It is easier to mend when you know what you are mending

A study of variables that influence students’ oral participation in an EFL classroom and how to mend low oral participation.

Master of Didactics of Culture and Language

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Preface

I would like to give my appreciation to my two supervisors. Anne line and Heidi Silje, you have been of enormous help. I would not even think where I would have been if you had not given me your opinions along the way. From the process to not be certain on my aim to be able to deliver a product is due to your comments and guidance. It has been a journey with ups and downs, but it has been joyful to dig deeper into the field of oral participation. I wanted my thesis to be relevant for me as a teacher, and it has certainly improved my theoretical knowledge that will be used in my teachings in the years to come. Hopefully this paper will be useful for the ones that read it as well.

I would also say thanks to everyone that has been looking at my paper, and that has listened to my ideas and given me their feedback. Thanks for my friends and family for being there when I needed input. You have been a support and help in this process. As this paper has demanded a great amount of work, my cohabitant has let me be selfish when I needed, especially in the months up to delivering.

At last I want to give my thanks to the ones that made this research possible. To the two teachers that let me into their classrooms and gave me their reflections and methodology about their teachings, you have my appreciation. You two gave me informative and reflected interviews and you have my thanks for letting me use your spare-time.

Most importantly I would like to say thanks to all ten of the students that freely let me interview them about their own personal feelings about their oral participation. This study would have never been finished if it were not for you, for this, you have my gratitude.
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1. Introduction

1.1 Oral participation in the classroom.
English is an important part of Norwegian schools. The importance of becoming better at communicating has exponentially increased over the years since globalisation has made the earth more intertwined. It is now more important than ever to be able to communicate with others in a first but also in a foreign language. Students are now, more than ever communicating with people all over the world through different medias online. This study will target English as a foreign language specifically, but theory regarding second language will also be discussed. English is not viewed as a second language in Norway and every subsequent language one learns will be a foreign language. However, the theoretical point of view is equal for a second language (L2) and a foreign language (FL).

Many students are very active and use English or another foreign language a lot in their spare-time. These students often receive more input and free learning by doing something they enjoy. However, the only real practices some students receive are when they participate at school. This means that teachers need to make sure that every student are participating and practising enough at school to ensure that they are able to achieve the aims that they are set to accomplish at the end of their school year(s). I have often seen and heard theorists and teachers say that getting the students to participate in the English lessons are very important. However, how to actually mend low participation and more specifically what lies behind student participation is not a topic I have read too much about before I started writing this paper.

1.2 Aim for the thesis and research questions
This study will analyse, reflect and investigate different variables that contribute to more oral participation and which variables that decrease oral participation. The current study will investigate oral participation in general, which means every setting or activity that students use their oral language in the classroom. After the variables have been found, this paper will investigate how teachers can work to mend the causes to low oral participation.

The primary research question of this thesis is:

_How to mend low oral participation._

In addition to the research question three additional study questions will be analysed and discussed:

_What variables increase oral participation?_
What variables decrease oral participation?
How do teachers work to increase oral participation in their classroom?
How to increase students’ participation?

The present study presents variables that contribute to oral participation or variables that make students reluctant to speak. Consequently it focuses on variables that teachers will most likely face in the classroom. This thesis does include the empirical or theoretical data to discover the most common variables for student participation, but will show variables that can be seen in many foreign language classrooms. Furthermore, this study will investigate how to mend some of the variables that is discussed throughout this research paper.

1.3 Background
The reason for choosing this specific aim as my study object comes down to my own interests in the field. I have previously studied oral participation while writing my bachelor thesis and I desired to dive more deeply into the field and become more knowledgeable about the field of oral participation. Teachers all over the world have experienced difficulties with different students in regards to oral participation in a foreign language classroom. However, one can argue that often the reasons behind student participation are more difficult to explain. There are many variables that can be said to influence students’ participation. These variables are often more destructive in foreign language classrooms. As if regular learning difficulties were not enough, experiencing such difficulties while learning a new language make it even more arduous to cope with.

I started my investigation in the field with some assumptions of variables that influence students’ oral participation. Motivation is one variable that I believed would influence student participation. I also believed anxiety to be one of the variables that most influenced students’ oral participation in a negative manner. However, I had no knowledge about what types of anxiety that occur in classrooms. Classroom – environment is also a variable I believed would influence student participation to a large extent. When I investigated the field of oral participation I found few studies that had investigated reasons for participation for Norwegian students. Even if the variables behind student participation might be universal, I have no data to back that statement up, and thus, I cannot take it into consideration. I therefore use my research to discover variables that can occur in Norwegian schools. At the same time the variables presented above are only my assumptions and are were not at that time rooted in theory. Thereby I had to conduct my study as an investigation in the field, and let the variables discovered in the conducted research, be the ones that this study would target specifically.
1.4 Structure
This thesis is structured into five different parts: methodology, results, theory, discussion and conclusion. The Methodology chapter (2.) starts with introducing methodology, the aim for the research and the reasons behind the method used to gather information. There will also be a description of how the data was analysed. The methodology part is presented before theory section. This is because the variables that were discovered in the interviews were the ones that the theory chapter analysed. In chapter three there will be a presentation of the results of the present study. These findings are summaries of all the interviews that were conducted. The theory part (4.) starts with discussing variables that increase and decrease students’ oral participation. It begins with explaining why oral participation is a phenomenon that needs to be addressed and discussed. The theory chapter investigates what other studies have said about students’ perception of their own oral participation. At the same time it investigates what scholars and theories say about mending oral participation. Chapter five will be where the theory discovered in chapter four and my research will be discussed. The discussion will be connected to the thesis’ study questions. In chapter six there will be a conclusion where the study questions will be explained by presenting findings of this study.
2. Methodology

I will in this chapter discuss how the research was conducted and why this was performed the way it was. I will explain and discuss the research aim, the participants that chose to participate, theory on methodology and reasoning for choosing interview as a method. My aim with the present study is to discover students’ perceptions on why they participate as they do in English lessons. The current study investigates students’ beliefs about the teacher methodology regarding oral participation. The teacher interviews sought to discover the knowledge they have regarding their pupils’ oral participation. I investigated whether they were aware of the factors that influence student participation and their opinions and reflections regarding how to mend low participation. This current study seeks to uncover opinions and meanings, and this type of qualitative research is referred to as a naturalistic approach (Silverman, 2014, p.24). Naturalists, as Silverman (2014) claims, want to get out and observe the field. For them, social factors are to be found less in social structures and much more in shared meanings and understandings (p.24).

2.1 Inductive approach to research

Normally quantitative research is deductive and qualitative is inductive approach to the methodology (Seiferman, 2010, p.3). As portrayed in the introduction chapter (1.3) I began this study with some assumptions of why students are reluctant to speak. However, I did not have the theoretical, nor empirical background to validate these assumptions. To that end I needed to cast away my assumptions and let my findings emerge from the data that the research gathered. I let the research control, to some extent, where my study was headed. I used an inductive approach to discover the variables and then investigated the theory of the findings my research gave me. However, I was not fully unaware of the theory behind oral participation before the research was conducted, and that influenced how the research was arranged and conducted. The reason for this still being a valid inductive approach is that the research conducted in this study decided what this study would focus on. The variables presented in the theory chapter emerged from the present research. At the same time, since my research was limited in terms of its scope, some variables that were not directly mentioned in my interviews had to be included. An inductive approach to research starts with observation, see patterns and then investigate the theory based on the findings (Trochim, 2006, 2nd para). In contrast to deductive approach to research where you start by formulating hypotheses and investigate theory before conducting the research (Trochim, 2006, 2nd para). By deciding to use an inductive approach I let the research be vital for the construction of this thesis.
2.2 Qualitative interview

Before one starts to conduct a study one needs to decide what kind of methodology one uses. As a general rule you can choose between qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative data have smaller amount of participants, and tries to gather more depth data (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011, p.31). Quantitative data includes usually a broad set of participants and tries to discover general rules and discover something that can be said for larger amount of the population or the society (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011,p. 31). Qualitative interviews also separate from quantitative interviews by being more as a dialog, rather than pure questioning and answering (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011,p.135). This study could have been conducted as a quantitative study where the aim was to discover generalizable variables that influence students’ participation in Norwegian schools. However, to achieve this I would need participants that could be generalizable for a certain group. If I had not managed that, my paper would fail in the attempt. I settled down with qualitative interviews where I seek to discover the variables behind students’ oral participation. To perform a qualitative interview Opdenakker (2006) says the researcher needs to give the informants larger freedom to express one self than in a structured schema (Opdenakker, 2006, p. 136). Qualitative research develops concepts, insight and understanding from patterns in the data rather than collecting data to assess preconceived models, hypotheses or theories (Taylor, Bogdan, Devaul, 2016, p. 8). Furthermore, qualitative data is used when the researcher wants to learn something from the participants and that the data emerges from the participants (Soiferman, 2010, p.8).

By using a quantitative approach the research might find many vague answers, since there is little room for reflection and follow-up questions in a questionnaire. One could have used a mix-research approach where one hands out questionnaires to a generalizable amount of students and then choose specific students and conduct a qualitative interview afterwards. This approach might be the most sufficient in terms of data. Unfortunately, this is an approach that would be impossible for me to be able achieve with the limitations I have.

There are several ways one can perform an interview. I used semi-structured interviews that include questions and follow-up questions based on the answers that were received from the interview-objects. A semi-structured interview includes a theme and an interview guide meanwhile questions, topics and questions order can vary. The research can move back and forth between these when performing the interview (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011,p. 137). I had no information about the students before I interviewed them, and I acknowledged that my interviews might move in different directions based on the answers I received from the students. In advance some precautions were taken and the interview guide was written in a manner that allowed this to happen, and still be
able to gather the data that was needed. Opdenakker (2006) says having standardised questions will help the interviewer systematise the questions afterwards (p.136) and that is why all the students received the same set of questions. However, the order the students received the questions did vary depending on the answers they gave. The same applies for the teacher interviews. The interview guides can be seen at the end of this thesis as appendix 2 and 3. The follow-up questions that were asked are not presented in the interview-guide. The student interviews differentiated greatly in length. Some participants answered with short and consistent answers, and other answered with more advanced reflections. The teacher interviews lasted approximately 30 to 40 minutes.

An observation of the students in advance of the interviews could have given the research more depth. This could have presented this study a chance to see how the teachers work with oral participation, how the students respond to the activities and observe in what settings the participants freely communicate. This was originally planned to be executed, however it was abounded after while in the process. The main disadvantage this method includes is that it is time consuming. This study would need many observations of lessons in terms of gathering valid data. It would be difficult for teachers to let me investigate their class in many lessons. At the same time, when one observes a class one needs permission from all the students, and that may be difficult to receive. A decision was made that a method like this would be too difficult to accomplish within the scope set for this thesis.

One difficult aspect of research is to be able to analyse and present the findings that one has found. Schoenberger (1991) says the problem of interpretation is also related to problems of language and meaning (Schoenberger, 1991, p.183). The advantage of conducting a semi-structured interview is as Schoenberg pointed out “if the interview takes form as an interactive dialogue rather than an undeviating journey through a fixed series of question-response pairs, the intellectual engagement of the respondents and hence, the accuracy and validity of the responses are likely to be much greater” (p.183). It was important that the questions to the participants in the current study did not influence them in any way. When interviewing 15-16 years old one can, to an extent force the answers they give to suit the hypothesis. However, I performed the interviews with an open mind and tried to the best of my ability to not force any answers out of the students. The questions were as neutral as possible to make the participants express themselves freely. The questions were open and let the participants come to their conclusion without any interrupts or guidance from the researcher.

2.3 Participants

The participants in the present research were not sought out based on any specific criteria. The teachers needed to teach English in upper secondary school. The students were not chosen for any
specific reason, they only needed to be in the class of the English teacher. Some difficulties would have occurred if I had sought out specific students. Firstly, I would need to categorise them myself, since the teacher cannot give me any sensitive information about their students. Secondly, I would not by any means be guaranteed that every student would want to participate my study. Thirdly, there might be some students that would feel bad after I had categorised them. The students that participate in this study are the ones that willingly wanted to participate in this study. This approach could have left this study with minimal findings since I could have received students that only participated frequently and thus, never experienced anxiety. However, this would have meant the variables presented in the theory section would be different, and would not focus on anxiety to the extent it has. Luckily, there were 4 students who categorised themselves as mid to high participating students and 6 that categorised themselves as low participating students. This meant this research received some different reflections from students who participate highly, and those who participate less frequently.

The students are in the age group of 15-16 years old. The present study is conducted in a regular school in a normal town in Norway. The participants were all in tenth grade. This is due to the fact that this research investigated their past experiences, and the older they are the more past experiences they have. As this thesis focuses on students’ perceptions, they needed to be able to reflect about their own learning and oral participation. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed into a computer. All of the participants were informed that they could, at any time leave the interview and the data would then be deleted. The participants agreed that their interviews could be used in this study. The students are from three different classes and they are all participating in the lessons from one of the teachers that were interviewed. As a general idea, in smaller projects one should be looking for at least 10-15 interviews to get enough information (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2011, p. 104). I chose to settle down with ten interviews from students and two interviews from teachers. There were limitations regarding teachers that wanted to participate in my study, but also how many students that wanted to be interviewed.

2.4 Ethical considerations and student protection

It is important to highlight everything you intend to do with the participants in your study and make sure that everyone that participates understands what you expect of them, and what they can expect from you. When one has students who can be categorised as young adults, one has to have in mind their rights as well. People over eighteen years are responsible for their own actions and can decide what they want participate in or what to be said about them. The present study includes students under the age of sixteen and I therefore needed their parents’ signature to be able to interview them.
It was then important to give appropriate information about what I would gather and write about to both the students and their parents. I presented myself and my project to the class and handed out permission papers that every student that wanted to participate in my study had to take home and bring back to the school with their parents’ signature (see appendix 1). As the interviews did not include any personal questions about very sensitive topics, the interviews consisted of no difficulty when it comes to sensitive information. However, the students were let known that they could refuse to answer any question, without any difficulty. The participants were also informed that they could, even after the interview was conducted, contact me and have their interview deleted from this study. None of the participants in this study can be personalised by what is written about them. Every participant in this study has said yes to be recorded. I filed an application to NSD that approved my research methodology and gave me permission to conduct my study on the students (see appendix 4).

Silverman (2014) says that are a number of goals which we aim to achieve in ethical research: 1) ensuring that people participate freely, 2) making people’s comments and behaviour confidential, 3) protect people from harm, and 4) ensuring mutual trust between researcher and people studied (Silverman, 2014,p. 148). These guidelines were used both in advance and during the student and teacher interviews.

2.5 How to analyse data

There are some guidelines one has to have in mind when starting to analyse data. Silverman (2014) says it is important when conducting an interview that the transcriptions of the interviews are not postponed (Silverman, 2014,p.110). However, one should analyse pieces in between and not transcribe every interview in one session (Silverman, 2014, p. 111). The interviews in this study were conducted at different days. This was due to the students delivering their permission papers at different times. The transcription happened after the interviews were conducted and I had time to analyse the interviews after each one. This gave me insight to examine how I conducted the interview, if I needed to revise some of the questions or if there were places I needed more information.

Some of the findings in the current study could have been found in a questionnaire. The tables (1&2) presented in chapter four will be the categories that were created after the interviews were conducted. As this study is using a naturalistic approach to qualitative research, the analysis has to treat the findings as meanings and opinions that can be used explain how the world is. Those two tables are only presented to maximise the efficiency of portraying the variables. The categories are based on answers from the students.

Transcription might be a long and difficult process, and researchers should have some set of rules
before they conduct the study about how they shall transcribe the data. What to include in the transcription is influenced by the aim for the study (Baily, 2008). One can include facial expressions, gestures, body orientations etc (Baily, 2008). This study had no intentions of transcribing or analysing body language as explained above, and the data gathered are not influenced by how the student reacted or behaved during the interviews. Even though the way the students behaved or acted during the interviews might signalize whether they are shy, insecure, or an extraverted person, there would be no sufficient amount of data to further validate findings such as these. The decision to make a summary of the interviews instead of showing the actual transcription was due to make it easier for the reader to follow the discussion, and exclude uninteresting data (for this particular research).

One point of my analysis that might implicate the data is that I chose to perform every interview in Norwegian. Since my background knowledge of the students was non-existent I had no information about whether they were capable of answering and understanding the questions on English. It is easier for teachers and students to reflect and answer in their mother tongue, and that is why the interviews were conducted in Norwegian.
3. Results

This section will present a summary of every interview, firstly the student interviews and secondly the teachers’. Every direct translated quote from the interviews will be with quotation marks. I have transcribed what the students and teachers said after the interview and translated the interviews to English afterwards. At the end there will be a description of how the teacher interviews correspond with the student interviews.

3.1 Results of student interviews

Student one said he is a highly participating student. Upon answering question about how he viewed his own language he said, “I have an evolved English language, pronunciation and vocabulary”. This student admitted that he can participate more in the lessons, but he was just “too lazy” to do so. He stressed that he does not experience any anxiety in any speaking activities because of his confidence in his oral language, but has experienced with other students that “presentation is often a setting where students feel uncomfortable and insecure”. By presentation he meant stand in front of the class and speak. The reasons this student participates highly can be view through his statement “I am confident with my oral English, therefore I have no problems participating”. “I speak because it is fun, but also because I want good grades in oral English”. This student said he speaks a lot of English at his spare-time, and viewed English television series and movies.

Student two answered that she feels uncomfortable while speaking in front of the class. “I have difficulty with speaking in most subjects, but since English is a second language, it is more challenging”. She is afraid that someone might judge her when she speaks in front of the class and “only participate when I am fully confident my answer is correct”. “I usually tend to check my answers with others, if they have the same answer I am sure my answer is correct, and then I can participate in the classroom”. This student stressed that group settings were the least anxiety-provoking place to participate in. The most interesting answer is that even though this student experience anxiety when she is speaking in front of others, performing a presentation was not that difficult. ”In oral presentations I know what I am going to say and I have prepared in advance, which makes me more confident”. This student said even though the class have a good classroom-climate, some comments might occur from some students, which makes her feel insecure. This student speaks some English out side of school, but not to a great extent.

Student three is an overall participating student. “I usually participate, but tend to be participating
more when there are themes that suit me”. He acknowledged that he favours being in front of the class, but stresses he is more comfortable in group settings. “Yes, groups are more personal”. He said he is confident in his English language and often “have a great time while speaking”. On answering what should be done to increase participation he said, “I think finding themes that trigger students will increase the participation in the classroom. I speak more when there are themes that trigger me”. “I speak English because it is fun, but also for grades”. Student three said he plays a lot of English games and speaks English at that arena.

**Student four** said she tends to not speak much English in the classroom. “I do not favour speaking English in front of others”. “I speak when I am with the teacher, or my closest friends, the ones I feel secure with”. This student has not experienced bad comments or laughing when speaking English herself, but said that she is afraid it might happen. “I have never liked to perform presentation or speak in front of others in general”. She said that she participated more in primary school than now: “I was participating more in primary school, mostly due to being secure with my classmates since we had been a class for 7 years”. She also said that she does speak English outside school, and that is not that scary.

**Student 5** likes to speak English in class. “I try to participate as much as I can, and I do write and watch a lot of content in English voluntary in my spare time”. Even though she feels confident and wants to speak English in all settings, she acknowledges that group settings make people participate more. She does recall not participating as much in 8th grade since it was a new class. “I have had some less good experiences with speaking English, especially in 8th grade where we were forced to participate in front of the class”. ”That was very unpleasant”. She also said she has a motivation to become an advanced English speaker.

**Student 6** said he is in the mid range of participating, and does not like to participate in the class. “I do not like to participate because I feel I am not that good in English. However, smaller groups work fine, meanwhile presentations in front of the class do not”. The student responded that he participates more if the subject is something that triggers him for some reason. Upon answering whether there is a difference between speaking outside and at school he said, “I am equally anxious, in both settings, but it is OK”. When asked whether he knows about some variables that increase oral participation he said “Class-climate perhaps, or whether they feel they are confident enough to speak English”. He also said it is easier to speak when one has prepared in advance.

**Student 7** said he is a mid to high participating student. “It is not that I do not like to participate in
the classroom, I just like to speak in my spare time more than I like to speak in the classroom”. “I am more comfortable speaking with my friends than in front of my whole class”. The reasons for this are that when there are lot of students in the classroom that listen just to you, and one might feel a bit exposed”. This student added that group settings are more favourable for participation than regular class-situations. He also mentioned that he does not like to perform presentations or any activity that includes speaking in front of the class. This was mostly due to being anxious about speaking in front of people, but classroom-environment was also a variable that had an effect. He is confident in his oral language, and sees it as “better than many others””. This student said he has experienced that other classmates have laughed at someone when they spoke English in the classroom. At the end he said “I am confident in my English, so my lower participation is not due to that”.

**Student 8** said she is a mid to low participating student. “I think it is scary to speak English since I am not that good at it. I favour speaking with the ones sitting next to me, in a setting where everyone else is speaking at the same time, because nobody is listening to me specifically”. This student also said she favours group settings, but it is very dependant on the students in the group. She also travels a lot, and speaks English out side of school “[…] there it does not matter if I make a fool of myself”. She also mentioned that the worst thing is when the teachers ask the students to read out load, “that is horrible”. This student feels that presentations are very uncomfortable, not only in the English classroom, but she believes people may “judge” more when I performed in English. “I am more secure now than I was before when speaking English, mostly due to knowing my classmates more”. One of the most interesting notes were that this student said that when starting in 8th grade they were forced to have presentations in front of the whole class at a time when they were not very secure about their peers, which was very unpleasant. “They should have started a bit more slowly and not make us stand in front of the class right away.”

**Student 9** said he is on the lower level of participating in the classroom. This is due to “I am not that good in English”. “I do not favour any settings, even though groups might be more favourable, it is not by a lot”. He said that his low participation is not due to being unconfident, because he knows what he is bad and good at. “I do speak English when the teacher tells me to”. This student speaks English outside the school, and he admitted it feels better to speak English on trips abroad than inside the classroom. He mentioned that he participated more in primary school, but do not know why. He stated that he has to some degree motivation to speak in the classroom, mostly for grades.

**Student 10**

This student has a distinct difference when he chooses to participate in the classroom. He said he is
not particularly fond of participating, especially alone in the classroom. “I am in the middle section of liking to participate, but something makes me not want to do it”. This student as well, answered that he feels it is much simpler to participate in group settings and presentations. “Presentations work because I have practised on what to say, and then it is much simpler to participate”. He mentioned that the class participated less in the 8th grade, mostly due to students not being trusty of each other. He feels secure when performing presentations and when he speaks in groups, but gets insecure about his English and vocabulary when speaking alone without preparing in advance. He is insecure in settings he either has to raise his hand to speak, or being called upon to speak by the teacher. Even though the class has a healthy environment for speaking, he said that it is the anticipated fear that makes him reluctant to speak.

3.1.1 Two tables presenting the students’ answers.
I have made two different tables, one for high participating students and one for less participating students. Both tables present the variables that were discovered in the present research. **Table one** outlines the students who claimed they participate frequently and **Table two** outlines the students who claimed they participate seldom. I have made these tables to prevent the listings above taking more space than necessary. These are presentations of some of the student answers, and only meant for the purpose of displaying them in an easier fashion.

**Table1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Student.1</th>
<th>Student.3</th>
<th>Student.5</th>
<th>Student.7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Grades</td>
<td>Themes, grades/fun</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation</td>
<td>Grades</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confident while</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>speaking</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Anxiety while</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speaking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favourites</td>
<td>Doesn’t</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Doesn’t matter</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group/pair-work</td>
<td>matter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentations</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As you can see in the table presented above all students that participated highly had some form of motivation. Even though 3/4 saw communication in the classroom as a means to an end, namely grades, it still functions as a positive contributor to their participation. Student 7 differs from the rest of the participants in the group, because he experiences anxiety while speaking. Even though he experiences a lower degree of anxiety while communicating inside the classroom, it does not affect
the student’s participation to an extent that it makes the student participate particularly less. What can be said, by looking at this group and my research is that students who participate highly usually:

- Can speak in front of other without experiencing anxiety,
- Are confident in their oral language, and
- Have some form of motivation to speak in the classroom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Student. 2</th>
<th>Student.4</th>
<th>Student.6</th>
<th>Student.8</th>
<th>Student.9</th>
<th>Student.10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of confidence</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favour groups/pairs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes – to a minor extent</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scared of Presentations</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety because of peers</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety while speaking in other subjects</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table two** contains more variables than table one. As you can see in the table, one variable that stands out is that everyone favours group-settings when speaking English in the classroom. Presentations are unclear, since two of the six participants said they had no problem with presentations. The reason for this was, as they said, it is easier to speak when prepared in advance. Based on student answers this can be said for low participating students:
• Usually students that participate less experience some form of anxiety.
• Students that participate less in the classroom usually lacking confidence in their communicative skills.
• They also favour group/pair-work when speaking in the classroom.
• Not everyone is scared of presentations.
• Usually they are scared of their peers’ assessment.
• Not necessarily correlates with other subjects.

3.2 Summary of the interview with Teacher one

This teacher believed oral participation to be very important, and said the classroom might be the only place where students are able to receive corrections and feedback on their oral work. The competence aims also reflect the necessity for communication, and thus make oral participation a big part of the English lessons. To what extent she focuses on oral participation she admitted that she wants it to be the focus point, however it is often very easy to return to easy measured formal writing assignments instead.

She had many thoughts on how to increase oral participation in the classroom, and the first one she mentioned was that teachers should speak as much English as possible inside the classroom. She stated it is difficult because it is a wide range between the best oral student and the worst, which makes it hard to stay English speaking all the time. “If the lesson is planned thoroughly, it is easier to speak English all the time, because the language is more suited for all levels”. She also stressed the importance not to be overly serious all the time when speaking English in the classroom. She said it is important to have a light tone and prove to the students that “we” make mistakes as well. “Of course, the importance in classroom-environment has to be there, and make clear rules, that everybody agrees with”. This teacher also had great success with “small simple oral assignments” as she called them. This could be “twenty questions”, where each student choose “to be” another student, and the rest of the class is going to guess which student he or she chose to be by asking questions that narrow it down. She also mentioned roll-play, where the student had to make a figure, anything he or she wanted, and present it to the class afterwards. These types of activities are very informal, and often very funny. To speak correctly is not the focus point of these exercises and the students are not afraid of everyone listening to their English per say, but rather what they present. She emphasised the need for students to have a basic vocabulary, because it is necessary for speaking. She stressed the importance of making students speak in some form or another in the classroom. She
said she could adjust in which settings, but everyone shall speak.

When she was asked for reasons why students are reluctant to speak she said extensively that lower secondary is a stressful time for students, where “everyone” tries to not be different, and tries to fit in. She also said that the most stressful settings for the students are settings where everyone’s eyes are on a student, which can be a challenge for many. This teacher also brought up something very valuable and interesting, that when one speaks in a foreign language you “become” someone else. If you have a great first language, but struggles in the foreign language you become imprecise, more stupid, less intelligent and does not get social cues to the extent one does in their first language. This can become really stressful for many students.

She was asked which settings are the most and the least stressful for the students and she answered that groups, smaller groups, with the potency of who goes well with whom are the least anxiety inducing settings. Also methods where students are walking around the classroom and asking each other questions are working really well. This is due to in these types of settings all eyes are not on one specific student, which makes it less stressful. The most stressful settings for the students were when the student had to speak alone in front of the class, or performing a presentation.

### 3.3 Summary of interview with teacher two

Teacher two works with students from 8th to 10th grade. She said she focuses on oral participation in the classroom relatively extensively. The reasoning for this is that: “it is harder to assess and grade oral than written English”. She mentioned that she did not weight oral English more than written English. Upon answering question about what she does to make her students participate more she said she used big or small groups, which works “depending on who goes well with whom”. She also said she wants to make oral participation as little frightening as possible for the students. She mentioned she often divides students into male and female groups, and let the students speak alone with the teacher. She stated that many students enjoy speaking in the classroom, and that the “best” method is to create an atmosphere where participation is fun from the start of. “The most difficult part when it comes to oral participation is a class where everyone refuses to speak, for different kind of reasons”.

At listing variables that make students willing to speak, she argued that skills, especially perceived skills are relatively high on the list. “It is not necessarily the best students who speak the most, but the students who see them self as good, and who are not afraid to make mistake that tend to speak the most”. Social factors were a big part of reasons for students to be reluctant to speak. Students
who struggle, are shy and have low self-esteem will not participate as much as those who are not. “Shy students can be easier to help, especially by using smaller groups and students they trust, but students who do not want to speak for the sake of it, are very problematic to help”. She brought up class-environment as a big contributor to oral participation, and said that classes who are having many students who often ”fool” around, are likely to have more reluctant students, due to the fact that it is easier to be afraid in those classes.

3.4 Correspondents of teacher and student interviews

Both of the teacher viewed oral participation as very important. They both acknowledged that there are difficulties in the classroom when it comes to oral participation. They did have some different approaches to oral participation. Teacher one mentioned some nice methods to include everyone, which involved fun oral exercises that are not anxiety provoking for the students and teacher said she liked to make students participate on their own terms and divided into groups and sometimes divided the students by gender. This correlates with some student interviews where they liked group and pair exercises that did not involve speaking alone to the whole class. Both of the teachers stressed the importance of a healthy classroom-environment, and that an unhealthy one may be destructive for the oral participation in the classroom. This was also something that was brought up during my student interviews. They both said that pair and group work are the least stressful for the students, which their students agreed with. Most of the answering corresponds with their student answers, however there are pupils who are not fully comfortable with speaking in the classroom. Even though most of the students said that the teachers had created a healthy classroom environment, there are still difficulties with the perceived fear of making a mistake. This problem was not given any direct fix to by the teachers.

Teacher one mentioned one very difficult dilemma in her interview. Should teachers continue speaking only English in the classroom when there are students who not fully comprehend what the teachers say? This is a dilemma that other studies reported had a negative influence on students’ oral participation. In terms of mending low participation in the classroom the teachers said; creating a healthy classroom-environment, encourage oral language in general, use small informal oral exercises, letting students speak in settings where they are comfortable. The teachers gave very little concrete methodology to mend anxiety in the classroom and how to mend students who are afraid to speak in front of people. They mentioned that they try to make the students that experienced anxiety to speak in less public settings, such as alone with the teacher or together with their best friend. Likewise they used some activities that were stress and anxiety-free for many students. The students
do not feel as much anxiety in activities where they are not the only one to speak. The variables that were mentioned in my teacher interviews were self-efficacy, perceived oral skills, not to lose face in front of peers, classroom environment and shyness.
4. Theory

There are many theories and conducted studies that all helps to find what can increase and what can decrease oral participation. This chapter investigates how to increase oral participation from a theoretical point of view and from teachers’ (and pupils’) point of view.

4.1 Introduction to Theory chapter

The need for learning a second language has increased over the years. The amounts of ways we interact with people have escalated, and thus, the need of a language to communicate with has become more important. Even though the theory and research in this field is unclear regarding what type of oral participation increase students’ oral skills, it should not leave out the importance of speaking in the classrooms. For some students the classroom interaction might be the only oral practice in a second language they ever have, and thus, the need to investigate why they participate is very important.

With the increasing significance of students’ oral practise and participation, this study wants to investigate as earlier mentioned what specifically increase or decrease students’ oral participation in the English subject. When discovering these variables I could have been selective of the countries or for the students the different studies are conducted in or with. It should be noted that there are differences with students from different cultures. Therefore I needed to see if the variables could be representative for Norwegian students of English as well. As you will see I did not find good sources for oral participation in Norway. I am aware that countries have different ways of approaching oral participation, and many countries are not as exposed to English as a foreign language to the extent we are in Norway. The findings from the conducted research have been used to discover what variables this chapter will focus on. The variables that contribute to less oral participation that the research found were communicative confidence(self-esteem), classroom environment, anxiety and motivation. These findings will be used to discover how the variables can be said to influence the students’ oral participation.

Firstly there will be a description of the importance of oral participation and why teachers should be aware of causes to low participation.

4.1.1 State of communication in the Norwegian National Curriculum

As this paper will investigate, oral participation is important in Norwegian schools. In the Norwegian
National Curriculum (LK06), it is specified in the general section, which functions as aims that are not targeting the English Curriculum, but they are aims students shall work towards and reach until they graduate (Norwegian Directory of Education, 2015,p1-2). Some of the traits we want the students accumulate in Norway are the creative human, working human, to seek meaning and be curious, cooperative human (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2015,p.1-2). In all of these types the students need to use oral language to achieve these aims. One cannot be critical, seeking meaning, or cooperate with other humans if one has not to a certain degree high level of communicative competence. There will be other skills one can approach these types with. However, there should be no denying that oral communication is important. This also shows the importance of oral language in Norwegian schools. This demands that the teachers actively incorporate student participation of any kind in their lessons. In Norway there are also sets of Basic Skills that shall be incorporated into every lesson, and into every aim in Lk06. These are writing, reading, digital tools, numeracy and oral participation (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2013,p.4). Even though oral participation and oral skills are referred to as a basic skill, the other basic skills may overshadow it. This might be due to oral participation being such an easy skill to incorporate into all lessons for many students, and thereby not “needed” to be the focus point.

According to Brøyn (2008) there are four and a half pages devoted to the basic skills reading and writing in the basic skills section of LK06. However, there are little more than fifteen lines devoted to oral participation (Brøyn, 2008, p.72). One could argue that in a paradigm, which focuses on student involvement, and a world where communication is more central than ever before, that oral communication is as big a part of it as any of the other basic skills. There are many silent students in Norwegian schools who are not able to achieve the aims in these basic skills, just as there are many students who do not achieve the aims for the other skills. Then why is not oral participation given equal amount of room?

A commission was asked by the government to consider and assess which types of competence we need in the future society and work-life (NOU 2015: 8). The competences we need schools to emphasise in a perspective of 20-30 years are competence in communicating, work together and participation (NOU 2015: 8). As you can see, communicative competence is very important, and will be even more important in the future. This gives further proof that one needs to emphasise that every student are be able to communicate. There is a difference between presenting something and communication. The Common European Framework of Reference for Language divides communication in two sections, production and interaction. This means that stand in front of people and speak is not the same as to be able to speak properly (CEFR, 2017). However, the Norwegian
curriculum makes no such distinction and students receive an oral grade for their production and interaction together. This paper will note make such a distinction and will focus on communication general.

4.1.2 Norwegian National Curriculum theoretical background

Socio-cultural learning is one of the more central theories that the current Norwegian school-system is built upon. What is central Vygotsky’s theory is that he at least got far to combine the individual and the social in psychology (Imsen, 2012, p. 253). The human is in constant change and human development is central for his theories. LK06 is founded on the theory that learning is a product of social activity (Imsen, 2012, 255). This means that we learn together with others, and that student-student-involvement should be central in Norwegian schools. To be able to socialise with others, one has to be able to communicate a language, and this is where speech becomes central. One can argue that there are other ways of communication, but the most common inside the classroom is through oral participation. To further boost the proof that communicative skills are vital in students’ learning, for Vygotsky, speech is a tool to explain how to acquire culture and equal knowledge (Imsen, 2012, 255). Language is built upon culture, and when you learn a new language you also acquire its culture, to some degree. When one is learning a language, one simply does not just obtain the specific sound and reproduce the language, one obtains a specific set of skills that are special to that specific language (Gardner, 1968, p.143). Vygotsky explains that communication is not necessarily only speech, but eye contact, smiles and body language equally counts as communication (Imsen, 2012,255). In his theory, speech is divided into the language we use, and the inner voice we use when we think. Language becomes vital in intellectual development (Imsen, 2012, pp.256-257).

4.1.3 Adapted Education and Oral participation

Another reason for teachers to be aware of the factors behind students’ participation is that they are obliged to take care of, and nurture every student’s needs inside the classroom. The reason the teachers have to implement individual methodology to help students to participate more, can easily be answered by referring to term Tilpasset opplæring i.e adapted education. Adapted education is central in Norwegian schools and is implemented in The law of Education (1998, §1-3) where it says ” the education shall be adapted to every students’ specific needs ” (2008). This means every teacher has to work with students on an individual level, to face their individual difficulties. However, if teachers in Norway are obliged to work with individuals and their specific needs, one question that can be raised is that if a student feels a lot of stress and anxiety in certain activities, how come they are still forced to speak in those?
The Norwegian Ministry for Education and Research states that students’ participation and what they receive out of it are decisive factors regarding whether the education they receive is adapted or not (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2016). Equally The Norwegian Curriculum includes values and guidelines that have to be seen in connection to adapted education. These values can be seen to be: inclusion, variation, experiences, collaboration, relevancy, values etc (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2016). If teachers are working with these guidelines, the education also has to represent guidelines concerning oral participation. It may be easy to say, that to include a variety of methods will be a way of working with this inside the classroom, yet if some of the methods used are upright destructive for the student, then a variety of methods will to suffice. I am not saying drastic measures are needed, and that this is a vast problem in Norwegian schools. The teachers are obliged to give the students a healthy school environment that is anxiety free and promotes learning. There is a high chance that student may evolve anxiety while they speak or learn a new language, and therefore, the teachers need to be aware what pits not to fall into, and how to get the students out of the pits if they fall into one.

4.1.4 The Consequence of Anxiety

The present study showed that anxiety was a factor that made students participate less frequently in the classroom. The last chapter in the introduction to theory will be concerning how anxiety actually influences student oral production. Even though this study has discovered, at least for the participants that participated in the study, that anxiety will reduce student participation. I need to investigate how anxiety can influence the actually speech of the students to give further proof that teachers should be aware of this difficulty.

Khider (2015) mentions three stages of learning where anxiety can influence, 1) input, 2) Processing, 3) output (Khider, 2015, p.26). The input stage refers to how anxiety directly interferes with the input in which the student does not acquire the information. Khider refers to Krashen (1985) and says “the affective filter causes learners’ inability to acquire a language” (Krashen, 1985, cited in Khider, 2015,p.27). Input anxiety is when students encounter new input they cannot comprehend or cannot acquire as a cause of experiencing anxiety. Processing is the stage where the student uses the language. This is a stage where anxiety influences the students on a cognitive level, and causes the students to forget vocabulary, and makes the students speak less fluent as a cause of anxiety (Khider, 2015,p.27). The output process is when anxiety actually hinders students to speak properly. Khider (2015) refers to McIntyre and Gardner (1991) that states a high level of anxiety will hinder the

Xianping (n.d) investigated 97 non-English major college students in an ordinary university in China. The participants were categorised into high and low in terms of experiencing anxiety, which was determined by a pre-test scale that measure their anxiety degrees (Xianping, n.d, p.1). The results of this study explicitly state that in general, as the anxiety increases the quality of oral performance decreases (Xianping, n.d, p.10). However, the researcher says that this study is limited by its small amount of participants, and that its aim was to discover indications of how anxiety influence oral performance, and not discover generalizable rules. Nevertheless the indications presented above are expressing similar results as other studies as well.

Oya, Manalo and Greenwood (2004) investigated how personality and anxiety influence oral performance of Japanese speakers of English. There were seventy-three native speakers of Japanese, 22 male and 51 female in the age group from 18 -67 years old (Oya, Manalo & Greenwood, 2004, p.846. In order to measure the participants’ language the participants were given six cards that combined became a story that the participants should set in correct order. The participants were then given time to memorise the story, and prepare on how to retell the story. The recordings started when the participants began to retell the story. The data was analysed in terms of fluency, accuracy, complexity and global impression. The results of the study described above states that the variables used to measure oral performance correlated significantly with the participants’ extraversion and neuroticism scores. Global impression correlated significantly with extraversion scores, but there was found no significant correlates with neuroticism scores (Oya, et.al, 2004, p. 848). This study also found the same results as Xianping (n.d) that the higher level of anxiety a student has, the lower their oral performance gets.

Hewitt & Stephenson (2011) conducted a study that wanted to discover how anxiety influenced students’ oral exam performance. They replicated Phillip’s (1992) study that is entitled The Effects of Language Anxiety on Students’ oral test Performance and attitudes. They used both quantitative tests and qualitative interviews to investigate the subject. Forty participants participated and all had Spanish as they native language. A result from this study was that […] “the more anxious the students were, the more English they uttered (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011, p.186). At the same time, the more anxious the students became, the worse their language got as well (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011, p.186).
The studies and theories presented above give merits to the importance of awareness of student anxiety. It is evident that anxiety will hurt the oral performance of the students in many cases, and therefore, investigating in which settings students experience anxiety and how it influences the students should be investigated more in depth. This also shows that teachers should take anxiety seriously. While it may take time, effort and preparation to actually reduce anxiety, the positive outcomes are so evident that it should be worth it. If anxiety influences student oral performance negatively, the students will speak differently in different settings. If the student experience a high degree of anxiety in oral presentations meanwhile not in group work, the students will communicate better in group and pair work. For teachers this means that the students will speak differently in different settings. In terms of assessment, should the students be assessed in settings where they experience high anxiety, or in settings where they are comfortable about speaking?

4.2 Willingness to communicate

McIntyre (2007) describes Willingness to Communicate (WTC) as […] “the probability of speaking when free to do so” (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 3). This model describes students who are willing to communicate, actively search for settings to communicate. McIntyre states that the willingness to communicate is both a psychological and socio-political process, since it is functioning at an individual and contextual level (McIntyre, 2007). This theory has received large attention in recent years and is focusing on life-like speech. McIntyre (2007) developed a model that describes the students’ willingness to use their second language.
The model contains 6 layers and 12 constructions. The first layers are considered to be lasting variables, while the last three layers are actual use at a specific given time. Layer VI is what the individual has no influence over, their personality and intergroup climate. This is something that exists even before the individual is born. Layer V describes situations where the communication is going to take place, and the attitudes and competence of the speakers. This is where the competence of the speaker, and what type of context the communication takes place in influence the students’ WTC. Layer IV describes the inner motivation of the speaker. In this layer the teacher can influence the speaker, since influencing the self-confidence and motivation of the individual as well as the group is proven to be effective for communication. The next layer describes the students’ desire to initiate a conversation, which is influenced by the state of its self-confidence. Then there is the degree the student is willing to communicate and lastly, the use of L2 (MacIntyre, 2007,p. 568).

This model portrays the choices and reflections the students can go through and make before they choose to participate in certain situations. It most firmly describes how students initiate communication. They might seem vague and describes concepts that are difficult to measure. However McCroskey (1992) investigated WTC and developed a model that one can scale the students’ willingness to communicate. In Reliability and validity of the Willingness to communicate (1992) he describes how his willingness to communication scale can be used to researchers to
identify how often and in which settings the students tend to initiate communication (McCroskey, 1992). This is an easy survey where students answer 20 questions regarding settings they initiate communication. This scale as McCroskey says [...] “is of sufficient quality to be recommended for research and screening purposes” (McCroskey, 1992, p. 16).

Oral participations a complex process, and is often not bound to a single decision or variable. This model is not functioning for teachers to analyse why every student choose to participate at a single given time, but can be used for teachers to see in what type of layer or construction the student makes the decision to not participate. Whether it is the intergroup climate, personality-trait or self-esteem that prohibits the student to participate are different variables, and will require different methods and approaches in order to mend these problems. This model will be used to receive an overview of some factors that influence the students before they decide to communicate. Many researchers in the field of oral participation or oral communication use this model in their work. This meant it was necessary for this study to begin with the WTC model as starting point in the exploration in student communication.

4.3 Learning Anxiety

Learning anxiety is a severe problem that many students experience, especially regarding foreign language classrooms. If a student has experienced any type of anxiety with learning before, this could be amplified in a second language classroom. Anxiety is vague and hard to define. As MacIntyre (2007) states “language anxiety captures the worry and usually negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using an L2” (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 564.) There are many causes for students to feel some form of anxiety when they participate. Anxiety is emphasised in this thesis because many variables that contribute to less oral participation can be seen through the term anxiety. In the theory chapter I will discuss what the different theorists and researchers say about anxiety. Even though anxiety is not the only variable that influences students’ participation, anxiety contains many variables that influence oral participation and thus, I needed to devote a large part of this section to anxiety. Nevertheless, some variables are easier to see and mend than others, and anxiety is neither. Therefore a great amount of space will be spent in this part to anxiety, but, since factors are often intertwined, this thesis will touch on other variables as well. As a common thought, if we view anxiety as a contributor to low oral participation, a beginning to increase oral participation should be to discover what causes anxiety, and then how to eliminate the source of it.

Many different studies and scholars choose to focus on different aspects of anxiety, which make it difficult to deal with. It becomes even more complex when one tries to combine many of them.
Young (1991) investigated language anxiety and she states that earlier research on the subject was […] “hindered by a lack of consistencies in a variety of areas” (Young, 1991, p. 427). She argues that earlier research often did not state if they were examining more than one anxiety variable. She now (1991) claims the newer research has treated language learning as a distinct type of anxiety and should be researched as such to find anxieties relate to language learning.

Young argues that there are six different sources of language learning; 1) personal and interpersonal anxieties, 2) learner beliefs about language learning, 3) instructor beliefs about language teaching, 4) instructor-learner interactions, 5) language procedures, and 6) language testing (Young, 1991, p. 427). Language testing in this regard is not a source of anxiety relevant to my paper. The other five sources to anxiety will be used as a starting point and see how these can be related to oral participation. I do not have the empirical nor the theoretical data to state that these are the only types of anxiety that may occur in the classroom. These categories help me discuss and portray the different types of anxiety. They also show that often these types of anxieties are intertwined and that they should be looked at in relation to each other. By presenting this Young (1991) is describing what McIntyre means by saying WTC is functioning on an individual and contextual level. It can be individual traits, but can also be a result of social interactions that appear in the classroom. It might be debatable whether the different sources of language learning presented by Young (1991) are the correct way of portraying them. At the same time that study was also written in 1991 and thus, it might be to some extent out dated. Nevertheless, they function as a starting point for this study to investigate different types of anxieties, and I have combined some of the sources to anxieties such as student and teacher beliefs about language learning, since it was easier to present the theory that way.

4.3.1 Personal and Interpersonal anxieties

Personal and interpersonal anxieties are anxieties that are developed inside the student and are often out of its control. This section describe self-esteem, personality trait and communication apprehension. Even though this is complex, and there will be external factors that influence the students’ self-esteem, this will be taken into account in the later sections. The section will start by presenting theory regarding self-esteem and there are several theorists in the field that state how self-esteem, self-efficacy and confidence can be related to students’ oral participation. Hongmei, Haishen and Xiaoming (2011) investigated how personality-based variables correlated with students’ willingness to communicate. They wrote a theoretical study were they investigated several authors and theorists and combined their findings to try and discover the influences to willingness to communicate. Park and Lee (2004) investigated self-confidence, however they looked at how it can
be related to anxiety. They examined how self-confidence and anxiety can be related to oral performance. They interviewed 132 Korean students who went to English conversation classes in 2004 (Park and Lee, 2004). Furthermore Young (2011) wrote a doctor’s thesis about self-efficacy and language learning, and she used student and teacher surveys to examine the subject. Consequently findings from Bosacki, Coplan, Krasnor and Hughes (2011) and Abdullah, Bakar and Mahbob (2012) will be used to further proof how the different variables influence students’ oral participation. Even though some of the other studies touch on communication apprehension, the theory presented by McCroskey (1980) and McCroskey (1976) will be used to present how communication apprehension will influence students’ willingness to communicate.

4.3.1.1 Self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-confidence.

There is a strong correlation between these three terms, and how they influence student participation may also be very similar. However, this secondary chapter will discuss theories that present all three of these terms. To avoid misunderstanding I will present a definition of the three terms before I present theories in the field. Self-efficacy stems from Bandura, and is the individual’s view of his own capabilities to achieve a specific task. Self-esteem is confidence in one's own worth or abilities; self-respect” (Oxford dictionaries, n.d). Self-confidence is “A feeling of trust in one's abilities, qualities, and judgment (Oxford dictionaries, n.d). One can clearly see how these relate to one and another, but I will not analyse the small differences in meaning these have. I am aware of the different meanings, however, in regard to oral participation, to share the same influencing factor, which can be said to be “am I good enough to speak”.

Hongmei, Haishen and Xiaoming (2011) give an insight to the complexity of oral participation, and how it is difficult to analyse WTC in general. They argue that there are two different perspectives through which one can view WTC; the trait and state level State level can be described as mood, physiological factors, environmental conditions and many more (Haishen et.al, 2011, p. 254). These factors are very complex, and many of them can be altered over time, therefore it might be difficult to analyse and explain them. Nevertheless, many researchers that have been investigated in this paper have tried to discover why they influence students’ oral participation. I have no desire to not abandon the investigation of the state level just because it is complex. However, I acknowledge that mending a mood that is in constant change will be almost impossible. Yet, there are merits to presenting it so teachers are aware that students’ mood, equally with the teachers mood may influence student participation.
Traits as Hongmei et al. (2011) say, “are stable and enduring dispositions” (Haishen et.al, 2011, p.254). These traits are character traits and not factors that influence, but rather something students are which have an effect on why they participate as they do. The first traits the researchers bring to light in their essay are Introversion/extraversion. Extravert persons tend to communicate more than introverts and have a stronger willingness to communicate. Meanwhile Introverts tend to […] “avoid social interaction” (Haishen et.al, 2011, p. 254-255), which will make them communicate less with others. This might, for some students give lower self-esteem because lacking practise of oral participation as extraverts have. The other trait, which the researchers bring up, is Emotional stability/neuroticism. A person who has high level of emotional stability tends to be calm, secure and self-assured (Haishen et.al, 2011, p. 255). Often these kinds of persons are extraverts as they have a high degree of self-esteem when communicating with others, and a high level of WTC. People who have low emotional stability […] “show neurotic tendencies such as nervousness, emotional distress insecurity and feelings of inadequacy” (Haishen et.al, 2011, p.255). These persons are nervous when communicating and have low degree of willingness to communicate. The third trait they introduce is self-esteem.

Young (1991) also mentions self-esteem as a vast contributor to anxiety in the section she calls personal and interpersonal anxieties. Self-esteem is also inside layer 3 in Macintyre’s (2007) WTC model. Park and Lee (2004) state anxiety is one of the most negatively influential affective variables that prevent learners from successfully learning a foreign language. It makes language learners nervous and afraid, which contribute to poor aural/oral performance (Park & Lee, 2004, p. 197). They claim self-confidence is correlated with anxiety, which […] “involves judgments and evaluations about ones own value and worth “(Park & Lee, 2004, p. 197). One can easily see that experiencing a degree of anxiety will result in worse self-confidence, which makes it difficult to be able to speak in class.

Park and Lee (2004) refer to Heyde’s (1979) research and he argues that high self-esteem is a variable that contributed to a better communication. More so, motivation, personality, self-esteem, willingness to communicate and intergroup climate, are important factors that determine the students willingness to communicate (Heyde 1979 cited in Park & Lee, 2004, p. 198). Even though it might be hard to discover how students are developing anxiety in the classroom, research shows that it often involves fear of being corrected and their peer’s assessment of one self. Park and Lee (2004) state that there are three components of second language anxiety that have been looked upon and examined; these are communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation (Park & Lee, 2004, p. 199). Park and Lee explained how self-confidence can influence student anxiety,
meanwhile they do it portray how self-confidence directly influence WTC. Yough (2011) conducted a study that investigated self-efficacy, classroom climate and willingness to communicate. The researcher argues that it is not necessarily the ability in the target language, but rather the perceived ability in the target language that influence the students willingness to communicate (Yough, 2011, p. 177). If this is correct, a student can be willing to communicate in the classroom, not based on his grades, but how he sees his own capabilities to speak English. This might be one variable that contributes to some higher graded students remain passive in the lessons. This also correlates with Törnqvist’s (2008) findings, where students were asked what factors influenced their oral participation and self-esteem was seen upon as a big contributor (Törnqvist, 2008, p. 26).

Self-esteem correlates with students believing they are good enough to participate in the target language. At the same time this can work the other way around as well. Haishen (et.al, 2011) mention perceived communication competence as a factor that can be a cause for communication apprehension. They also say that when a student develop basic skills in the target language and have been encouraged to speak and have had good memories of it, the perceived communication competence will rise, thus the willingness to communicate will rise as well (Haishen et.al, 2011, p. 256). This gives further merits towards assessment of oneself is vital in terms of oral participation. A student might have low self-esteem because of a personality they have. If self-esteem can cause communication apprehension it is important that this is a variable teachers are aware of.

Communication apprehension correlates with shy children and they often share the same behaviour in the classroom. Even though Haishen et.al (2011) mention communication apprehension, to further understand this phenomenon one has to seek one of the more experienced theorists in the field of communication apprehension.

4.3.1.2 Communication apprehension

Communicative apprehension (CA) is also a variable that affects student’s oral participation. This condition correlates heavily with shyness. Even though these are not the same, students who are shy or have high communication apprehension may share similar behaviour. McCroskey and Richmond (1982) say ”communication apprehension constructs and predicts the behaviour from a single cause-fear or anxiety. Shyness, on the other hand, suggests the behaviour may be the product of social anxiety, low social skills, or low social self-esteem” (McCroskey & Richmond, 1982, p.460). Communication apprehension is the fear the individual experiences, real or anticipated when communicating with another person (McCroskey, 1980p. 240-241). Even though communication apprehension can be related to shyness, and by the definition above students who are having high
degree of communication apprehension are shy since they avoid social interactions in general. It is easy to look at communication apprehension as a trait, since as Hongmei (et.al, 2011) say communication apprehension [...] “can be treated as a trait-like predisposition”(Haishen et.al, 2011, p.255). This has become the new way one can view communication apprehension, and McCroskey himself, agrees that the old definition of CA involves some clunky restrictions and contradictions. Firstly, McCroskey (1982) says the old definition did not include oral, and that there are many ways a person can communicate without speaking (p.137). At the time of this article, he recognises that there are several other types of apprehension such as, singing apprehension and writing apprehension. However, mostly when people refer to CA in general, it is oral communication apprehension they are referring to (McCroskey, 1982, p.139).

Communication apprehension is an underlying factor that often is a defining factor whether students choose to communicate in class, or not. [...] “No matter what degree the intense of communication apprehension is, it will reduce the willingness to communicate“ (Haishen et.al, 2011, p. 256). McCroskey (1976) even states this phenomenon is as a major handicap overlooked by researchers and even the US Department of Health, Education and Welfare (McCroskey, 1976, p. 39). While the field of communication recognizes its impact in public settings, other settings have generally been ignored (McCroskey, 1976, p.42). However, more research has come to light since 1976, and now communication apprehension is not an uncommon variable to research on. McCroskey (1976) states [...] “people suffering from communication apprehension also behave differently in small group communication context” (McCroskey, 1976, p. 42). As I have deliberated above, having high communication apprehension will harm the students’ communication and their social interactions. One could easily say that these types of students will avoid participating frequently and often fall into the category of silent students who avoid settings of participation in the classroom. McCroskey (1976) mentions five points that are previously researched on and at that time can be seen as true or at least theoretically grounded.

1) People vary in the degree to which they are apprehensive about communication with other people,
2) People with high communication apprehension seek to avoid communication,
3) People with high communication apprehension engage in less verbal communication than less apprehensive people,
4) People with high communication apprehension communicate differently than people with low communication apprehension,
5) People with high communication apprehension are perceived less positively by others with less communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1976, p. 45).
By this theory, a high degree of communication apprehensive is a handicap, and will be destructive for students’ oral participation. It would be very interesting to see to what extent communication apprehension could affect the learning outcome for the students who live it. One thing to note is that even though this is an old theory, made in 1976, its content is still relevant today, as many of today’s theorists in the field use this as a base for their own studies. As described earlier communication apprehension correlates with shyness, and often students who are shy may have a degree of communication apprehension.

4.3.1.3 Personality-trait
McCroskey (1980) investigated quiet children and the implications they had at school. He refers to his own previous research and says “teachers’ behaviour towards quiet children probably is habitual rather than adapted to the individual child” (McCroskey, 1980, p.239). He says that for the most part when he asks teachers about what to do with quiet children, most of them says “give them more speaking experience” (McCroskey, 1980, p.240). McCroskey claims that quiet students only have one thing in common, and that is that they are quiet (McCroskey, 1980, p.240). There are some causes that teachers should be aware that might increase the chance of students becoming/are quiet.

Low intellectual skills is the first one he draws up. McCroskey (1980) says that his previous work has found that many teachers state that their students are quiet as a result of their intellect. The second variable is social introversion. People who are socially introverted prefer to be alone rather than being with other people. They are not people who cannot speak with others, but more often than not these people choose not to. The next one is social alienation. McCroskey (1980) says “some young people, particularly as they reach the secondary school years, become alienated from their society and its values and goals” (McCroskey, 1980, p.240). These children are usually quiet, or absent in the classroom, and particularly difficult to help. McCroskey also mentions skill deficiencies as a variable that creates quiet children. These types are students with communication difficulties that result in a more introvert type of behaviour in the classroom. One of the causes to anxiety might be a personality trait such as shyness. It can be harder to define students as shy rather than actually mend this problem, since the distinction between shy and silent is a bit unclear. Even though McCroskey (1980) implies that one should be careful categorise factors for shy children, there will be some behaviour they share together.
Bosacki, Coplan, Krasnor and Hughes (2011) conducted a study where they investigated teachers’ reflection on shy students, what methodology they used to help them and what thoughts they had on the subject. This study was performed on Canadian teachers and they interviewed seven teachers and several students. The students were from 7-11 years old. The participants in this study were asked to define shy children and they defined shyness as lack of oral communication, preference for solitary, focused on observing their surroundings and hesitation to join larger groups (Bosacki et.al, 2011, p. 276). All of these definitions express that shy children will experience difficulties with, or avoid oral participation. Some teachers also expressed that there was a difference between being shy and quiet, since a student being quiet is a choice, and often bound to fear of mistakes, and unfamiliar topic (Bosacki et.al, 2011, 276-277). All of the teachers in this paper said shy children will differ from one and another, and the shyness might alternate over time and the shyness might decline in some part of the students’ life (Bosacki et.al, 2011, p. 77). Shyness was not necessarily just a bad trait. In many cases shy children would behave better, follow instructions from the instructor more than others (Bosacki et.al, 2011, p.77). However one might question the teacher that said this because categorising a trait that makes students develop anxiety and nervousness as a positive phenomenon can be questioned. Secondly a student that does not interrupt the lesson with inappropriate behaviour because he is too afraid is not showing positive behaviour because he wants to, but because he is too afraid.

Teachers they might benefit to investigate the degree of shyness of their students if they want to mend the problem. The Shyness scale (SS) often referred to as McCroskey’s Shyness Scale, is a scale that may help teachers categorising the degree of shyness. This test is very easy and fast to use for teacher, and it only needs the students to answer questions about their own perceptions. There are 14 questions the students are supposed to answer, and they answer by to the extent they agree, 1 -5 (McCroskey, 1984,p. 203). This test may help teachers to receive validation on student trait, which may help them when they assess how to help students that do not participate as much in the classroom. In the classroom a method like the survey described above might work best to map whether the students are shy, or whether there are other variables that makes them reluctant to speak. The degree of shyness might not be as important than it is to find the causes for low participation.

As this chapter started with, many of these anxieties and variables are often intertwined. Bosacki et al. (2011) also show how shyness correlates with self-esteem and self-confidence. Some shy children […] “may experience lower self-esteem or self-confidence than others” (Bosacki et al., 2011,p. 277). At the same time students can have a personality that makes them reluctant to speak in the classroom that has nothing to with anxiety. Abdullah et al. (2012) conducted a study that investigated students’
involvement in the classroom. The aim for this study was not bound to second language learning, but rather science and humanities lectures at the University of Malaysia. The research was, interestingly student focused. It was an observation of the students and a smaller group discussion by and with the students about the observations. Some of the factors that encouraged the students to participate in the classroom are they felt a responsibility, […] “as a part of their personality to speak in the class” (Abdullah et al., 2012, p.519). They had an inner “voice” which led them to ask the teacher, if they believed they had trouble with understanding, wanted to know, or just needed further understanding of the topic. Others explained they had a personality that lead them to wanting attention, thereby made them participating a lot in oral discussion and freely raised their hands and asked questions (Abdullah et al., 2012, p.519).

The studies presented above give proof that teachers need to be aware of shy children in the classroom. These are students who are exposed to anxiety, and will behave accordingly. At the same time students with a degree of communication apprehension will also need special care, in terms of where and when they participate in the classroom. These are valid variables that will influence student participation. Teachers that are not aware of these difficulties will have problems in terms of students’ welfare, and student participation.

4.3.2 Learner and teacher beliefs about language learning

This section will mostly present findings around oral corrective feedback. This was a variable that was not directly brought up in this research’s student or teacher interviews. The students in this study never viewed corrective feedback as something that increased their anxiety, or caused anxiety in general. However, since teacher one did state that she did sometimes correct students’ oral performance, I decided to investigate this phenomenon more deeply.

Tanveer’s (2007) wrote a master’s thesis in the University of Glasgow and his findings will be used to investigate this type of anxiety. This study investigated the causes for anxiety when learners use their oral language. Tanveer interviewed 20 participants in total, whereas three were teachers. He discovered that many students feared the teacher and feared corrective feedback on their oral work. Tanveer’s findings contradict with Agudo’s (2012) study. Agudo (2012) wanted to discover how EFL (English as a foreign language) learners respond to oral corrective feedback. The limitations of Tanveer’s study may be that it is a small sampling of participants, Agudo (2012) on the other hand used questionnaire and gave it to 208 EFL secondary school learners. This section will also examine the findings from Abebe and Deneke’s study (2015) where they collected data from 300 college students on causes to low oral participation in different universities in Ethiopia. Even though I want
to find variables common for students in lower secondary school, the findings presented by studies conducted in universities correlates with findings in lower levelled schools. This gives cause to believe that variables for low student participation are not fixed to a specific age group but rather fixed to the individual or the context the participation is situated in.

Tanveer (2007) investigated the topic of anxiety in ESL (English as a second Language). He sought to investigate what factors cause anxiety and what impact they have on communication. His study included 20 participants; both students and teachers of ESL and the study were performed as a semi-structured interview and group discussion. Tanveer discovered that if the teacher has a habit of correcting students’ oral work or what they present in front of the class students might receive an increased feeling of anxiety (Tanveer, 2006). Agudo (2012) also investigated this phenomenon analysing answers from students in Spain with English as their second language. His conclusion was that many students actually wanted oral corrective feedback and saw this as very helpful. “ Even though a high percentage of respondents resent and worry about making oral mistakes in the classroom context, most of them do not resent being orally corrected in the classroom” (Agudo, 2012, p. 273-274). What is upsetting for the students is the feeling of not fully understanding the feedback. It can be noted that Agudo (2012) also found that a smaller group of students felt an increased anxiety towards oral corrective feedback (Agudo, 2012, p. 273-274).

Abebe and Deneke (2015) also interviewed learners about their feelings towards volunteering in the class, and many felt concerned by this. 62% of the students felt they were afraid when asking questions to the teachers or instructors in the class and many said they were afraid the answers were wrong (Abebe & Deneke, 2015, p. 80). This is similar to Mohammad and Liew’s (2010) findings and the variables they found increased anxiety are, fear of answering questions, fear of being criticized, different teaching activities and personality (Mohammad & Liew, 2010, p. 7). Also, Abdullah et al. (2012) study received answers from students that they did not participate in the classroom because they were afraid of bad feedback from the teacher and some of them said they lacked confidence to speak up. Most of the students who were described as less participating students, answered they did not care for the subject or topic which lead them not participate. (Abdullah et al., 2012, p. 519).

It is interesting that there are different results in these studies. However, there are differences between how the studies are conducted which can implicate the data. Nevertheless these studies show that there are individual differences that will determine whether students feel positive to corrective feedback or not.

In Tanveer’s (2007) study fear of being correcting was not the only cause for anxiety, the students
answered they had severe problems and difficulties with pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary in English. This caused students to fear oral participation, and developing anxiety for speaking in the classroom (Tanveer, 2007, p. 47-50). This can also be a contributor to students’ fearing oral work. If they have difficulties speaking in general, receiving harsh correction can be the reason for the discrepancies between these two studies. However, this do show that there are individual differences regarding oral corrections, and teachers should be aware that there are students who favour it, and students who do not.

In Abebe and Deneke’s study (2015) many students answered they were shy, and therefore would not participate as much in the classroom. Half of the participants mentioned they feared being laughed at by the class. Another factor, that was mentioned, is lack of self-esteem, which was a result by lack of grammar, vocabulary or lack of the students’ own general communicative skills. The students said the teachers often gave corrective feedback while the students spoke oral English. This resulted, as the students said in anxiety and fear. Teacher trait was also seen as a negative factor that made students more reluctant to speak. Bad methodology and teacher skills were something the students noticed and complained to the researchers about. The study also found that class size did matter for the students, and they wanted smaller groups instead of a bigger class when they wanted to participate in a second language. Some said they lacked interest in English, and therefore did not bother to participate in it either. One of the most interesting factors was that some students said they were afraid of losing face in front of their peers. If the students received negative feedback in front of the class, some other students might continue mocking them later on. (Abebe & Deneke, 2015, pp. 80-84).

4.3.3 instructor-learner interactions,
Abebe and Deneke (2015) presented interesting findings where they found that students fear oral participation because they are afraid that their peers are assessing them. This is very related to classroom environment and classroom interactions. Therefore, section will present theory on classroom environment related to oral participation. Both of the teachers, as well as many of the participants in my study said that class-environment did influence oral participation. Therefore I needed to examine how it can be related to oral participation.

Tanveer (2007) will be central in this section to examine how classroom-environment can influence students’ oral participation from students’ point of view. I will use Mack (2011) and she investigated and conducted a critical action-research on classroom environment. She emphasises teacher
methodology, social inclusion and student voice as main factors that influence student participation. In this section I will also look into what theorists such as Drew & Sorheim (2016), Long & Porter (1985) and Krumsvik et al. (2011) say can categorise a healthy classroom-environment. I will in this section put these theorists up against conducted studies such as Mustapha, Rahman and Yunus (2010), Yough (2011), Abdullah, Bakar and Mahbob (2012) and Törnqvist (2008). Törnqvist (2008) conducted a study in Sweden where she interviewed 9th graders and their teachers about their view on oral participation and what variables they believed increased their own and their students’ oral participation. The participants were students of English as their second language. Meanwhile Mustapha et al. (2010) investigated influencers for oral participation with undergraduate students in Malaysia. Abdullah et al. (2012) investigated what motivates students to speak. Furthermore these conducted studies on student perceptions on oral participation will be used together with theory to see how classroom-environment can influence student participation. Consequently this section will also discuss classroom procedures and how different students might participate less in different activities. The present study made it clear that there are discrepancies between settings students’ favour to speak in, and thus this needs to be investigated in more depth.

Adelman and Taylor (in press) described classroom climate as “it emerges in a fluid state from complex transactions of many immediate environmental factors (e.g, physical, material, organisational, operational, and social variables). The students and teachers create the classroom-climate”. This is also in layer 2 in McIntyre’s (2007) WTC model that makes it an influencer for oral participation.

Even though it is a common thought that an unhealthy environment might produce low oral participation in the classroom. However, if one is trying to mend this, one has to investigate what directly makes the students less willing to speak. In Tanveer’s (2007) study, fear of making mistakes and other peers’ evaluation of oneself was said to increase anxiety for students. Many students said they feared being monitored not only by the teacher but other students as well when speaking alone in front of the class (Tanveer, 2007, p. 42). At the same time Park and Lee’s (2004) study show that students experienced anxiety when they felt other students assessing them. These two studies makes it clear that student relationships are important also related to oral participation. Mack (2011) also has some interesting findings in her study.

As with many studies I have investigated which involved Asian students of English as a SL, many of them suggest that Asian students are silent, and that there is a problem with the oral participation in many schools with Asian students. Mack (2011) explains that she refuses to take the stereotypical
silent student as a fact (Mack, 2011, p. 420). Her aim for this study were to […] “recognize the co-constructed nature of silence in this multicultural Asian learner classroom”, and to […] “restructure content and processes to make them equitable so all students feel as they have a voice and are socially included” (Mack, 2011, p. 421). Mack conducted a research to increase social justice in the classroom, and performed several interviews to gather data. I will present the most significant answers form her study. Fifty percent of the students mentioned they could not respond quickly enough when participating in the classroom, meanwhile thirty percent of them answered they worried about their English, and that they did not feel comfortable in these settings. When they were questioned about why they did not participate, forty seven percent answered they worried about their English, and that other students answered before “I” had a chance (Mack, 2011, p. 423). It is interesting that students do not feel they have the time to answer, which implicitly saying that the teacher do not wait for all students to finish they reflection before letting a student answer. Mack says eleven of fifteen students […] “said in some way that they felt most uncomfortable when speaking among people they did not know” (Mack, 2011, p.424). There will be students that one simply does not fully trust in a classroom with twenty-four different students. These three conducted studies above give more validation for teacher and student-interactions being a vital factor when analysing students’ willingness to communicate.

4.3.3.1 Classroom Environment and Classroom procedures
How teachers organise their classrooms may influence their students to a large extent. Drew and Sørheim (2016) state that speaking activities often require the teacher to have thought out the classroom organisation in advance to prepare the students to speak. If one wants to achieve life-like dialogues, the students should sit in front of one another to achieve this (Drew & Sørheim, 2016p. 59). Drew and Sørheim also say that letting students sit in pairs will increase their oral participation, since they often are more willing to speak with someone they are safe with, rather than the whole class (2016, p.59).

Long and Porter (1985) have similar opinions regarding group work and says group work promotes a positive affective climate (Long & Porter, 1985, p. 110). Students that are shy or insecure about their lingual skills might feel frightened to speak in front of whole classes. They become afraid when their teacher is correcting them right away when they speak. Group settings create a healthier environment and a more supporting setting than a regular classroom environment (Long & Porter, 1985, p. 110). This theory is very similar to what Törnqvist (2008) found in her study. There 25% of the students answered they are less active in settings where they had to speak in front of the whole class, and 54%
stated they are very active when the setting is formed as pairs, 26% of the students said they were affected by the size of the group and 26% said the persons in the groups affected their participation (Törnqvist, 2008, p. 26).

This can be due to findings in Mustapha et al. (2010). Factors that scored highly and reduced student participation were the fear of other students assessing them while they spoke alone in the classroom (Mustapha, Rahman, Yunus, 2010, p. 1082). Group and pair work might reduce the anxiety since they are (usually) with friends they trust. Interestingly they have contradiction in their findings since they interviewed students about what made them keep quiet in the lectures as well, and many of the students felt displeased with other students making noise while they tried to concentrate. This was the factor that discouraged the students the most from participating in lectures (Mustapha, et al., 2010, p. 1082).

One can easily argue that pair-work is a common method that is often used by teachers. It demands little effort in pre-preparation of the classroom, and one can easily switch back to regular teacher-student interactions afterwards. In the same genre, group work is a method that may not be used as much, since it demands more preparation of the classroom than pair-work. Long and Porter (1985) state that in a normal classroom setting where the teacher introduces topics and ask questions, there are little room for students to actually speak. Thereby actual oral participation might be due to the methodology by the teacher. Group work increases the chance for participation quite a lot (Long & Porter, 1985, p. 106).

In Abebe and Deneke’s study (2015) one of the highest anxiety provoking activities was when the students had to speak in front of the whole class alone. Almost half of the students said they were anxious when they had not prepared what they were going to say, which resulted in anxiousness. One of the more interesting factors that made the students anxious was when they were called upon to speak by the teacher. This could be a normal setting where the teacher wanted an answer to questions. The students that answered this said they felt their heart pounding and received an increased heart rate. Tanveer’s study (2007) also showed that having a presentation is contributor to anxiety as well, standing alone in front of the class contributed to unneeded stress for many students (Tanveer, 2007, p. 41). Tanveer also discovered that many participants in his study “blamed” strict and formal classroom environment as a directly cause for some of their language anxiety (Tanveer, 2007, p.40). This was consistent with the teacher answers where one teacher stated that open-forum setting contributed to more stress than pair work (Tanveer, 2007, p. 41).
Many of the reasons or students to prefer group and pair work is related to their experiences with their peers. Krumsvik et al. (2011) argue that as a teacher, one has to facilitate to a positive learning environment, support development of good relations between students and teachers and to organise learning activities which supports learning and good relations (Krumsvik et al., 2011, p. 148). The authors argue that teachers that only focus on skill will not necessarily help every student, since it will not develop a healthy environment for all students (Krumsvik et al., 2011, p. 149). One should focus on creating a healthy learning environment and how to best make the students learn simultaneously, though, one could argue this is easier in theory than in practise. Krumsvik et al claim that youths develop autonomy best when they are in a setting with good relations with their parents; inside the school there are settings with more structure and support that contributes to autonomy.

Students who do not experience a healthy environment will experience stress instead (Krumsvik et al., 2011, p. 143). The students in Törnqvist’s (2008) study answered that they believed a safe classroom would be one of the higher contributors to increasing oral participation. Secondly they believed that the teacher paid a high role in increasing the students’ participation, if they were encouraging, and inspired the students, they would participate more in the lessons (Törnqvist, 2008, p. 29).

While the theory above discussed general statements about healthy classroom environments there are certain classroom traits as one can call them that influence student participation. Yough (2011) states […] “classrooms perceived as competitive were significantly inversely related to a willingness to communicate” (Yough, 2011, p. 183). He gives further claims that if the students believe that the classroom is becoming more competitive, it will result in less willing oral participants. This might be due to the negative associations with the demonstration of skill climate inside the classroom and not the climate where all intend to master a particular task (Yough, 2011, p. 194). There might be students who favour a skill-demonstrated approach, however it would hardly function with every student in the classroom, thus, making it destructive for some. This study also suggests that a competitive classroom climate influences positively on grades, yet as earlier mentioned this type of classroom-climate influenced negatively on willingness to participate (Yough, 2011, p. 186). Yough explains that grades, by their nature are individual, whereas oral participation is a public setting. One of the more interesting findings, or failed findings in this paper is that the researcher found no link between communication-encouraged climates and willingness to communicate (Young, 2011, p. 188). The researcher states it might be due to their measurement used to define communication-climate and that the scale used […] “lacked the psychometric scrutiny that would result from repeated use” (Yough, 2011, p. 189). If one analyses the classroom environment one also has to investigate how the teacher behaves and the how the students’ view their teacher and the teacher’s methodology.
In Mustapha (et.al, 2010) the most influential variable was lecture trait. This included being well prepared, and understanding lecture that contributed to students participated more in the classroom. Some students said if the lectures were fun, and involved jokes it improved their participation. The second most influential variable that the students believed increased their oral participation was classmate traits, and classroom climate. This helped, as many students stated to ease their anxiety and make them more obliged to participate, as it was not as scary. The factor that received a high score was negative lecture trait, which involved low teacher skills, when the teacher was tired or in a bad mood. Engaging classroom content was ranked third of the factors that increased oral participation, and methods such as role-play was encouraging for many students (Mustapha, et al., 2010, p. 1081-1082). Similar to Mustapha et al. (2010), Törnqvist (2008) found in her study one of the factors that most students answered was effective for their participation was interesting topics (Törnqvist, 2008, p. 26).

Abdullah, Bakar and Mahbob’s study (2012) also mentioned classroom size as a contributor that could lead to less and more oral participation. Smaller groups were favoured by the students to the contrast of bigger groups which lead to less oral participation. The participants mentioned they were not as afraid in smaller groups and chose to participate more in these kinds of settings (Abdullah et al., 2012, p.520). Other factors that influenced the students’ participation were the influence from the instructor and their classmates. The research states that both the passive and active students agreed that the teacher or instructor influenced their participation in the classroom greatly. The methodology, the teacher’s ability to motivate, the mood of the instructor where factors the students felt influenced their participation. Even though there were mixed answers when the students reflected on their peers’ influence on their participation, some answered that they preferred sitting next to an active student (Abdullah et al., 2012, p.520).

It is evident that group and pair-work are settings where students do not experience a high level of anxiety. At the same time, the theory above states presentations and settings where the students speak alone in front of the class are the highest contributors to anxiety. This can be explained by referring to the theory presented about learner and teacher interactions. That there are some students who do not trust their class, and they favour group and pair work since they feel less exposed, and making errors will not be as dangerous since there will not be a whole class listening to your language.
4.4 Motivation

There is no doubt that motivation is a key variable in any source of language learning. Motivation is a factor in the WTC model as well. There are sources other than anxiety that will influence the students’ oral participation in the classroom. Motivation as you will see, will be a factor that can increase or decrease a students’ oral participation. This section will explain some behaviour motivational theory that shows how self-efficacy, self-confidence, self-worth and how the student views his own capabilities to achieve a goal impact students’ behaviour. There has been presented findings that indicate these variables influence student participation, however, the theory behind it is not explained. Therefore, Seifert (2004) will be used in order to give a brief overview of some behaviour motivation theory. Afterwards theory by Gardner (1968) and Clemet, Gardner & Smythe (1980) will present some second language motivational theory. At the end I will present a brief overview Nashide, Shimizu & Yashima’s (2004) conducted study.

Seifert (2004) investigated five behaviour motivational theories and how they relate to one another. The first one is **Self-efficacy theory**. This one “refers to a person’s judgement about his/her capability to perform a task at a specified level of performance” (Seifert, 2004, p.137). He continues saying that students who believe or see themselves as capable to perform a specific task, […] “are more likely to be self-regulating, strategic and metacognitive than students who do not feel efficacious” (Seifert, 2004, p. 137). This can be connected to students’ view of their own language, and if the students do not believe they are capable of presenting a good enough language they rather choose to not participate in the classroom.

The second one is **Attribution theory**. Attribution in this sense refers to persons view or explanation of why a specific event had a specific outcome. “In an academic setting, typical attributions might include effort, skills, knowledge, strategies, ability, luck, the teacher’s mood or mistakes by the teacher (Seifert, 2004, p. 138). Seifert (2004) refers to Winer (1884,1885) who invented a model that explains how attributes influence motivation. Firstly you have the outcome followed by a general emotion or a reaction to the outcome. After the outcome has happened is where attributions occur, […] “these are the actual expiations given for the outcome which are formed given particular casual ascendants” (Seifert, 2004, p. 138). Casual antecedents refer to the attributions that are formed and may include characteristics. Followed by this is the behavioural consequence. This is how the individual feels about the outcome. Lastly we have the psychological consequence. That refers to “become cognitive engagement or persistence, depending on the outcome that has happened” (Seifert, 2004, 139). This model presents a theory that explains how students can become more motivated by their view or behaviour of the outcome. This theory can be related to students’ belief
about their peers` assessment of themselves. Feeling well about an outcome in group situations might increase the students willingness to participate in this setting at later stages as well.

The third theory is the Self-worth theory. This theory claims every human enhance a sense of self-worth, and that is a vital dimension of human functioning (Seifert, 2004, p.140). People who have high self-worth are seen by others as valuable, but people who have low self-worth may not feel valued, respected or in some cases unloved. Seifert (2004) refers to Covington (1984) who says that the belief in western culture that self-worth is inherently connected to performance (Seifert, 2004, p. 141). [...] “The worth of the individual is connected to his or her ability to do something well” (Seifert, 2004, p. 141). Seifert says that there is a difference between success from high ability and success from low effort, yet the key is the result. “Success which comes from high ability will result in feelings of pride and self-esteem, and success which comes from low effort and high ability and will result in feelings of pride and self-esteem” (Seifert, 2004, p. 141). Failure will result in the opposite, shame and humiliation. This theory implies that if a student continues to do well he or she will receive more motivation to do well. This is very related to self-confidence, and the statement that if students are confident in their oral language, they will participate more. This theory can also explain why some students are confident in their oral language. For instance, two students in my conducted research said they could participate more, but were too “lazy” to do so. They were able to achieve what they wanted without investing too much into it, which means they had low effort and high ability that influenced their overall self-esteem.

The fourth one is Achievement goal theory. This theory is understood to be the individual need or desire to achieve particular goals (learning and performance). “Students who are pursuing mastery goals have been described as self-regulating and self-determining” (Seifert, 1997, cited in Seifert, 2004, p. 142). “Students pursuing performance goals have been described as being preoccupied with ability concerns” (Seifert, 2004, p.143). The first dimension refers to students who have an inner motivation to do the particular task, yet the latter are students who are more concerned by how others will perceive them.

The fifth and last one is Reconstructing motivation theory. The foundation of this theory is that people who perceive themselves as capable, are more likely to be motivated, and those who feel themselves as incapable, will most likely not be motivated. This theory has seen some criticism. However, as Steifert (2004) says “if we view motivation as an attempt to protect self-worth, then we can provide a more powerful explanation than self-efficacy theory” (Seifert, 2004, p.144). Self-worth is how the individual views himself, not just for himself, but also for others. This theory will be very
related to confidence that is a variable that I have presented that increases student participation. If the students view their language as good enough, they are more likely to participate. On the other hand if the students view their language as not good enough, and lacking confidence in their language they are more likely to not participate. This can also relate to how students view themselves in the eye of others. If they believe that other students are a lot better than them in speaking English, they might be less willing to participate because they believe themselves as too bad.

Seifert says that these five theories are in addition to, not instead of, and they do give some valuable insight to behavioural motivation. He claims that meaning is important for motivated behaviour, and if students do not understand what they are supposed to comprehend, they may not be able to find meaning in their work. “If the topic makes no sense, they may not be able to discern the relevance of the topic” (Seifert, 2004, p. 147). He ends his article by referring to (Seifert & O’Keefe, 2001) that say “teachers who are perceived as being nurturing, supportive and helpful, will be developing in students a sense of confidence and self-determinations which will be translated into the learning-oriented behaviours intrinsically motivated students” (Seifert, 2004, p. 148).

One of the more known theorists in the field of motivation and second language is Gardner (1968). He says attitudes towards a school-subject may influence the students’ behaviour in the classroom, but also the amount of work the student is willing to do with that specific subject. Gardner (1968) describes that he believes it is meaningful to distinguish between active and passive role of the parent in this particular theme. The parents can contribute positively by having a good attitude towards that specific subject and thereby state its importance. “In the active role the parent monitors the child’s language-learning performance” (Gardner, 1968, p. 143). The passive role is as Gardner states […] “subtler than the other” (Gardner, 1968, p. 143). An exemplification of this could be if a child learns Swedish, yet the parent has a bad attitude towards Sweden, which will in length end up hurting the child’s learning outcome in the long run. This is because when one is learning a language, one simply does not just obtain the specific sound and reproduce the language. One obtains a specific set of skills that are solemnly to that specific language (Gardner, 1968, p. 143). If a student is willing to learn English, one has to inherit some specifics that revolve around the culture as well, and if the student has a bad attitude towards the English people, one will be less willing to obtain these specifics.

Clemet, Gardner and Smythe (1980) state that measures of motivation contributed to two factors: the first one is identified as integrative motive, and the other as self-confidence. The first factor can be explained to be the inner voice, inner motivation which makes the student behave as it does. The latter is leaning more towards the competence of the target language of the child, which results in a
specific behaviour (Clemet et al., 1980, p. 294-295). They say the attitudes towards the target language and the importance of the language in the children’s point of view will have an effect on the competence of the children (Clemet et al., 1980, p.295). Clemet et al. (1980) looked at English as a second language (SL) were they investigated 28 variables which are the attitudes and feelings the students have towards English as a second language. This study was conducted in Montreal with French speaking students. The results of the study state [...] “achievement in the second language is related to both motivation and ability. On the other hand the threat to Ethnic Identify resulted in worse competence in English for the students (Clemet et al., 1980, p.295-299). Even though the latter can hardly be relatable to English as a FL in Norway, since most Norwegians do not have the inherit history concerning England as the French. One should have no difficulty saying that most of the students in Norway view English as the most important FL to be able to speak, if not fluently at least to some extent. It shows that motivation will influence students’ achievement in the school, and included in that, oral participation.

Some studies have combined the WTC model together with Gardner’s socio-educational model and have examined [...] “the relations among variables underlying WTC in the L2.” (Nashide, Shimizu & Yashima, 2004, p. 123). Intergrativeness in Nashide, Shimizu and Yashima’s study (2004) is defining students of L2 that want to learn a second language for the use to communication with others. Higher intergrativeness and higher motivation will result in students interact more with other groups and persons in their L2 than students who have lesser intergrativeness and motivation. Nashide et al. (2004) investigated Japanese students and tried to see if there was a difference of the students WTC inside the classroom, outside, and whether it is context- related. Their result states that there is a difference between the students’ participation inside and outside the classroom. They continue stating that competence [...] “most strongly related to second language WTC. Which is not the case for their L1, where anxiety is proved to be the biggest contributor to lesser oral participation”(Nashide et al, 2004, p. 123).

4.5 Complexity
As you can see there are many different influencers for oral participation, and I am not claiming I have found them all. What I do want to portray in this theory chapter is that these are all intertwined, and even though it may look like I have separated them, they are often working combined. For instance, low self-esteem might be result of student’s personality trait that have been developed by time, unhealthy classroom-climate, acting badly towards corrections from the teacher or a combination of any of these factors. Furthermore, an unhealthy environment that does not encourage oral participation might be a consequence of the teacher’s methodology. It might be easy to look at
what is wrong with the student(s) when investigating low oral participation but the findings presented above explore the possibility that teachers have the ability to decrease student participation without being fully aware of it. This makes it very hard to actually find a specific mend to these variables combined, and understandably, theorists have focused on one in particular. However, there are merits to portray them all, for teachers to see that this is a very complex phenomenon, and when they are trying to mend this difficulties, they have to know what they should look for. All of the variables presented in the anxiety-section are reliable factors that can cause student anxiety while they speak a foreign language in a classroom. Most of the factors excluding communication apprehension were brought up in either my student or teacher interviews. To what extent these variables actually influence student participation will not be presented in this paper. To understand that anxiety is functioning on an individual and a contextual level is important if one is to analyse student anxiety. Furthermore, mending a cause for anxiety might function as a domino chip, and remedies other causes for anxiety as well.

4.6 How to mend oral participation
This section will present theory on how to mend low participation. The four specific variables that will be investigated are classroom climate, self-esteem (efficacy), motivation and shyness/communication apprehension. My aim for this section is to discover how teacher can work to mend low participation in the classroom.

4.6.1 How to achieve a healthy classroom climate
The data I gathered from my research stated explicitly that classroom-climate is a variable that can be said to either contribute to oral participation, or make the students not participate, depending on what climate one achieves.

Postholm, Haug, Munthe and Krumsvik (2011) say the key to a supportive classroom-environment is respect between students and teachers (Postholm et al., 2011, p. 138). Teachers that work to create a healthy classroom-environment are also trying to signalise to the students, that they are having faith in them and expectations for them (Postholm et al., 2011, p. 139). Postholm et al (2011) refer to a research by Pianta, LaParo and Hamre (2008) and they say as a classroom manager, one has the responsibility to facilitate development of a positive learning environment by 1) support the development relationship between the students and teachers, 2) by organising learning activities that promotes learner and good relations, 3) support students learning through the way teaching material are presented and worked with, and how one give feedback (cited in Postholm et al., 2011, p. 148-
This means the teacher as the responsibility to mend the difficulties that occur in an unhealthy classroom climate.

Orpinas and Horne (2006) state that “an organization´s climate encompasses values, communication and management styles, rules and regulations, ethical practises, reinforcement of caring behaviours, support for academic excellence and characteristics of the physical environment“(Horne & Orpinas, 2010, p.41). They continue and say “ a school with a positive climate, is inviting, and students and teachers feel energized to perform at their best (Horne & Orpinas, 2010, p. 49). In a classroom where students feel like this, their sense of belonging, connectedness to peers, teachers and school will increase (Horne & Orpinas, 2010, p. 49). They also show eight criteria to promote a healthy positive climate, and reduce bullying. The eight critical criteria for promoting positive school climate is; 1) Excellence in teaching, 2) school values, 3) awareness of strengths and problems, d) policies and accountability, 4) care and respect, 5) positive expectations, 6) teacher support and 7) physical environment characteristics (Horne & Orpinas, 2010, p.50). At the same time Government Proposition 22 (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2010-2011) states the factors that are central when you work for a healthy learning-environment are: 1) positive relations between teacher and student, 2) positive relations and culture for learning between students, 3) teacher´s ability to lead classes and lessons, 4) Good cooperation between school and home, 5) Good leadership, organisation and culture for learning at the school (Chapter, 6). At the same in (NOU 2010:7) it says a healthy learning-climate is achieved when; 1) a student feels safe, recognition, and trust, 2) there are good relationships among students and teachers. This gives even further proof that students, who feel recognition, connectedness and influence in the lessons, will create a healthier environment.

Students may also result in unwanted behaviour if they do not feel connected to school. Waters, Cross, Ruions (2009) investigated the social and ecological structures supporting adolescent connectedness to school, and come up with a theoretical model that shows the students’ connectedness to the school in different levels (2009). They used different courses and theories, summarised them and then creating a model.
This model seeks to describe the potential interpersonal and organizational components of the school’s environment. **Phase 1** describes how students’ development affects interactions in a variety of levels in a socialised human environment. It is divided by organisational factors and interpersonal factors. Organisational factors are as you can see the structure, function and built mass of the school meanwhile interpersonal factors are factors that involve students’ own interactions with essentially every other human at the school. **Phase 2** and **3** describes the individual’s connection to the school, and how the students view their needs are being met, and how the school practises are practised (Waters et.al, 2009, p. 520-521). “Connectedness to school, regardless of how it is identified or measured, is consistently associated with a wide range of health, social and academic outcomes for children and young people (Waters et al., 2009, p. 521). They also say that high connectedness is associated with higher academic achievement, equally, students report higher level of connectedness to school in a safe, caring and structured environment (Waters et al. 2009, p.521). This model tells that the whole school needs to work together, and that students lacking connectedness to school can be caused by other variables than what is inside the classroom. The student’s connectedness to school can be influenced by the degree of influence the student feels towards to school.

Roland (2007) investigated classroom-management, classroom-environment and student influence in Norwegian classrooms. Influence, in this study, is referring to how the student views him or her self’s influence in the classroom. As the research above, shows that when students feel some sort of connectedness to the school, their achievements will also increase. This study found a positive correlation between student relationships in the classroom and students’ feeling of influence (Roland, 2007 p.87). The students and teachers can influence of the perception of the individual feels inside

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**Figure 2.** School Ecology, from Waters, Cross & Runions, 2009. Social and Ecological Structures supporting Adolescent Connectedness to School: A theoretic Model. Journal of School health.
the discourse in the classroom.

This study draws three dimensions in classroom-management and its coloration to student’s feeling of influence in the classroom. Roland (2007) says one can assume that the teacher’s support has great impact in students feeling of influence to school (Roland, 2007, p.88). This was the first dimension, and referred to as emotional support. The second dimension is professional support. Even though this study found a strong correlation between professional support and emotional support, professional support had low significance regarding student’s feeling of influence (Roland, 2007, p.89). The last dimension is control and supervision. The results state that control and supervision had positive effect on student’s influence, even though it was relatively weak (Roland, 2007, p.89). The teacher surely influences students in the classroom in a variety of ways. Roland says that his study found that teacher’s support has uneven effect on boy’s and girl’s feeling of influence in the classroom. The teacher’s emotional support has more significant meaning or girls rather than boys. The professional support is more significant on boys than girls (Roland, 2007, p.91). There was also a weak, significant correlation between student’s grades and their feeling of influence in the classroom. Interestingly classroom size did have some effect on student’s feeling of influence where increased classroom size and participators had positive effect on norms in the classroom, meanwhile not on relations between the students (Roland, 2007, p.91).

These theories and studies indicate that to create an unhealthy classroom environment one needs to mend the group as a whole, and mend difficulties at an individual level. It is critical to have good relationships among peers and teachers, at the same time it is important to address difficulties regarding students view of connectedness and their feeling of influence in the classroom.

4.6.2 How to increase students’ motivation

I will now investigate at how one can increase the students’ motivation by discuss different theories in the field. DİŞLEN (2013) describes motivation as process, and not an aim or a product (DİŞLEN, 2013, pp. 37). This researcher looked at reasons for lack of motivation, and she used the voice of teachers and students to be able to answer this question. The students were asked in which types of settings they feel the most motivation in the lessons and their answers revealed that: 1) When teachers use humour, 2) Teachers being warm, happy, positive, 3) teachers being well prepared, 4) positive reinforcements, 5) teachers telling the lesson in an enjoyable manner with different activities (DİŞLEN, 2013 p. 37). The students also answered a question about what times they experience lack of interest in the lessons and their answers were: 1) When friends talk too much and distract, 2) when
they did not understand the lessons and became bored, 3) when the teacher go through the same topics and constantly and gives a lot of similar exercises (DİŞLEN, 2013, p. 38). Based on the answers from the students the researcher gave some clues to how to increase students’ motivation. The first one is build a positive and supportive classroom atmosphere, secondly, teacher´s warm and thirdly, appreciating attitude will impact students’ motivation positively. Teachers that are happy, calm, and peaceful during lessons will also increase student’s motivation. The researcher says the use of humour in lessons, studying and be prepared in advance before they enter the classroom, reinforcements, teaching in an enjoyable manner, new subjects, using English for communication, appeal to students interests are all factors that can increase motivation (DİŞLEN, 2013, p.42).

Wright (2012), one of the creators of Intervention Central wrote a paper based on theory which investigated some reasons why students are unmotivated and how to mend these difficulties. This is written to try and find the link between theory and practise, and is very practical friendly. This is more practical than the theory above. The first motivation challenge Wright writes about is: student is unmotivated because he or she cannot do the assigned work. Wright says that to verify this particular problem the teacher needs to collect information through observation, interviews and tests (Wright, 2012, p. 2). He refers to research done by DiPerna (2006) who states that academic-enabling skills, are not necessarily bound to knowledge, […] “but rather aid student learning across a wide range of settings and tasks” (Wright, 2012, p. 2). This method functions to help students to increase their self-management skills that help them to become better at acquiring knowledge in general. Some points were made that can help to mend this type of motivation difficulty:

- Ensure the content is appropriately matched to students’ abilities.
- Ensure the student knows the aim of the lesson
- Regularly check students understanding of the topic in the lessons
- Engage the students in the lessons, practical activities (Wright, 2012, p. 2)

This method agrees with other theories in the field with. Ames and Archer (1988) investigated goal oriented classrooms and state in their discussion part that “when students perceived their class as emphasizing a mastery goal, they were more likely to report using effective learning strategies, prefer tasks that offer challenge, like their class more and believe that effort and success covary (Ames & Archer, 1988, p.264). Ames and Archer´s theory (1988) supports Wrights methodology that creating goals for the students that are achievable may help students to become more motivated.

The second challenge is: The student is unmotivated because classroom instruction does not
**engage.** This is perhaps the easiest to verify, since the instructor can observe how the students respond to what is being lectured about. However the teacher should be aware that the students might be less willing to participate also because of trying to attempt to escape difficult activities. The mend to these problems may be to reduce the reinforcing power of non-Instructional Activities. This is to discover the non-instructional activities in the classroom that compete with teacher’s attention and eliminate them (Wright, 2012, p. 5). Also one can increase the reinforcing Power of Classroom Instruction, which is to boost the reinforcing quality of the academic activities and instruction to better capture and hold the student’s attention (Wright, 2012, p.5).

In Motivation and language learning Lasagabaster, Doiz and Sierra (2014) describe that a Directed Motivational Current (DMC) can be described as an intense motivational drive that is capable of both stimulating and supporting long-term behaviour, such as learning a foreign or second language. DMC it is motivation that thrives from inside of you when exposed to something you are directly part of, enjoy and are able to see it through (Lasagabaster et al., 2014, p.10). DMC is a motivation that makes the student be able to achieve a personalised goal.

As an example one can take a student that for some unknown reason almost never speaks English in front of the class. For this student to be able to stand alone in front of the class and have a presentation, by implementing method X made the student wanting to achieve this, making this his personalised goal. Even though the most difficult task would be to find method X, “if the correct conditions can be engineered to allow this motivational pathways to be created, a motivational Jetstream will emerge that is capable of transporting individuals forward, even in situations where any hope of progressions had been faded” (Lasagabaster et al., 2014, p. 11). There are some conditions that have to be in place in order for DMC to fully function:

1) Participant ownership and 'perceived behavioural control'. This point is referring to the need for the participant to have ownership of the goal, in order for it to work. Even though this whole process can be initiated by others, […] “it must be a fully autonomous decision and, in order for a DMC to begin, complete ownership of the process and its outcome must be felt” (Lasagabaster et al, 2014, p.15).

2) Clear perception of progress. As it is with all types of motivation, the need student needs to see clear progression, and by that the researchers are referring to, at least in teaching settings, feedback.

3) Positive emotional loading People experience. DMC will often feel different than they used to. It is important that the participant receives pleasure when reaching the task for DMC to
fully function, even when he or she is participating in what many would describe as extremely boring tasks (Lasagabaster et al., 2014, p.15-16)

The third motivational challenge is when the student is unmotivated because he or she fails to see an adequate pay-off to doing the assignment work (Wright, 2012, p.6). The students that experience this kind of motivational challenge requires praise, rewards and other types of reinforcers that will, at least for a short-term pay off (Wright, 2012, p. 6). Wright says one can start praising the students, which can in the long run help the students increase their motivation. He also mentions that the use of rewards, yet it should be under some circumstances.

1) Define the target behaviour, 2) establish criteria for success, 3) chose student incentives, 4) decide whether a point system will be used, 5) decide how the reward is to be delivered (Wright, 2012, p.6).

This system is very related to behaviouristic learning theory, where one uses a positive incentive to get the target behaviour one wants.

The fourth motivational challenge is when a student is unmotivated because of low self-efficacy or, lack of confidence in being able to do the assigned work. Students who experience this type of motivational challenge have low sense of self-efficacy in the subject area, activity or academic task (Wright, 2012, p. 7). As I have already elaborated self-efficacy is the student’s own view of his or her ability(s) in a specific area. Wright shows some different ways a teacher can work in order to help the students mend this challenge. He refers to a research by Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2002) that say one can use their analysis of students’ attributions along the dimensions and use this framework to analyse and challenge a student’s faulty attributions about self-efficacy (Wright, 2012, p.8).

First dimension is Internal/external. This reflect the students view on his poor performance as either internal, tied to student´s personality, abilities and other factors, or external linked to factors outside the student such as teacher behaviour, curriculum etc (Wright 2012, p.8).

Discovering which type it is can give an indication towards where the problem lies. The next one is Stable/Unstable, which is how the student views the situation relating it to poor academic performance and to something that may last for a long time (stable) or something that is likely to end or change soon (unstable). This may be important with students that say they “ will never get math”, and the teacher can shift the state of mind of the students. The last dimension is Controllable/Uncontrollable. This is the student’s state of mind regarding whether the student has
control over the factors relating to academic performance, or whether it is something beyond the student’s control. If the student believes that with help he can control the situation will most likely help the student in this regard (Wright, 2012, p. 8).

This method described above goes well in hand with goal setting, where the students will benefit from view the task as achievable. Schunk (1991) says “students with self-doubts will make little effort on difficult tasks, but students who believe they are capable to master select tasks, persist longer, and expend effort” (Schunk, 1991, p.223). It is important to state that the teacher’s self-efficacy can equally influence the students’ motivation positively and negatively. If the teacher has low self-efficacy regarding English, the teacher might avoid planning activities they believe exceed their capabilities, and might be unlikely to find appropriate materials, and be able to help students who are having difficulties with the subject (Schunk, 1991, p.225). Teachers that has high self-efficacy in English might be more capable to mend the difficulties the students have in the subject, and make (find) appropriate materials for the students (Schunk, 1991, p. 225).

The last and fifth challenge that Jim Wright brings up is: The student is unmotivated because he or she lacks a positive relationship with the teacher. Wright (2012) says the teacher can look for student´s avoidance of opportunities to talk to the teacher, the students lack of eye contact, sarcastic of defiant comments or general pattern of defiant or non-complaint behaviour if the teacher wants to find out whether a student are having this type of motivational challenge. To remedy this Wright refers to research by Kazdin (1989) who states “increase the doses of positive attention at times when the student is engaging in appropriate behaviour, and keep the interactions with the student brief and neutral when the students misbehave may help in this regard” (Kazdin, 1989, cited in Wright, 2012, p. 9). Wright refers to different sources and brings to light some solutions to the problem:
- Strive for a High Ratio of Positive Interactions with Students (Sprick, Borgmeier, & Nolet, 2002),
- Commit to a Short Series of Positive ‘Micro-Conversations’ (Mendler, 2000),
- Emphasise the Positive in Teacher Requests (Braithwaite, 2001),

Teachers have also the ability to either increase or decrease students’ oral participation. Skinner and Belmont (1993) investigated teachers’ behaviour and how it influences the students’ motivation. Students in their research reported that children’s engagement in learning activities are influenced by
their perception of the teacher and directly by the teachers’ actual behaviours (Skinner & Belmont, 1993, p.577). Students who experience their teachers as warm and affectionate, will feel happier and be more enthusiastic in the classroom (Skinner and Belmont, 1993, p.577).

4.6.3 How to increase students’ self-confidence, self-esteem and self-efficacy.

Self-esteem is as presented earlier in this chapter a variable that influence students’ oral participation. Rubio (2007) made a great effort in his research to draw the link between research, theory and practice when it comes to self-esteem and language learning. Rubio says that […] “self-esteem is a psychological and social phenomenon in which an individual evaluates his/hers competence and own self according to some values, which may result in different emotional states, and which becomes develop mentally stable but is still open to variation depending on personal circumstances” (Rubio, 2007, p.5). He also links it to language learning when he says: “when the level of self-esteem is low, the psychological homeostasis is unbalances, creating insecurity, fear, social distance and other negative situations might occur (Rubio, 2007, p.7).

By this definition, self-esteem will be an anxiety-provoker in the classroom, which can relate it to lack of confidence and language learning. As I have already discussed in this paper, anxiety is a variable that negatively influence students´ oral participation and thus, if self-esteem can be said to increase the anxiety of the students, self-esteem will influence the students’ participation. Lawrence (2006) says: “a child with high self-esteem is likely to be confident in social situation and in tackling school work (Lawrence, 2006, p. 8). He states: “a child with low self-esteem in contrast, will lack confident in his/her ability to succeed, he/she may try to avoid situations where he/she sees as potentially humiliating” (Lawrence, 2006, p. 8). He makes the distinction between extroversion and introversion as types of self-esteem that make the student behave differently. Students who are […] “inclined to extroversion he/she is more likely to compensate and fight back at the source of the frustration” (Lawrence, 2006, p. 9). This means students may behave arrogantly, and not at all looking as he or she lacks any form of confidence. Students who are […] “introverted by temperament, are more likely to withdraw and demonstrate the shy, timid behaviour which common sense immediately tells us is an indication of low self-esteem” (Lawrence, 2006, p.6). It is important for the teacher to be aware of the two different types of behaviour that may occur when students are experiencing low self-esteem. Students who are inclined to extroversion will not necessarily speak English in the classroom, but will be loud and perhaps speak much Norwegian inappropriately to avoid being caught as “bad” in speaking English. On the other hand, students who are inclined introversion will be silent in the classroom and fit the more stereotypical student who is experience
low self-worth.

It is important to know that self-worth is a global or general phenomenon, however we can to some extent have a higher self-esteem in a situation and low self-esteem in other situations. But, Lawrence (2006) states that if a student is facing situations that make he or she feels low self-esteem it will eventually affect the students’ global self-esteem (Lawrence, 2006, p. 12). Global self-esteem, in this regard is referring to the students overall view on himself, opposed to specific self-esteem in which refers to the students’ self-worth in a specific type of situation or skill. This can be oral participation in the classroom, football skills etc (Lawrence, 2006, p. 12). Mettasari (2013) also investigated the correlation between anxiety and self-esteem and the result from this study is coherent with many other studies on the subject. It revealed [...] “the self-esteem contributed significantly towards students’ anxiety” (Mettasari, 2013, p. 169).

King, Vidourek, Davis and McCellan (2002) investigated how to increase students’ self esteem through a multidimensional mentoring program. The method was called Healthy Kids Mentoring Program that was designed for fourth-grade students in a suburban school (King et al., 2002, p. 294). It consists of four components: 1) relationship building, 2) self-esteem enhancement, 3) goal setting, and 4) academic assistance (tutoring) (King et al., 2002, p. 294). The reason for showing this method is not to tell that to increase students´ self-esteem one have to implement this into school, as this would mean both increase work for the participants as well as it demands resources to be implemented. On the other hand what can be drawn out is what this method specifically target and perhaps use these, in an easier fashion. The way this specific program worked was implementing mentors that met with the students twice a week for an hour and a half to devote time to the four components mentioned above.

The first component is relationship building. To build a relationship the mentors used a method where they used journals in which they wrote questions the students should answer, which was about what students were proud of, what they wanted to accomplish etc. The next component was Self-Esteem Enhancement. This was done by mentors receive activities to increase the students´ self-esteem. The four conditions that were the ground pillar of the activities were sense of connectedness, sense of power, sense of uniqueness and sense of positive role models. The next phase was making the students able to set a goal in which they should accomplish in a specific time period. These goals could be finishing all homework, start to answer questions in the classroom and so on. The next face is called academic assistance. This meant helping students overcome some specific difficulties they had in the classroom, this could be reading, speaking etc (King et al., 2002 pp.294-295). They used
paired sample t-tests which were conducted to assess the program’s impact on mentored students’ self-esteem and connectedness scores from pre-test and post-test. The result states that students’ overall self-esteem, school connectedness peer connectedness and family connectedness were significantly higher at post-test than at pre-test. The researchers state “Research in school-based interventions indicates programs offering safe environment, encouragement and support, empowering activities and specific guidelines for appropriate behaviour contribute to increased self-esteem” (King et al., 2002, p. 298). Even though implementing a program like this may be impossible for many teachers and in many schools, the foundation they base their program on may be helpful for teachers that wants to increase the students’ self-esteem. The four components of this program will be used to see if it is supported by other theories as well.

The first one I will discuss is relationship building. Steinfield, Ellison and Lampe (2008) investigated how Facebook influence students, especially how it relates to self-esteem. What they found in their study was bridging capital has a relationship with self-esteem, but the use of an online social network service interacts with self-esteem to influence bridging social capital (Steinfield et al., 2008, p. 443). This gives further proof to the study above, showing that relationship-building influence the students’ self-esteem. This study’s results state that students with low self-esteem had more to gain from Facebook than students with high self-esteem (Steinfield, Ellison and Lampe, 2008, p. 443). The way this can be interpreted is that Facebook is not as scary for students with low self-esteem since they communicate through a device, not in real life, which perhaps they feel are scary. An increased social capital might lead to an increased self-esteem. Steinfield et al. (2008) studied and tried to find use theory to discover what the effects of adolescents’ socialisation and friendship was. They state […] “there is strong evidence that friends influence one another’s attitudes, social behaviour, and academic achievement” (Steinfield et al., 2008, p.1458). Also, […] “there is suggestive evidence that close and stable friendship can enhance adolescents’ altruism and self-esteem, yet there is virtually no evidence for or against the hypothesis that friendships contribute to social adjustment during adolescence and later in life” (Steinfield et al., 2008, p.1458). Building a healthy relationship with the student might be the first step towards increasing the student’s self-esteem.

The second one is self-esteem enchantment. It might be hard to find activities that are being supported by all theory to increase students’ self-esteem, which also can be said to be useful in general language learning as well. Therefore, not focusing on the practical activities, but the theory behind the activities will be perhaps being the easier way to target this. Rubio (2014) refers to Mercer (2011) that described internal and external factors that appeared to contribute to the development of
the learner’s self-concept in respect to language learning (cited in Rubio, 2014, p. 50). The Internal factors were: 1) Internal comparisons across domains within the self-concept network, 2) Belief systems, 3) Affective reactions (Rubio, 2014, p. 50). The External Factors: 1) Social comparisons with others, especially peers, 2) Feedback from significant others, 3) Perceived experiences of success/failure, 4) Previous language learning/use experiences in formal/informal contexts, 5) Critical experiences (Rubio, 2014, p. 50). Rubio (2014) says that approaches in the classroom […] “that acknowledge students’ learning preference in receiving, organizing and producing language can help teachers understand positive or negative attitudes towards learning when students’ learner styles do not match their teaching style” (Rubio, 2014, p.52). He says that when teachers are aware of the individual varieties of the students; they can understand students’ behaviour and also make methods that fit every student on an individual basis, which may help the students’ increasing their sense of security (Rubio, 2014, p. 52).

Rubio says that programs emerged in the 80s that inspired methodology on the subject a decade later, Reasoner’s model. It is based on five dimensions; security, identify belonging, purpose and competence. It specifically aims to target both learning and self-concept at the same time (Rubio, 2014, p. 53). Sense of belonging is referring to how to make the students be accepted and forming part of a group. Sense of purpose targets the students’ beliefs about having an objection and direction in life. Sense of competence is the feeling the students have about one self about the ability to able to accomplish a task. Security in this model is, as the name implies referring to the feeling of both physical and psychological security and safety. The identity dimension is the different perceptions people have about themselves (Rubio, 2014, p.52-53). The activities that try to increase students’ self-esteem must include some sort of socialisation where the students are feeling they look good in front of their peers. This research also implements the third dimension in Healthy kids Mentoring Program which is Goal setting. The students may feel more secure if they are receiving goals they are able to accomplish and, thus, feel a sense of accomplishment that may in cease their self-esteem. The last dimension is achievement assistance, which is the mentoring system in general. This is referring to the mentors helping the students with their schoolwork. This is something the teachers do in general, and thus, will not need any implements of any regards other than teachers doing their job.

One can see that the four components of the program are supported by of studies and are reliable methods to work to increase students’ self-esteem. The theory presented above indicates that to increase students self-esteem can increase their feeling of connectedness and influence with their peers. Increasing their social capital might increase their self-esteem. At the same time creating a goal with the students that is achievable, might be an easy to method to try and make the student to
feel better about himself after he has achieved the goal. The methods described above are methods that may function to increase students’ self-esteem in general, and does not specifically target oral participation. However, there has been presented indications that increasing students’ global self-esteem will help to increase their self-efficacy towards a specific phenomenon.

4.6.4 How to help shy children or children with high degree of communication apprehension

There is no denying that students that are shy or experience high degree of communication apprehension will have difficulties and anxiety with speaking activities in the classroom. With that in mind this secondary chapter will be addressing this problem and give some opinions about how teachers can work to reduce the anxiety of shy students and students with a degree of CA.

McCroskey (1970) says that students’ high degree of communication apprehension needs a safe setting where communication is praised (p.5). Likewise, students with a high level of CA or are shy may be helped by be seating in a place in the classroom where there are less oral activity (McCroskey, 1970,p.5). At the same time Mustapha et.al (2010) say lectures need to be aware of students’ fear of negative evaluation in the classroom. Lectures should also attempt to create a relaxed atmosphere for the students where communication can be safe and students can express their views without worry. At last they say that teachers can inform the students explicitly about anxiety, and how that may influence student participation or learning in general (Mustapha et.al, 2010,p.27).

Fan and Lin (2017) conducted an experimental study that could prove effective for reducing communication apprehension. Even though the purpose was to help accounting employees, and specifically tackled accounting students it still can be used for regular students as well. They conducted their study buy using a Creative Problem-Solving method that […] required groups to solve problems in the instructed direction within the same amount of time (Fan & Lin, 2017, p.318). This method targeted group work with the focus on creative thinking and cooperation between the participants. The concrete method they used was called Problem-Solving Case Teaching method and Team Spirit, and was initially focused on incorporating accounting teaching methods, as this targeted accounting students specifically. The researchers used post and pre-test as well as questionnaires over six weeks in order to grade the difference between a regular teaching method and the new one presented above. The results of this research state that this method was successful in reducing students’ communication apprehension over the course of 6 weeks of using this approach. The students were not aware that they focused on reducing their own CA (Fan & Lin, 2017, p.326). The approach and methodology this research used can be implemented into any other lessons, lectures
and schools as well. As this targeted group work where critical thinking and assignment solving were the focus points of this approach.

McCroskey also developed a survey that can analyse the degree of communication apprehension (PRCA-24). However, half of the questions are related to the people’s perception about communication in a meeting (McCroskey, 1982). This is hardly relatable to for many students, as performing a speech or participate in meetings is not an activity that a 15 year old student has done a lot. An assumption that can be made is that creating a survey where the students answer questions related to oral communication in different settings that might give teachers an overview of in what type of settings the students experience anxiety. This can prove very important if teachers are assessing their own methodology and how to better adapt the education to every individuals’ needs.

It is difficult to mend students with communication apprehension, and McCroskey (1980) mentions that to mend this difficulty one has to go through a treatment. This makes it more difficult for teachers that may have minimal experience and knowledge about the condition. However, the anxiety that usually follows it can be reduced the same way one would reduce anxiety for shyness and quiet students. Receiving information about why and where the students experience anxiety will help teachers to individualise where they are speak English in the lessons. Increasing their self-esteem by setting small goals that they are able to accomplish can help them reduce the anxiety they experience. At the same time they might be more willing to speak in group work as this is a setting where students usually experience less anxiety.
5. Discussion

This chapter will start with re-introducing the key variables found in my conducted study combined with theories and studies in the same field. I will explain reasons to include the specific variables, and why they influence oral participation. Anxiety is vague, and this paper has shown many factors that may contribute to a student feeling a type of anxiety. Whether it is stress, fear or increased heart rate it still makes the experiences worse than if they had not experienced these types of anxieties. At the same time the variables presented in this study are not all necessarily linked to anxiety. A student can experience low self-confidence without experiencing anxiety. However, since anxiety is such a vague term, much of the negative associations students have or experience while speaking may result in anxiety. The theory chapter (4.) presented some causes to students feeling anxiety when they speak in the classroom. I will in this chapter discuss these causes up against my research, state the validation of the variables and discuss some opinions in how to mend some of the causes to low participation.

5.1 Assessment of oral work

None of the participants in my study expressed they feared being corrected or receiving feedback of their oral work while they spoke in the classroom. However, this was found in many other studies. Even though this might be due to the low sample of students I have interviewed, it is interesting that none of my participants answered they feared corrections from the teacher, or feared the teacher in general. This might be due to students favouring their current teacher, but when they were asked about their past experiences they never mentioned any negative past experiences with a teacher. Mustapha, Rahman, Yunus (2010) found that students are more reluctant when their teachers were in a bad mood or tired. They also feared being criticised by the teacher (Mustapha et al., 2010). This correlates with Abebe and Deneke´s (2015) findings. Furthermore many of my participants said the teacher usually does not give feedback in the lessons. Teacher one in my study said she sometimes give feedback when students speak in the classroom, but it is important that you know your students and that you are sure they are aware of they can have feedback given to them. She also said that one should not directly criticise the language, as that could be harmful for the students. Feedback that focuses on what could have been done differently rather than highlighting a mistake may be more positive for the student. Abdullah, Bakar and Mahbob´s (2012) study also mentioned that the students did not participate because they feared being corrected by the teacher (2012, p.519).

Tomczyk (2013) investigated oral correction from both teachers´ and students´ point of view. This research states […] “speaking in the classroom is perceived as the opportunity to make errors, and
that is why many students hesitate from taking part in the communication activities” (Tomczyk, 2013, p.92). It also says that feedback that comes right after the student has spoken is the most effective. However, the most common feedback is the one that comes later on, which is proven not to be as effective (Tomczyk, 2013, p. 92). The students that participated in Tomczyk’s study were to some extent positive to oral correction, and it was often expected that they were corrected when they made errors (Tomczyk, 2013, p. 92). This was also found in Agudo (2012) were students felt well with feedback, however they felt stress if they did not understand the feedback. Jeremy Harmer refers to a book by Julian Edge (2012) who states that mistakes are slips the students can correct themselves, meanwhile errors are mistakes they cannot correct themselves, and usually happens regularly (Cited in Harmer, 2012,p.137). Focusing as on errors rather than mistakes, as Teacher one in my study said, might be a good way of correcting oral work. Also make the students understand that if they are being corrected in their oral production inside the classroom it is because they make errors, and thus, it is important that this one is corrected. However, a teacher that corrects every spoken mistake the students make might increase their anxiety.

5.1.1 How to avoid this anxiety
This might be an easy anxiety to avoid. Teacher should be aware that many students might fear being corrected, and that they might participate less if they receive corrections. My research shows that teachers need to be aware of the complications regarding corrective feedback of students´ oral work. There are surely many students that will respond positive to this kind of feedback, but it can also contribute to student anxiety. Also, this might be due to how the teachers give oral corrections, as teacher one in my study said, does not focus on the mistake, but rather focus on what could have been said differently. I am not denying that there are students in the classes of the two teachers I interviewed that respond badly to corrective feedback in the classroom. However, that the present study displayed no such findings, proves that there will be individual preferences regarding oral corrective feedback. This gives merits for teacher to adapt every feedback to the individual rather than give the same type of feedback to every student.

5.2 Shy children and communication apprehension
Shy children were reported in the interview with teacher two. She said it is easier to help shy children, and pair and group are usually settings that may help to reduce the anxiety they experience while speaking. McCroskey (1980) says even though the “only” thing quiet children have in common
are that they are quiet, there are some factors that result in children becoming quiet. Low intellectual skills, social introversion and social alienation are all factors that influence students and can be factors that make students become quiet (McCroskey, 1980). Bosacki et al (2011) found that shy children often had lack of oral communication, preference of solitary, focused on observing and hesitation to join larger groups (Bosacki et al., 2011, p.276).

There were no students in my study that said they were either quiet or shy. This was as expected when I reflected upon the methodology. Shy children avoid social interactions, and to expect them to willingly volunteer to an interview with a stranger might be to stretch the luck. The reason I have to include this regardless of my student interviews is because it was brought up in the teacher interviews, and the theory says students who are shy does not participate frequently in the classroom. The theory clearly says that shy people usually are introverts and that they often have anxiety in situations were they are forced to speak in more public settings. At the same time there were no reports of communication apprehension either.

Another factor that is highly relevant to shy children is communication apprehension. Even though these two can function separately, the result of both of them are often very similar. Haishen et.al (2011) says CA regardless of what degree will reduce the students’ willingness to communicate. McCroskey (1976) argues that people with high degree of communication apprehension avoids communication, communicate differently and generally engage in less communication than students who have a lesser degree of communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1976,p.45).

Shy students and students with high communication apprehension will communicate less than students who are not shy or have communication apprehension. How to help students who experience these difficulties are rather difficult, even though as teacher two said that group and pair work help them participate, there might be students who will not participate in settings like that as well.

5.2.1 How to mend students with communication apprehension and help shy children.
McCroskey (1980) states that helping quiet children […] “requires the active participation of the classroom teacher” (McCroskey, 1980, p.5). McCroskey says shy children can be hurt in two ways. Firstly the children can become even more quiet if harms hurts them, and secondly if the quietness interferes with the children’s learning (McCroskey, 1980, p.5). There are some steps that can be taken to avoid harm to students who are quiet. Developing a healthy communication classroom where the communication is free, and without restraint is one method that will help these children. To achieve this is not an easy task; McCroskey (1980) says “communication itself should never be the object of punishment” (McCroskey, 1980, p. 5). He says that obstructive oral behaviour should see
punishment of some kind, as long as the students are aware that they are not punished for communication in general. Interestingly, one should only encourage oral participation but not require it, as it can be harmful for quiet children. Both teachers in my study said they demanded oral participation in one form or another. They did not push students that were insecure, at least not when they asked questions in the classroom. McCroskey (1980) also mentions that the teacher should be aware of where to seat the quiet children, as forcing them to seat in a place where much interaction is happening, most notably centre front, will potentially be very harmful for the quiet student (McCroskey, 1980, p.5).

These methods are aimed at not harming quiet students in the classroom, which will most likely result in less anxiety for quiet students. However, they do not show how to help the children to be more active in the classroom. These suggestions mentioned above are reducing anxiety for the student in the classroom. This will be the first step towards mending low participation from students with communication apprehension or shy students. The teachers in my study said that shy children often speak more in group situations.

Students with the difficulties mentioned above might benefit from increasing their self-esteem towards speaking English. At the same time they need an environment that is speaking friendly. Using the theory presented in this chapter might help to reduce the fear the students may experience in the classroom. Interestingly another practical experimental study that aimed at decreasing communication apprehension among accountant students did not use this theory to create their method. Fan and Lin (2017) used an approach where students were set in groups and were given tasks that needed critical thinking, cooperation to be able be solved (Fan & Lin, 2017). This method may work with students that fear others evaluation and who are struggling in setting where they feel exposed. This is an activity that focuses on solving the task, and not aimed at language learning specifically, this may prove successful when students want to speak in an anxiety free setting. On the other hand this method was not targeting language learning and students may participate less when this method is used in an EFL classroom. Nevertheless this activity may be seen as an activity where students are not focusing on each other’s languages, but rather the task they are given to solve.

Therefore, students may “forget” to think about others assessment as they work the task. One should consider group consolations before one tries to implement this method in the lessons.

There might be merits for teachers to use surveys such as the ones developed by McCroskey (Shyness scale and PRCA-24). However, these might be not as relevant for students in lower secondary school for instance. Nevertheless, teachers can develop their own survey where student
answers questions related to where they experience anxiety and to what degree. This might give teachers the information they need to develop methodology that helps students to speak without experiencing anxiety in the classroom.

5.3 Classroom procedures; speaking activities

The first variable that was brought up during my interviews was group and pair work. These are settings where students usually are with someone they trust, and the whole class are speaking to their respective group at the same time. All of my participants agreed that this method were the least anxiety inducing and the best activity if the teacher wanted to avoid students’ communication anxiety. Students said that they did not feel anxiety because all eyes were not fixed upon them, only the ones in their group or their peer sitting next to them. The present study also showed that the students did participate more if they spoke with people they trusted. This is consistent with Mustapha (et al., 2010) where their findings reported the same. This made the setting to a large extent anxiety free, and made them more willing to speak English in the classroom. Both of the teachers in the present study agreed that students might be more active, and having less anxiety when they are seated in groups or pairs.

Some students in my study said many students did switch to Norwegian when they were in groups and supposed to discuss about a topic in English. At the same time, teacher two said that this method can not be the sole method of participation, even though how great it is to get students to speak, in the end, they will have to be graded for their oral English, and it is an impossible task to be able to actually assess students’ oral work while they are in such groups. Group work has some negatives, and even though it might be the best setting for students to speak without experience any anxiety, it should not be the sole activity for speaking. There are strong indications towards higher anxiety will result in worse oral language, and this gives cause to students that experience anxiety in particular settings will perform a worse oral language than in settings they view as anxiety free. Then the question becomes what should be assessed. Should teachers assess and emphasise student performance in settings where they experience high anxiety such as oral presentations or assess in settings that are seemingly harder to assess, but the students have less anxiety and a better language.

One of the reasons that can be said to be the best contributor to this method working so well is that when students are seated in groups, they do not have the feeling that every student and the teacher are listening to them specifically. This reduces a lot of stress when students are speaking. There are several other studies that support this claim. Mustapha et al. (2010) found out students are very afraid
to embarrass themselves in front of the whole class (p.1082). In Törnqvist’s (2008) study 54% of the students said they were more active in group or pair work (p.26). Equally, the teachers’ answers presented by the study showed that shy children benefit a lot from group or pair work (Törnqvist, 2008, p.26). Abebe and Deneke (2015) discovered that most of the students said they wanted more pair and groups work, as that did increase their oral participation (p. 80-84). Group work, as Porter and Long (1985) states actually increase the chance for participation by quite a lot (Long & Porter, 1985,p. 106). It is evident that group and pair work works well with student participation, however, there are other common activities that are being used for participation.

Interestingly, performing a presentation was not as scary for many students. Other studies have shown that speaking in front of their class increased student anxiety. Abebe and Deke (2015) found one of the activities that most frequently increased students’ anxiety were when they had to speak in front of the class alone. This finding is also presented in Tanveer’s study (2007) where students answered that standing in front of the class performing a presentation contributed to unneeded stress for many students. One of the hypothesizes I had while investigated this topic was that students’ who participated less frequently would see presentations as a stressful activity. 3 out of 4 of the most frequently participating students in my study answered they had no problem with presentations, only 1 answered that she had problems with it (see table 1). Meanwhile with the less frequent participating students in my study, 4 out of 6 answered they were scared or felt anxiety while performing presentations and 2 out of 6 said they had no problems with it (see table 2). This was because they had prepared in advance, and thus, they knew what they said was “ok”. This might imply that students who favour performing presentations are not scared of speaking in front of people, and students who are afraid of presentations might have, to a certain degree, a level of communication apprehension. Since the participants in my study were in tenth grade, the students that feared presentations had anxiety through out lower secondary school. This may also indicate that students favour settings or activities where they are prepared in advance, and that teachers should emphasise activities that involves students being well prepared when they are speaking.

One activity all of the less participating students in my study agreed was very stressful was a standard open lecture where the teacher asked questions to the students, demanding an answer or asking them to read out loud unprepared. Student two in my study answered she only participated if she was prepared in advance. Student three only liked participating when she is in a setting with only the teacher or the closest friends. Student 8 said she favours settings where everyone is not listening to her specifically, and expressed that reading out loud is “horrible”. Student 10 also said he does not favour settings where he is unprepared before he speaks. Three out of four students explicitly said
they feel insecure in these settings were girls. Even though this data is not representative for a larger population, their findings were interesting, and might be something worth investigating for further research. The reasons for students to develop anxiety in this setting are because they were insecure about their language, and were afraid other students might pick on them, laugh at them, or judge them.

5.3.1 How to work with classroom procedures and speaking activities
My research has shown that there will be different activities that suit different students. The important part to draw out of these findings is that teachers need to be aware that some students will experience anxiety when they are speaking in different settings. To force every student to perform a presentation in 8th grade when you and the students are not comfortable with each other can be a mistake. At the same time, students need to learn how to speak in front of other people. It might be wise to follow what the two teachers in my study said and make the student speak at his or hers own terms. Performing a presentation with only the teacher or a couple of close friends might reduce the stress they feel about speaking. However, even though it might seem that group discussion seems like the best overall approach to making the students speak without anxiety, teachers need to be aware that this might not work perfectly every time. As to my study, some students reported they often ended up speaking Norwegian in group discussions. At the same time if students are not coping well with a lot of noise, an activity such as this will lead negative experiences for the students.

The most important part to draw out is that a regular classroom situation where the teacher either “force” students to answer or force them to read when the whole class is listening will be the most anxiety inducing activity. I have no data to tell how impactful it will be for the students to be forced to speak in a setting they are utmost uncomfortable with, but, it will certainly not increase their willingness to communicate. At the same time a vast majority of the less participating students in my study said they experience less anxiety when they were prepared in advance. If teachers want these students to participate they need to give them opportunities where they are sure that the students actually have prepared the material in advance. Then students will be more likely to participate, and not experience anxiety while doing so.

5.4 Perceived oral skills and self-esteem
Teacher two in the present study said that it is perceived oral skills that influence student participation and not necessarily their actual skills in speaking that influence it. Haishen et al. (2011) say that “when a student is being encouraged to speak, and usually have good memories of speaking,
and develop a better oral language, the perceived communication competence will increase as well” (p. 256). However, it should be stated, as teacher two mentioned in my interview that the threshold to speak should be very low, and thus, every student ‘should’ see themselves as good enough to participate in the classroom. Teacher two even said that especially girls are having very high expectations of themselves regarding their schoolwork. Thus, having received what they believe is not a very good feedback of any kind, might reflect upon their perceived oral skills. Some students can have very unrealistic goals for themselves, which might be very hard to mend. If students have an aim to only receive the highest grade when it comes to oral skills, and only receive the second best, the outcome can become that the student will not participate as much anymore.

This was a finding my research discovered in my student interviews. Three out of four students who participated highly in the classroom said they were confident in their English skills. At the same time five out of six students who participated less in the classroom said they lacking confidence in their English skills. Perceived oral skills are very related to confidence, self-esteem and self-efficacy. Haishen et al. (2011) argue that there are people who have a personality trait that make them more self-confidence and willing to communicate. This could be one explanation of the findings in my study. At the same time, students who are extraverts might have reduced self-esteem based on their personality (Haishen, et.al., 2010). Park and Lee (2004) said students who experience anxiety in the classroom could become nervous, afraid and have poor oral performance because of it (Park & Lee, 2004, p. 197). This can be an explanation towards why students lack confidence in their oral language, or why they have low self-esteem. Park & Lee also say that self-confidence correlates heavily with anxiety (Park & Lee, 2004, p.197). On the other hand, students who do not experience anxiety and have positive experiences with speaking will see an increase to their communicative competence (Haishen et al., 2011,p.256).

There is a clear indication that when students view their language as good enough, they are more likely participate. Meanwhile these findings are not absolute, and further research might be needed to give more concrete data these findings. It is also clear that students´ self-esteem or their self-efficacy toward oral participation will influence their participation. It is thus, important to discover how one can increase students’ self-esteem.

5.4.1 How to increase students´ self-confidence.

Many students in my research that had low participation in the classroom, had in some form or another, lack of confident while speaking English. Often the fears they experienced while speaking were related to fear of not being good enough and the fear of making mistakes. On the other hand,
most of the students that participated highly in the classroom had confidence in their own communicative skills. While there may not be a link between these two variables, they are too obvious to ignore, and therefore I decided to investigate how a teacher can remedy lack of confidence in students’ communicative skills.

Rubio says that […] “self-esteem is a psychological and social phenomenon in which an individual evaluates his/hers competence and own self according to some values, which may result in different emotional states, and which becomes develop mentally stable but is still open to variation depending on personal circumstances” (Rubio, 2007, p.5). The teachers in my study talked about perceived oral skills to be important in terms of oral participation, and thus, one needs to increase the students’ confidence in their oral language. Activities that students are feeling well with might be a catalyst for students becoming more confident in their communicative skills. As Teacher one brought up she often used mingle-exercises in her class where the students mingled and talked English with each other in sort of a free speech. This exercise is reported in Bernales (2016) where the researcher used activities as described above and proved that it increased students’ self-confidence in their oral language (Bernales, 2016, p.8). All interviews in her study reported some degree of improvement of their L2 skills, which they viewed as mainly responsible for the increased confidence in their L2 (Bernales, 2016, p.9).

This means increasing students’ communicative skills will influence their confidence positively. If students are continued to be set in settings where he or she has low self-confidence, it can influence the students’ global self-esteem in later stages (Lawrence, 2006, p.12). For, a student who have low self-efficacy towards speaking English, and feels this way every time he is asked to read out loud by the teacher, will experience anxiety while speaking which implicate the oral language. If this happens frequently this might further damage the students’ self-efficacy, and self-worth.

The mentoring program portrayed by King et al. (2002) shows that goals setting, relationships and achievement is key factors in increasing self esteem (King et al., 2002, p.294). At the same time, Rubio (2014) brings some interesting thoughts on the subject and he says activities where the student with low self-esteem feel they look good in front of the peers they may seem as superior will increase their self-esteem (Rubio, 2014, p.52-53). The most important thing regarding learning and oral participation is to discover what influence the student’s behaviour and make a method that fits their needs there after (Rubio, 2014, p.52-53).

It is difficult to portray a mend to self-confidence without knowing why and in what settings the
student lacking confidence. This can be very related to the classroom environment, but also related to a personality trait. However, there are validations towards increasing students’ confidence in their oral language by making them “look” good in front of his or her peers, increasing the students’ oral language and implementing achievement theory where the student sets a goal which he or she can accomplish.

5.5 Classroom-environment

Classroom-environment, depending on being healthy or unhealthy, has the ability to decrease or increase the students’ oral participation. Both the teachers I interviewed said the classroom-environment surely has an impact on the students’ oral participation. Teacher two said that noisy classrooms, where many students tries to be funny, comment and get encouraged by their peers are very negatively impactful for students oral participation. This might increase the students’ fear and anxiety, which may lead to less oral participation. Only two students out of the ten I interviewed said that they have experienced negative behaviour from other students in the classroom. However, this might be due to the selection of participants in my study. One of the answers from students in the present study might give clear indications that the classroom environment plays a vital role regarding student participation. Almost all of the students that participated less frequently answered they felt no anxiety when they spoke English on trips or outside the school. This gives clear indications that there are components inside the classroom that influence student participation. Some answers were that when they spoke at trips abroad it did not matter if they made mistakes, since nobody judged them. This might be one of the more key factors that reduces student participation, the fear of being laughed at, commented on and the general feeling of exposure plays vital roles in reducing student participation.

In Mustapha, Raman and Yunu´s study (2010) the students felt displeased with other students making noise while they tried to concentrate (Mustapha et.al, 2010,p. 1082). The same result can be found in Törnqvist’s study (2008), where 26% of the participators said the persons in the groups affected their participation (Törnqvist, 2008,p.). In Abebe & Deneke´s study (2015) some students said they were afraid of losing face in front of their peers. If the students gave negative feedback, it could continue by students mocking them later on (Abebe & Deneke, 2015, pp. 80-84). My participants said they feared others assessing them and feared they would make mistakes in front of others. This might be one of the reasons why they favoured group and pair work. All of the students in my study said they had a good classroom-environment, and only one student said she experienced comments happening while others talked English in the classroom. However, they also said they feared that other students were assessing them, even though they had never experienced bad behaviour while they have spoken
in the classroom. Mustapha (et.al., 2010) found in their study that the second most influential variable that increased oral participation was classroom-climate (Mustapha et.al, 2010, p. 1081). This is equal to the theory by Krumsvik (et.al., 2011) where they say that an unhealthy classroom climate will result in stress for the students.

My research says that creating a healthy classroom climate is vital for students’ oral participation. I have not investigated to what degree a healthy classroom climate will influence student participation. Nevertheless, it is unsurprisingly evident that the classroom climate can have positive and negative influence on students’ oral participation. What teachers should be aware of is that even though the classroom-climate is seemingly good, and no one is picking on each other, the students still experience fears that it might happen, which indicates they do not fully trust one another.

5.5.1 How to create a healthy classroom-environment
The data I gathered from my research stated explicitly that classroom-climate is a variable that can be said to either contribute to oral participation, or make the students not participate, depending on what climate one achieves. Both my teachers and the students in my study said that the classroom climate influence student participation. Therefore, this section will address some of the difficulties regarding classroom-environment and oral participation in general. These difficulties the students’ experienced were coherent with not fully trust their peers. Of course the general statement would be to create a supporting atmosphere where students respect and trust each other as cited in (Postholm et al., 2011,p. 148). Theory of this phenomenon is researched a lot, and is something teachers should be familiar with.

A more interesting theory is about students who do not feel connected to school. This was not reported in my student interviews, but might be reported in my interview with teacher two. This teacher told that the most difficult students to help are the ones that either do not care about the lessons and then act inappropriately while other student are speaking, or do not speak just “for the sake of it”. The Waters et al. (2009) model shows how connectedness to school can influence the student’s behaviour. They investigated the social and ecological structures supporting adolescent connectedness to school, and invented theoretical model that shows the students’ connectedness to the school in different levels (2009). This model also emphasises what is happening inside the classroom, but also takes the school’s function, structure and build mass into consideration. Roland (2007) investigated students feeling of influence in school, and this theory can be seen to be very related to Water’s (et al., 2009) theory. Emotional support, grades and supervision affect the students
feeling of influence positively in the classroom (Roland, 2007, p.89). Increasing the students feeling of influence and connectedness will prove positive for their behaviour in the classroom. These two studies can help teachers to help students who behave inappropriately in the classroom to behave better. It is evident that students can make others students to participate less, by either judge them or comment them while they speak. These theories aim towards those students, who do not feel anything for school.

There are some criteria or guidelines to check for teacher to see why the classroom climate is not a healthy one. Horne and Orpinas (2010) mention excellence in teaching, good values, awareness of problems and strengths, positive expectations and teacher support in her study as some factors that may describe a healthy classroom-climate. NOU 2010:7 describes a classroom has a healthy environment when students feel safe, feel recognition and trust and when there are good relationships in the classroom. Storts.meld 22 (2010-2011) says a good classroom environment is when there are good relationships, a good leadership, a good organisation and a culture for learning.

One of the reasons I portray these mends as very general is because how to mend an unhealthy climate is very related to the personalities and difficulties that are in the classroom. Therefore I have no space in this study to actually look at this problem specifically, since it would demand a more paper-space than I have to offer. This study have shown that connectedness to school might be a cause for students´ inappropriately behaviour. At the same time a lot of the anxieties students felt related to classroom-environment are related to relationships among the students. What is important for teachers to do is to discover what and where the problem lies, in order to find methods than may help to mend them. It is also important for teachers to be aware of the different relations between the students inside the classroom, as that might influence how they participate.

5.6 Motivation
Motivation is an essential part of students´ learning. Motivation is in the third layer in McCroskey´s theory willingness to communicate, which proves that the inner motivation is an effecting variable in students´ oral participation. This is about whether the student wants to participate because he or she wants to become better in English, or because wanting better grades motivates the student. Most of the students that participated highly said they participate because they have an inner motivation to become better at speaking English, or because they wanted better grades. Even though both of these are factors increased their participation, they are not the same or equally effective. These two different types of motivation can be referred to as inner or outer motivation, or more correct extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Oxford references describes extrinsic motivation as: “An incentive to do
something that arises from factors outside the individual”, such as rewards or penalties and Intrinsic Motivation as an “incentive to do something that arises from factors within the individual, such as a need to feel useful or to seek self-actualization“ (Law, 2009). Students being motivated by grades are having an outer motivation, meanwhile students being motivated by themselves wanting to become well at speaking English is an intrinsic motivation, or inner motivation.

Clemet, Gardner & Smythe (1980) have an interesting point of view when it comes to motivation and language learning. They believe one not only learns the language, one obtains the language’s culture as well. If students do not care for the culture they obtain, they will be less willing to learn the language. This theory is very coherent with something that was mentioned in my interview with teacher two. She said one not only obtains the words or the pronunciation of the language, but one almost becomes someone else when one uses the targeted language. A student can be extravert and confident when speaking in his mother tongue, can also be introvert and lacking confidence when speaking in a foreign language.

It will always be better to target the inner motivation rather the external motivation, since the chance is higher for it to last longer. A student who is only out for better grades might be put off when he or she starts to receive bad grades. Most of the students in my study said they participated because they wanted better or maintain their grades, and only one said that she wanted to use the language at a later stage, and wanted to become as good as possible with it.

One of the students I interviewed stated explicitly that she did want to achieve a better language and that oral participation was a big part of achieving this. This student had plans of doing more with the language after he finished tenth grade, and therefore had a need for becoming better at English in general. Even though all of the students that said they participated a lot said they had some form of motivation, student one and three said they are able, and could easily participate more by raising their hands more often, but were too lazy to do so. If they are able to achieve the grades they want by participation, as they do know, they may not bother to participate more to receive a better grade in the future. This would probably not happen if they had an inner motivation to become better at English and might be a very fine example of the differences between the two motivations and what effects they have on the student. It has to be said that it is much easier for the teacher to influence the outer motivation, as usually; the inner motivation has to come from the inside.

Only one student brought interesting topics as a contributor to more oral participation in my study. In Mustapha´s (et al., 2012) study the students said they participate more if the lecture is fun, and if it
involved jokes (2012, p. 1081). This is very similar to what teacher one said in my study where she said that being loose, and often involve jokes makes the students not taking participating as seriously, that they can loosen up and participate freely without too much thinking behind it. This was also brought up in Törnqvist’s study (2008) where one of the factors that most students answered were effective for their participation was interesting topics. Interesting topics that fits and invoke students is a variable that makes the students want to follow with the lecture, and perhaps participate more. Yet, there are more behind participation than just interesting topics. As teacher one said, if you are able to have a conversation with the students about something they care about and gets offended by, you will have many students participating. It is important to vary the topics in the classroom in the hope that all of the students will have some topics they are familiar with, and care for. This will not necessarily be a fix to oral participation in general, but students may participate more when they are discussing topics they know and have opinions on.

5.6.1 How to remedy lack of motivation for the students
Motivation is clearly a factor that influences the students learning and oral participation. DİŞLEN’s study gave some insight on students’ perception about when they feel the most motivated in the lessons (DİŞLEN, 2013 p. 37). What the students said where coherent with my interview with teacher one. Students are the most motivated when the teacher uses humour, are warm, well prepared and have a variety of activities (DİŞLEN, 2013 p. 37). At the same time students said they got unmotivated by repeating activities, noisy peers and lessons they did not understand (DİŞLEN, 2013 p. 38). These variables give a pinpoint to what the teacher can work towards when they are looking for reasons for unmotivated students. I guess teachers are aware of this, and hopefully no one is working towards not being warm and positive in the lessons. What can be drawn out from is that if the teacher is having a “bad” day, this might be one of the reasons that students will respond badly to what the teacher say or the activities that are used.

At the same time they do not give a concrete mending tool to what can be done in specific situations. Wright (2012) gave some very good opinions to help specific types of unmotivated students. In some instances there might be little a teacher can do, as often motivation works best when the students feel the work is worth it. The students that participated highly in my study said they wanted to become better at speaking, enjoyed speaking, or wanted to get better grades. Teacher two said the most difficult students are the ones that do not speak “for the sake of it”. This explanation might be very simple, and the student can struggle with oral participation because he or she does not see the benefit or reason for doing it. Wright (2012) says that rewards might function to make these students see a
reason to participate in the classroom (Wright, 2012, p.6). The incentive must be made in dialogue with the students to ensure that the rewards actually make a difference. Wright (2012) also says students can become unmotivated because of lacking relationship with the teacher (Wright, 2012, p. 9). This theory correlates with Water’s et al. (2009) theory about student connectedness with school influence their behaviour in the classroom. To remedy this Wright (2012) says one can praise positive behaviour instead of correcting bad behaviour (Wright, 2012, p. 9). This might work with students that often have negative behaviour in the classroom, and have bad relationship with the teacher because he or she receives negative corrections all the time. Skinner and Belmont (1993) found similar results in their study. Students reported that engagement in activities is influenced by their perceptions of the teacher and directly by the teacher’s actual behaviour (Skinner & Belmont, 1993, p.577).

It is evident that motivation works best if it is adapted to the individual. Some students only need familiar or interesting topics to be motivated, others need certain incentives to become motivated. What can be said to be general for increasing student motivation, is that the teacher needs to have a good relationship with the unmotivated student, gather information about why the student is unmotivated and decide how they are to proceed to find a motivational factor together with the student.
6. Conclusion

This paper began with my hypothesis that self-esteem, classroom-environment and anxiety were factors that are central when one investigates oral participation in the classroom. My assumption was also that presentation was one setting where most of the students that participated less would feel anxiety. Furthermore, group and pair work would be one of the activities that functions without students experience a high level of anxiety while they speak in it. My aim for this study was to combine studies with my own research to find how and why different activities and variables influence students’ oral participation. This thesis’ overall aim was to investigate how to mend low oral participation.

The first variable introduced in the discussion section (4.) was assessment of oral work. The findings presented that there are differences between students and their perceptions about whether to correct oral work increase student anxiety or not. The studies on the subject are not agreeing with each other on the subject. It is apparent that there will not be dangerous for teachers to correct oral work, if they do it in a manner the students are comfortable with. However, teachers should be careful to whom and how they correct, since some students will take this negatively even if that was not the correction’s intent. There is a possibility that correcting oral work in the classroom can cause anxiety and less participation for some students. However, it can also function as a fully viable assessment method that only contributes to more learning for some students as well.

Unsurprisingly, shy children will speak less than students who are not shy. This can be referred to theory regarding extraverted and introverted people, where extraverts will be more open to conversations with others than introverts (Haishen et al., 2011). It is evident that teachers need to be aware of shy children, since demanding oral participation in settings they are not comfortable with, may cause further harm and anxiety to the student. The link between shy children and students with communication apprehension is obvious. Both shy students and the ones with high level of CA will avoid social interactions in general. It will be hard to define children as shy or even discover students’ level of CA, but there are measures that can be made to prevent further harm to the students while they speak inside the classroom. One of the methods mentioned was to be precise where to seat these students, as seating them in a position where there is a lot of noise and communicative students may harm them further. Secondly one should praise oral communication, but not demand it (McCroskey, 1980). It is important for teachers that teach students that are shy or have some degree of communication apprehension that they speak with the students and receives information in what settings or with whom they are able to communicate without having a high degree of anxiety. Furthermore, the interesting findings that Lin and Fan (2017) made when they conducted their study
were that students with CA responded well to that particular activity. However, as this was not bound to language learning, there might be complications regarding students’ confidence in their oral language that makes this method not as viable. At the same time group activities as the one presented above are not focusing on language, and if the teacher is able to make the students only focus on the assignment and not how they express themselves it might work in English lessons as well. Group work was also the setting that all my participants as well as all of the theory on the subject presented in this study said was one of the superior methods for reducing anxiety in the classroom, which can further validate the findings from Fan and Lin (2017).

My assumptions on classroom procedures were not entirely cohesive with my findings in my study. However, one variable that stood out was group and pair work. The students and teachers in my study believed this setting to be the least anxiety inducing. Students preferred this activity because they did not feel stressed, they spoke with people they trust, and all eyes were not fixated on them and thus, they had more willingness to communicate. My early assumption was that presentation was a setting where most of the students that participated less frequently felt anxiety. However, my findings state that this is not necessarily the case. Many students said they felt anxiety in activities where they were not prepared. The activity that increased anxiety the most was when the teacher called upon them to answer or read out loud when they were not prepared in advance. My advice will be that teachers must be aware in what settings less frequently participating students favour to speak in, because demanding participation in activities where the students develop anxiety would only function to make them less willing to speak. Furthermore, students who begin in 8th grade will not trust their peers as they will do in 10th. Thus, demanding they place themselves in situations where they are not entirely confident, like a presentation in front of the class, might be very damaging for their future participation in the classroom. Both of my teachers said they had to assess and grade oral work of any kind. Students who are having a high degree of anxiety in a particular setting may produce a language that is not representative of the language they produce in settings without anxiety. Therefore, a student who experiences high level of anxiety when performing a presentation, will perform worse language than if they had not experience any anxiety.

One of the findings I discovered in my research is that most of the low participating students lacked confidence in their oral language. Consequently, the high participating students had confidence in their oral language. This is also reported in several studies and self-efficacy and self-esteem correlates with high participation. This can be seen in Haishen et al. (2011) and Park and Lee (2004). My study combined with theory in the field gave clear indications towards strong correspondence between self-esteem and students’ willingness to communicate. This finding can also be in relation to students fearing peers’ assessment, as was also a variable that I found in my study. Bernales (2016)
proved that small mingle exercises where students walk around the classroom and talk to each other would benefit students with low self-esteem. This was also an activity which teacher one in my study set highly on her list of activities she used to increase students’ oral participation. Rubio (2014) says that increasing students’ view on themselves in front of their peers might increase their overall self-esteem. In this regard make activities that students with low self-efficacy will master, and prepare in advance before they present this to a group of other students, might be a method to increase students’ self-efficacy. Students will need activities that target the students’ view of their language in front of others to surge oral participation.

As revealed in my discussion section, classroom environment was viewed as an immense influencer on oral participation. Students in my study said that the classroom-environment made them reluctant to speak. This correlates with other studies in the field of oral participation. How to mend an unhealthy classroom-environment is researched greatly, although how to mend the difficulties that are related to oral participation may not be as evident. I have shown that student’s feeling of connectedness both to the teacher and school will influence their behaviour in the classroom. Furthermore, creating good relationships among the peers will be a vital point when one is trying to make students more willing to speak. One of the most interesting findings that my study revealed is that even though they view their classroom environment as good, and they have had no problems regarding it, they still can feel insecure about their peers. This is important for teachers to be aware of because they can assess the classroom environment as healthy, which it may be, but they should not exclude activities or methods regarding how to increase students’ relationships. Furthermore, I will again advice teachers to receive information about why low participating students are choosing to remain low participating students.

All of the variables presented above are causes that may contribute to anxiety for students while speaking in the classroom. Anxiety is one of the more influencers of less participating students. Furthermore, if students feel anxiety towards reading out loud while the whole class is listening they should be excluded from these exercises. This can also be referred to as Adapted Education as I discussed earlier in my theory chapter (4.). It is important that teachers do not forget to actually investigate what can harm students, also in reference to oral participation. I have shown that there are several common settings and variables that may cause anxiety. It might be difficult for teachers to have the time to mend these problems that occur, and it may be even more difficult it the problems are related to other subjects as well. However, to be aware of these causes might give some directions to how to try and avoid settings or activities where students may experience anxiety.

The last cause for low participation this study has discussed is motivation. Motivation will regulate how students choose to perform at any given task. High motivation will result in higher performance.
Students that are unmotivated to speak and sees it as unnecessary might benefit from increased feeling of connectedness to school or receiving incentive for speaking. Even though the high participating students in my research had some form of motivation to speak in the classroom, I did not find the opposite with the low participating students. Therefore, one can assume based on these data, motivation will be a secondary factor. Even if students are motivated to speak, there might be other causes that make them reluctant to speak. Unsurprisingly, there are correlations between interesting topics and students’ motivation to participate in the classroom. If teachers are trying to mend low participating students, include topics that the students care for or has some opinions on, will increase their participation. At the same time this study also found a correlation between student-teacher relationships and low oral participation. Students who either do not feel influence in the classroom, or have bad relationship with the teacher may not participate as frequently.

This study shows that these variables are often related to one and another, and that one cannot view them as separate causes. A student can have low participation because of lacking confidence in the language, afraid of peer assessment, lacking a reason to participate or because of experiencing anxiety. To mend these causes one need to mix the suggestions this paper has portrayed and suit them to the individual. This is why the practical advice this study has to offer is to take the time to gather information on why low participating students are reluctant to speak in the classroom. The two different scales mentioned in this research by McCroskey (1982) (PRCA-24 & Shyness Scale) might be a starting point for teachers to investigate the difficulties regarding students’ low oral participation. Creating a survey that students answer every year might prove beneficial for mapping out the variables that are presented in this paper. This study has given merits for teachers to take speaking anxiety seriously in the classroom, both from didactical and student welfare purposes.

6.1 Suggestions to further research

The limitations of this study are related to the choice of methodology and to the amount of participants that this study has. As I have only interviewed ten students and two teachers the findings can only be viewed as opinions of a small amount of participants. Nevertheless, I was able to discover common variables that will occur in many EFL classrooms. Since I was aware that my method did include limitations, the theoretical framework was used to give my study more validation. Even if I was able to achieve the aims I set for this master thesis there are still parts I have not been able to investigate in depth. I have not presented every variable that exists, and the variables presented are discussed because they emerged from my conducted study. Even though this validates why I have chosen the variables, it still limits the amount of variables that I could find.
It would be interesting to investigate the degree of which the variables presented in this study affects student participation. I have found that these variables have an impact on student participation, but the degree the variables influence was not a focus area of mine. It would be very interesting to see to what degree anxiety actually influence student participation. It would also be beneficial to look at the different types of causes to anxiety and to see to what degree they actually reduce students’ willingness to communicate. At the same time I would suggest to further investigate common variables, as a more quantitative study might present valid results of the most common variables that reduce student participation in Norwegian schools. I am aware that there are theories and research that are not mentioned in this study, and the reader should be aware that I had no intention to show the best method to work with mending low participating classroom. However, the theories presented are empirical researched methods that will help teachers to mend less participating students. The best advice I would give to further research is to focus more specifically on how to increase student participation. This area needs more concrete and practical research.
Literature


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Summary

This study investigates variables that increase and decrease students’ oral participation. It also investigates how to mend low participation. The research questions were 1) what increase and decrease oral participation, and 2) how does teachers work in order to increase low participating students and 3) how to mend low participation. A qualitative study was used where 10 tenth grade students and 2 teachers were interviewed in order to discover the variables that would be investigated in the theory chapter.

This research found that corrective feedback on oral work had contradicting findings. There is validation towards students experiencing anxiety with type of feedback, but also that they have no special collocations towards it. Shy children will experience anxiety when they speak, and findings in this study say that group and pair work will be a setting where they might feel less anxiety. Students with a degree of communication apprehension (CA) will need special care, and need special treats if they are ever going to speak without restraint in the classroom. Group and pair work is the sole activity that is to a large extent anxiety free. Meanwhile presentations in the classroom will vary, even with the less participating students. The most anxiety inducing activity is when the teachers ask students to read out loud or when they force students to answer questions. The results of this study states that students who participate highly will have confidence in their oral language and students who participate less will not be confident in their oral language. The classroom environment is a vital factor that influences student participation to a large degree. Motivation will result in higher participating students, however if the students experience anxiety in speaking activities, this factor may not be as fertile.

The study discovered some key factors that teachers can use to mend low oral participation. It has presented some suggestions on how to mend the variables presented above. Some of the methods were mentioned in the teacher interviews, and some had to be explored through different studies.

The study has given some insight to how different variables influence student participation, and given suggestions on how to mend them. However, it acknowledges that there is a need for more practical theory regarding how to increase students’ oral participation.
Oppsummering

Denne oppgaven undersøkte variabler som øker og reduserer stunders muntlig deltagelse. Den undersøker også hvordan man kan jobbe mot å øke deltagelse til eleven. Oppgavens mål og undersøkelsesspørsmål er: 1) hva øker og reduserer elevers muntlig deltagelse, 2) hvordan jobber lærere jobbe mot å fikse lav deltagelse, 3) hvordan kan man jobbe mot å fikse lav deltagelse.

Undersøkelsen var kvalitativ intervjuer der ti tiendeklassinger og to lærere ble intervjuet for å finne ut hvilke variabler som skulle bli brukt i teorikapitlet.

Denne oppgaven fant at korrigerende tilbakemeldinger på studenters muntlig språk ikke nødvendigvis er ødeleggende. Det er viktig at lærere vet at å korrigere elevene muntlig kan være en årsak til angst og stress, mens det er også elever som ikke får noe negativt ut av dette. Sjenerte elever vil som regel oppleve angst eller stress da de snakker, og funnene i denne oppgaven viser at gruppe og par-oppgaver kan være en setting der de ikke opplever dette i like stor grad. Studenter som har redsel for å prate med mennesker (communication apprehension) trenger spesielt å bli tatt vare på, og spesielle metoder for at de skal kunne prate uten angst med andre elever. Forskningen i denne oppgaven viser at gruppe og par-oppgaver er de minst angst-frembringende settingene, og eleven føler som regel at de kan prate uten å føle det som negativt i disse aktivitetene. Å holde en presentasjon foran klassen er ikke nødvendigvis angstfrembringennde for alle elever. Studenter som har høy muntlig deltagelse har som regel høyere selvtillit i deres engelske språk og de som har lav deltagelse har som regel lav selvtillit til sitt engelske språk. Funnene fra denne oppgaven viser også til at klasseklima er en faktor som påvirker studenters muntlige deltagelse. Motivasjon er også en faktor som gjør det ,men hvis studentene føler angst er det ikke nødvendigvis like gjeldende.


Denne studien kastet lys over hvordan noen variable kan påvirke studenters muntlige deltagelse og gitt noen råd til hvordan en kan fikse dem. Denne studien viser også at det trengs mer teori på hvordan en kan øke elevers muntlige deltagelse.
Appendix 1 Permission paper

Forespørsel om deltakelse i forskningsprosjektet

En masteroppgave om hvilke variabler er med på å øke muntlig deltagelse i engelsktimene og hva som gjør at elever velger å være passive i timene.

Bakgrunn og formal
Formålet med denne masteroppgaven er å se hva som gjør at noen snakker i engelsktimene og hva som kan gjøre at noen velger å ikke snakke.

Hva innebærer deltakelse i studien?
Det innebærer at dere samtykker til å ha et personlig intervju med meg. Intervjuet vil bli tatt opp av en båndopptager. Spørsmålene vil omhandle hva dere selv tenker om deres egen deltagelse i engelsktimene og spørsmål rundt dette emnet. Hvis dere og foreldrene har lyst til å se spørsmålene før dere svarer ja kan dere kontakte meg så mail så ordnes det.

Hva skjer med informasjonen om deg?
Alle personopplysninger vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. Det er kun jeg som har direkte tilgang til lydfilen fra intervjuet, og denne vil bli slettet forløpende etter jeg har transkribert (skrevet ned) intervjuet på datamaskinen. Det vil ikke forekomme noen informasjon som kan være med på å identifisere deltakeren i masteroppgaven jeg skriver. Alle deltakere vil få nye navn, og det er kun de involverte parter som vet hvilke skoler jeg har vært og intervjuet på. Prosjektet skal etter planen avsluttes i midten av mai.

Frivillig deltakelse
Det er frivillig å delta i studien, og du kan når som helst trekke ditt samtykke uten å oppgi noen grunn. Dersom du trekker deg, vil alle opplysninger om deg bli slettet. Deres deltagelse vil ha ingen innvirkning på faget deres deltaker i. Det er ingen kriterier for å være deltager i denne studien og alle elever er like interessante.

Dersom du ønsker å delta eller har spørsmål til studien, ta kontakt med Snorre Norderud 92xxxx. Heidi Silje Moen er veilederen min på min oppgave.

Studien er meldt til Personvernombudet for forskning, NSD - Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS.

Mvh Snorre Norderud

Samtykke til deltakelse i studien
Jeg har mottatt informasjon om studien, og er villig til å delta

Elev Forelder

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato) (Signert av forelder, dato)
Appendix 2 Interview guide students

**Metodespørsmål:**
Hvilke metoder har du opplevd har bidratt til muntlig deltagelse i engelsktimer?
Hvilke metoder har du opplevde har gjort at noen prater mindre i engelsktimer?
Er det stor forskjell mellom metoder som læreren din gjør?
Snakker engelsklæreren din mye engelsk i timene?
Forventes det at dere gjør det samme?

**Tidligere erfaringer med muntlig deltagelse:**
Er det forskjell på din muntlig deltagelse nå enn før?
Hvor mye har lærerne dine før krevet at dere skal snakke i timene på engelsk?

**Spørsmål om elevens muntlig deltagelse:**
Snakker du mye engelsk på eget initiativ i timene?
Har du noen gode opplevelser ved å snakke engelsk i timene?
Har du noen mindre gode opplevelser ved å snakke engelsk i timene?
Føler du deg aktiv i engelsktimene, eks .- rekker opp hånda selv, tar initiativ.?
Føler du deg selvsikker eller litt usikker da du snakker engelsk alene foran klassen?

**Spørsmål generelt om muntlig deltagelse:**
Tror du at det er nødvendig med muntlig deltagelse for å være god i engelsk muntlig?
Er det mindre/mer lettere å prate engelsk i grupper enn foran klassen?
Opplever du at klassemiljøet er godt slik at man ikke trenger å være redd da man snakker engelsk?
Appendix 3 Interview guide teachers

**Metode:**
Hvilke metoder bruker du for å øke elevenes muntlige deltagelse?
Er dette metoder du har funnet i forskning, fått ved erfaring, eller andre steder?
(Hvorfor er dette favorittene dine?
Har du brukt noen metoder som ikke har fungert?

**Generelt med muntlig deltagelse**
Er et viktig for eleven å være muntlig delaktig I timene, I så fall hvorfor?
Hvilke variable har du vært bort I øker elevenes muntlig deltagelse
Hvilke variable har du vært bort I minsker elevenes muntlige deltagelse?

**Elevenes muntlige deltagelse**
Hvor godt kjenner du til dine elevers “grunner” for deltagelse/ikke deltagelse I engelsktimene?
Er det viktig å kunne disse grunnene?
Hvordan finner mann dette ut?
Appendix 4 Permission from NSD

Heidi Silje Moen  
Institutt for humanistiske fag Høgskolen i Hedmark  
Postboks 4010 Bedriftssenteret  
2306 HAMAR

Vår ref: 50471 / 3 / MSS  
Deres dato:  
Derere ref:  

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 09.10.2016. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

50471  It is easier to mend when you know what you are mending  
Behandlingsansvarlig  Høgskolen i Hedmark, ved institusjonens øverste leder  
Daglig ansvarlig  Heidi Silje Moen  
Student  Snorre Norderud

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger er meldepliktig i henhold til personopplysningsloven § 31. Behandlingen tilfredsstiller kravene i personopplysningsloven.

Personvernombudets vurdering forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.


Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 16.05.2017, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Katrine Utaaker Segadal  
Marie Strand Schildmann

Kontaktperson: Marie Strand Schildmann tlf: 55 58 31 52  

Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

It is easier to mend when you know what you are mending

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger er meldepliktig i henhold til personopplysningsloven § 31. Behandlingen tilfredsstiller kravene i personopplysningsloven.

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Katrine Utaaker Segadal  
Marie Strand Schildmann

Kontaktperson: Marie Strand Schildmann tlf: 55 58 31 52  

Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.