Correlating their self-reported FCLAS scores to the scores they received on the speaking exam showed a strong negative relationship (ρ = -.8, p<0.05, N=8). This finding that is consistent with Phillips (1992) who reported r =−.40, p < .01 (p. 18) and Hewitt & Stephensen (2011) who reported r=−.49, p < .001 (p.182). As a group, the average score for the low anxious students was 36.5/40, whereas the average score for the high anxious students was 26.5/40. This noticeable difference in achievement lends credence to claims championed by Horwitz et al. (1986) that FLA is a debilitating factor in the language learning process.

Before rushing to intervene, however, closer inspection of the data shows that findings were skewed given Student #1's performance on the exam. Among the eight students, Student #4 received the second lowest score on the speaking exam (29/40). Yet, Student #4's score was still 17 points higher than the student who received the lowest score among the eight students in this study, Student #1. Removing Student #1's score from the high anxious group of students increases their average to 31.3/40, a result that is only marginally less than the average score of the high anxious students (36.5/40). While the findings of Student #1, #7, and #8 show strong evidence of a negative correlation between FLA and speaking exam performance, the results of the other students are nebulous. Student #2, the student who reported the second highest score on the FLCAS achieved the same score (34/40) as his low anxious classmates, Student # 5 and Student #6. This suggests that the difference in performance in comparing high to low anxious students may not be as salient as theorized in previous FLA studies such as Horwitz et al. (1986), MacIntyre (1995), Gregersen & Horwitz (2002), Gregersen (2005), and Horwitz (2010).

Drawing from analytical framework introduced by Gregersen (2005), the second research question examined how the nonverbal cues of high anxious and low anxious Korean students compared within the context of a speaking exam. Tables 7 and 8 presents a summary of the findings in this study in relation to the results reported in Gregersen (2005).

Table 7 – Summary of findings of *facial cues*		
Nonverbal Cue	**Gregersen (2005)**	**Explanation**
Facial Activity	Consistent	High anxious students conveyed less movements such grimaces, contortions, twitches than their low anxious classmates.
Brow Behavior	Consistent	High anxious students conveyed occurrences where they lowered / raised their brows than their low anxious classmates.
Smiling Behavior	Inconsistent	High anxious students smiled more than their low anxious classmates.
Gaze Away From Teacher	Inconclusive	The most anxious student in the study, Student #1, constantly gazed away from the teacher. Therefore it was not possible to get an accurate assessment given the methods employed to collect data. Removing Student #1 from analysis, the mean for the three remaining high anxious students was lower than the mean of the low anxious students, which is inconsistent to the findings reported in Gregersen (2005)

Table 8 – Summary of findings of *nonfacial cues*		
Nonverbal Cues	**Gregersen (2005)**	**Explanation**
Body-focused Adaptors	Consistent	High anxious students conveyed more occurrences that including crossing arms, grooming hair, clenching knees and tapping feet.
Object-focused Adaptors	Consistent	High anxious students conveyed slightly more occurrences where they fidgeted with objects that included an umbrella, backpack straps, pens and pencils.
Speech Dependent Gestures	Inconsistent	High anxious students conveyed less occurrences where they used gesture to emphasize to bring emphasis to their verbatim.
Head nodding	Inconclusive	This type of gesture is commonly used to respond to yes/no questions. Because these types of questions were used only for follow up questions, they could not be asked in a consistent manner. Therefore, some students did not have an opportunity to respond to these types of questions.
Head shaking	Inconclusive	

The nonverbal cues that were consistent with the findings reported in Gregersen (2005) were particularly noticeable in moments during the exam where the student did not know how to respond. Sitting motionless in the chair, students would often respond by directing their gaze away from the teacher or resort to Body or Object-focused adaptors. In the other categories (Smiling Behavior, Gaze Away from the Teacher, Speech Dependent Gestures, Head Nodding and Head Movement, the results were inconsistent with the findings reported in Gregersen (2005). As reported in the findings of performance when Student #1 is removed from the analysis, we again see that the distinction between high and low anxious students is not as salient as Gregersen (2005) reported on the students in her study.

Given the societal issues that have arisen from how English is learned in the rigors of Korea's education system, it was hypothesized that FLA theory could shed light anxiety within a speaking exam context. To provide an innovative means to address the issue, a

method that can particularly appeal teachers who arrive in the country lacking the ability to communicate in the student's L1, this study sought to investigate nonverbal behavior but encountered a number of limitations. First, much attention was devoted to the role of pedagogy to make for a less anxiety-provoking experience for the students. Unlike Gregersen's (2005) study, the teacher designed the test questions to align with the capabilities of the students and provided a thorough review before the exam period whereby students had ample opportunity to practice and mentally prepare for the exam. If remains unclear whether students in this study would have behaved similarly to the students in Gregersen's (2005) study had they only been given "general parameters of what the exam would entail" (p.390).

Because of these inconsistencies, we return to a key question that remains unresolved: is anxiety the cause of result of poor language learning performance? The methods employed in this study were not equipped to provide insight into this question. Though the results of this study show substantial evidence that Student #1 found the speaking exam to be an unpleasant experience, it would be foolhardy to dismiss factors other than FLA that could have contributed to his struggles. A case study involving in-class observation and researching his performance in other academic subjects could reveal a clearer understanding whether his difficulties could be attributed FLA (i.e. Horwitz et al., 1986), linguistic aptitude (i.e. Sparks & Ganschow, 1991), or possibly a learning disabilities (i.e. Johnson & Myklebust, 1967).

While such research would lend a beneficial contribution to the literature, it is worth reminding that perusing such research might be beyond the professional capabilities of language teachers and researchers and that devoting countless hours to such a cause could take away precious time that is required to fulfill the functions effective language teaching. If the findings in this study are any indication, FLA is an issue that takes care of itself if the teacher devotes attention to making informed pedagogic decisions such as observing and interacting with students design and delivery of the speaking exam can be tailored to the learning needs of the students (e.g. see Nunan, 1988). Rather than treat anxiety as a debilitating affective malady that must be suppressed, I advocate for

language teachers and researchers to rethink FLA not as an affective malady, but rather as a natural response to an anxiety-provoking situation - a student's instrumental drive for scholastic achievement.

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Appendix 1 – Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) *modified from* Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*(2), 125-132.

Student Number: _____

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.
(나는 외국어 수업에서 외국어로 말할때 불확신하다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.
(나는 언어 수업에 실수하는 것을 겁내지 않는다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.
(외국어수업 들을때 지적될까봐 긴장된다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.
(선생님이 외국어를 할 때 말을 다 알아 듣지 못할 때 긴장이 된다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.
(외국어 수업을 더 수강해도 괜찮다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.
(수업시간에 수업과 관계없는 생각을 하곤 한다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.
(다른 학생들이 나보다 언어능력이 더 났다고 지속적으로 생각한다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.
(나는 외국어수업 중 시험을 봐도 부담 없이 편안하다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.
(외국어 수업중 미리 준비안하고 말 해야 할 때 당황한다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.
(나는 외국어 수업 점수가 안 나올까봐 걱정이 된다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.
(사람들이 왜 그렇게 외국어 수업에 목을 매는지 이해 할 수 없다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.
(외국어 수업중 너무 긴장되서 이미 알고 있던 것들도 생각이 안난다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.
(외국어 수업시간에 자원해서 대답하는 것이 창피하다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.
(원어민과 외국어로 말하는 것이 긴장되지 않된다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.
(선생님이 고치는 것을 못 알아 들을때 속상하다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.
(외국어 수업 전에 잘 준비했는데도 긴장이 된다)

| Strongly | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly |

Agree   Disagree

17. I often feel like not going to my language class.
(나는 가끔식 외국어 수업에 빠지고 싶다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.
(나는 외국어 수업에서 말할때 자신이 있다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
(나는 내 언어선생님이 내 실수를 모두 고칠까봐 겁이 난다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.
(외국어 수업중 지적될까봐 가슴이 두근 거린다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.
(외국어 시험 공부를 하면 할 수록 내용이 더 헷 갈린다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.
(외국어 수업 준비를 완벽하게 해야겠다는 부담감이 없다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.
(나는 항상 다른 학생들이 나보다 외국어를 더 잘한다 생각한다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.
(다른 학생들 앞에서 외국어로 말하는 것이 굉장히 신경 쓰인다)

| Strongly Agree | Agree | Indifferent | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |

25. Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.

(외국어 수업 진도가 너무 빨라서 뒤처질까봐 걱정된다)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.
(다른 수업에 비해 외국어 수업이 더 긴장이되고 더 떨린다)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.
(외국어 수업중 말 할때 긴장되고 혼란스럽다)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.
(나는 외국어 수업 갈때 확신에 차있고 편안하다)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.
(나는 선생님의 말을 단 하나라도 알아 듣지 못 했을 때 긴장이 된다)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.
(외국어를 하기위해 배워야 하는 규칙의 갯수에 나는 부담감을 느낀다)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.
(내가 외국어로 말할 때 다른 학생들이 비 웃을 까 겁이 난다)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.
(나는 원어민들 사이에서 편안 할 것 같다)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.

(내가 미리 준비하지 못한 것을 선생님께서 물어 보시면 긴장된다)

Strongly Agree	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Appendix 2 – Speaking Exam worksheet
Final Exam Speaking Exam Review
Part 1 Describing yourself using basic sentences

Professor	Expected in the answer	Purpose
1) Tell me about yourself. + The professor will also ask a follow up question.	Student must use the following: *I have _____ / I don't have _____* *I like _____ / I don't like _____* *I enjoy _____ / I don't enjoy _____* *My favourite _____ is _____* *My least favourite _____ is _____*	i) To be able to use basic sentences to describe himself/herself ii) reply to a follow up question

Part 2 Asking questions in response to statements

Professor	Expected in the answer	Purpose
Professor will say statement. Student must respond with an appropriate follow up question.	Student must choose any three (3) of the following: *Who do you…with?* *When do you…?* *Why do you…?* *Where do you…?* *What kind of … do you like?* *How often do you…?*	To be able to engage in conversation

Part 3 Descriptions using the future tense

Professor	Expected in the answer	Purpose
What do you have planned for the summer vacation?	Student must say the two sentences using the following expressions: *I am going to _____" + extra information* *I would like to _____" + extra*	Expressions using the future tense.

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	information.	

Part 4 Responding to questions about the past

Professor	Expected in the answer	Purpose
What was your favourite part of the PEC class? If there is anything you could change in the course, what would it be?	Student must say two sentences using the following expressions: *The most enjoyable part of PEC class was* _____ *The least enjoyable part of PEC class was* _____	i) Use of superlatives ii) Understand student options

Evaluation

Fluency (자신 있게)	Vocabulary (어휘)	Accuracy (정확성)	Creativity (창의력)
/5	/5	/5	/5
		TOTAL	**/20**

Appendix 3 – Instrument to record facial cues

Date of analysis: _____   Participant # _____   Duration: _____

Instructions for Collection
(1) Facial activity – Count the frequency of facial contortions, grimaces, and muscle tension.
(2) Brow behavior – Count the frequency of occurrences when the student raises or lowers his eyebrows.
(3) Smiling behavior – Count the frequency of smiles.
(4) Gazing away from teacher – Count the frequency of occurrences when the student gazes away from the teacher.
(5) Comments – Write a note when the student conveys the behavior: Does he convey the behavior while speaking, or when listening? As well, feel free to note any nonverbal cues you deem as peculiar, abnormal, or unique about the student.

(1) Facial Activity	(2) Brow Behavior	(3) Smiling Behavior	(4) Gaze away from teacher

(5) Qualitative Observations

Appendix 4 – Instrument to record nonfacial cues

Date of analysis: _____   Participant # _____   Duration: _____

Instructions for Analysis

(1) Body-focused adaptors – Count the frequency of movements in the arms, legs, and feet. Do not count movements in the fingers, but do note this in comments if it is a salient cue.

(2) Object-focused adaptors – Count number of the number of occurrences where a student touches or fiddles with an object such as a pen or pencil.

(3) Speech dependent gestures – Count the frequency of gestures used to compliment verbal pronouncements.

(4) Head movement– Count the frequency of head shaking or nodding. Specifically, when a student's head moves from side to side, count that as one movement.

(1) Body-focused adaptors	(2) Object-focused adaptors	(3) Speech dependent gestures	(4) Head movement	
			Nodding	*Shaking*

(5) Qualitative Observations