

**A Quantitative Study of Speaking Strategies, Anxiety, Motivation,
and Attitudes among Chinese Non-English-Major Undergraduates in
English Language Learning**

by

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis was conducted in full compliance with the regulations of Universiti Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS). Except where proper acknowledgment is given, this work is solely the effort of the author. This thesis has not been accepted for the award of any other degree and is not being **concurrently** submitted for any other academic qualification.

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A Quantitative Study of Speaking Strategies, Anxiety, Motivation, and Attitudes among Chinese Non-English-Major Undergraduates in English Language Learning

ABSTRACT

English proficiency is crucial for university students in China, given the country's emphasis on English education. As globalization and China's international involvement increase, English is vital for academic success, career growth and cross-cultural communication. The government and institutions have made it a core subject and a key requirement for university entrance and graduation. Nevertheless, many Non-English-Major undergraduates encounter difficulties in speaking English, largely due to factors such as language anxiety, low motivation and the use of ineffective or limited speaking strategies. Clarifying how these strategies and emotional factors interact to influence learners' motivation and attitudes is essential for improving English language education. While existing research has explored these relationships, findings remain inconclusive. This study aims to assess the levels and interrelationships of speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes among Chinese undergraduates studying English as a foreign language (EFL). Additionally, it investigates the relationships among these variables. A quantitative research method was employed, utilizing purposive sampling to collect data from the target population. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics to summarize the data, correlation analysis to explore associations between key variables, and regression analysis to examine the relationships between variables, all conducted using SPSS version 27.0. The study surveyed first- and second-year Non-English-Major students from six universities in Jinan, Shandong Province, China. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed, yielding 415 valid responses and an 83% response rate. The sample comprised 203 male and 212 female students. The findings indicate that among various speaking strategies, "Message Abandonment Strategies" were the most frequently employed. Regarding speaking anxiety, students reported the highest levels of anxiety related to "Test Anxiety." In terms of learning motivation, "Extrinsic Motivation - Social" emerged as the most prominent factor, while "Cognitive Attitude" was the strongest component of learning attitudes. Grounded in theoretical frameworks of Socio-Educational Model, this study proposed hypotheses regarding the relationships among the investigated variables. The results demonstrated that both speaking strategies and speaking anxiety were significantly related to learning motivation, which, in turn, was positively associated with learning attitudes. These findings underscore the pivotal role of learning motivation in shaping students' attitudes toward English learning. Based on these insights, educators and policymakers should prioritize strategies aimed at reducing speaking anxiety and promoting effective speaking strategies to enhance students' motivation. This study contributes to the ongoing discourse on English

language education by providing empirical evidence to inform pedagogical practices for Non-English-Major undergraduates in China.

Keywords: Speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, learning attitudes, Non-English-Major undergraduates

Kajian Kuantitatif Strategi Bertutur, Kebimbangan Bertutur, Motivasi dan Sikap Pelajar Prasiswa China Bukan Jurusan Bahasa Inggeris dalam Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggeris

ABSTRAK

Penguasaan bahasa Inggeris adalah penting bagi pelajar universiti di China sejajar dengan penekanan negara terhadap pendidikan bahasa Inggeris. Seiring dengan peningkatan globalisasi dan penglibatan antarabangsa China, bahasa Inggeris memainkan peranan penting dalam kejayaan akademik, perkembangan kerjaya dan komunikasi silang budaya. Kerajaan dan institusi pendidikan telah menetapkannya sebagai mata pelajaran teras serta keperluan utama untuk kemasukan dan pengijazahan universiti. Walau bagaimanapun, ramai pelajar sarjana muda bukan jurusan bahasa Inggeris menghadapi kesukaran dalam bertutur dalam bahasa Inggeris, terutamanya disebabkan oleh faktor seperti kebimbangan bahasa, motivasi yang rendah serta penggunaan strategi pertuturan yang terhad atau tidak berkesan. Penjelasan tentang bagaimana strategi pertuturan dan faktor emosi ini saling berinteraksi dalam mempengaruhi motivasi dan sikap pembelajaran adalah penting untuk meningkatkan kualiti pendidikan bahasa Inggeris. Walaupun kajian terdahulu telah meneliti hubungan antara pembolehubah ini, dapatan yang diperolehi masih belum konsisten. Oleh itu, kajian ini bertujuan untuk menilai tahap serta hubungan antara strategi pertuturan, kebimbangan bertutur, motivasi pembelajaran dan sikap pembelajaran dalam kalangan pelajar Cina yang mempelajari bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa asing (EFL). Selain itu, kajian ini turut menyiasat hubungan antara pembolehubah-pembolehubah tersebut. Kaedah penyelidikan kuantitatif telah digunakan, menggunakan persampelan bertujuan untuk mengumpul data daripada populasi sasaran. Data dianalisis menggunakan statistik deskriptif untuk meringkaskan data, analisis korelasi untuk meneroka perkaitan antara pembolehubah utama, dan analisis regresi untuk mengkaji hubungan antara pembolehubah, semuanya dijalankan menggunakan SPSS versi 27.0. Kajian itu meninjau pelajar utama bukan bahasa Inggeris tahun pertama dan kedua dari enam universiti di Jinan, Wilayah Shandong, China. Sebanyak 500 soal selidik telah diedarkan, menghasilkan 415 jawapan yang sah dan kadar respons 83%. Sampel terdiri daripada 203 pelajar lelaki dan 212 pelajar perempuan. Penemuan menunjukkan bahawa antara pelbagai strategi pengucapan, "Strategi Pengabaian Mesej" adalah yang paling kerap digunakan. Mengenai kebimbangan bercakap, pelajar melaporkan tahap kebimbangan tertinggi yang berkaitan dengan "Kebimbangan Ujian." Dari segi motivasi belajar, "Motivasi Ekstrinsik - Sosial" muncul sebagai faktor yang paling menonjol, manakala "Sikap Kognitif" adalah komponen paling kuat dalam sikap belajar. Berdasarkan kerangka teori seperti hipotesis penapis afektif, teori kognitif sosial, teori sikap-tingkah laku dan teori penentuan nasib sendiri, kajian ini mencadangkan hipotesis berkenaan hubungan antara pembolehubah yang diselidiki.

Keputusan menunjukkan bahawa kedua-dua strategi bercakap dan kebimbangan bercakap adalah berkaitan secara signifikan dengan motivasi pembelajaran, yang seterusnya, dikaitkan secara positif dengan sikap belajar. Penemuan ini menekankan peranan penting motivasi pembelajaran dalam membentuk sikap pelajar terhadap pembelajaran bahasa Inggeris. Berdasarkan pandangan ini, pendidik dan penggubal dasar harus mengutamakan strategi yang bertujuan untuk mengurangkan kebimbangan bercakap dan mempromosikan strategi pertuturan yang berkesan untuk meningkatkan motivasi pelajar. Dapatan kajian ini menegaskan peranan penting motivasi pembelajaran dalam membentuk sikap pelajar terhadap pembelajaran bahasa Inggeris. Sehubungan itu, pendidik dan pembuat dasar disarankan untuk memberi keutamaan kepada usaha mengurangkan kebimbangan bertutur serta mempromosikan penggunaan strategi pertuturan yang berkesan bagi meningkatkan motivasi pelajar. Kajian ini menyumbang kepada perbincangan berterusan dalam bidang pendidikan bahasa Inggeris dengan menyediakan bukti empirikal yang dapat menyokong amalan pedagogi bagi pelajar sarjana muda bukan jurusan bahasa Inggeris di China.

Kata Kunci: *Strategi bercakap, kebimbangan bercakap, motivasi pembelajaran, sikap belajar, pelajar sarjana muda bukan bahasa Inggeris*

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
FLA	Foreign Language Anxiety
OCSI	Oral Communication Strategy Inventory
SPSS	Statistical Product and Service Solutions
SPCILS	Student Perceptions of the College Instructional Laboratory Survey
NEM	Non-English-Major
NEMU	Non-English-Major Undergraduate
SCT	Social Cognitive Theory
NoM	Negotiation of Meaning
EMI	English as a Medium of Instruction
EIL	English as an International Language
OCF	Oral Corrective Feedback
CAF	Accuracy and Fluency
OCSI	Oral Communication Strategy Inventory
CSs	Communication Strategies
FLCAS	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
FNE	Fear of Negative Evaluation
FLSA	Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety

CHAPTER 1:
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This thesis explores the intricate interplay of speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, motivation and attitudes among Chinese undergraduates majoring in fields other than English who are studying English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Commencing with an examination of the background and the identification of key issues, the research aims to illuminate this underexplored aspect of language learning. The specific objectives are designed to address critical facets of the overarching aim, guided by well-formulated research questions. The study's significance lies in its potential to contribute valuable insights to academia, educators and policymakers. Grounded in a solid theoretical rationale, the thesis establishes operational definitions for key terms, ensuring conceptual clarity. The reader is provided with a clear roadmap of the thesis's organization, facilitating an understanding of the subsequent chapters' logical flow from literature review to methodology and findings.

1.2 Background of Study

English learners from around the world are mainly divided into two groups: the British Council stated that there are 750 million English as a foreign language users and 375 million English second language learners. The difference between these two groups is that EFL speakers are usually those who occasionally use English for business or entertainment purposes, while ESL (English as a Second Language) students use English every day. The number of English learners around the world is expected to only increase. According to the British Council's report 'The English Effect', there are currently 175 million people worldwide who speak English, which is one fourth of the population on Earth. The organization estimates that by 2020, 2 billion people will be using this language.

With the deepening of globalization, the demand for English among EFL Non-English-Major students continues to rise, enabling them to better engage in international communication and address professional challenges. The deepening of globalization has significantly heightened the demand for English proficiency among Non-English-Major students worldwide (Phan, 2021). The overarching trend reflects the recognition of English as a vital tool for international communication in our interconnected world. As businesses, academic institutions and organizations operate on a global scale, proficiency in English emerges as a key asset, providing individuals with access to diverse opportunities, cross-cultural collaboration and a competitive edge in the international job market (Alneyadi et al., 2023).

Cultural exchange initiatives and adjustments in educational policies underscore a broader societal acknowledgment of the importance of English proficiency in fostering global cultural understanding and cooperation (Wang & Zhou, 2020). This concerted effort aims not only to equip individuals with linguistic skills but also to enhance their ability to contribute meaningfully to a globally interconnected community.

In essence, the global developmental backdrop of EFL Non-English-Major students underscores the significance of English in the era of globalization (Halommi & Stevens, 2023). This linguistic trend opens up a broader spectrum of international communication and career development opportunities, positioning English proficiency as an indispensable tool for individuals and societies navigating the complexities of our interconnected and interdependent world.

The reform of China's education system has promoted the popularization of English learning to meet the needs of international development. With the rise of China's economy, English as the main language of international communication has become increasingly important, prompting Non-English-Major students to enhance their competitiveness in the workplace by learning English (Han et al., 2019). China, which actively participates in international cooperation, has promoted international exchange of English and provided more opportunities for Non-English-Major students to participate in international cultural and academic exchanges (Tian & Liu, 2021). Meanwhile, with the popularization of various media, Non-English-Major students have more convenient access to high-quality English education resources. English learning plays an important role in promoting cultural understanding and international influence.

According to statistics from the Beijing Evening News, the number of Chinese people learning English has exceeded 400 million and the cost of English training nationwide is as high as 30 billion yuan per year. According to the 2019 China Foreign Language Talent Development Report, the number of English teachers nationwide has exceeded 1 million, with approximately 80% of English teachers concentrated in the eastern region. As of May 31, 2022, there are a total of 3013 higher education institutions in China, including 2759 ordinary higher education institutions. There are a total of 1036 ordinary higher education institutions in the eastern region of China, including 92 in Beijing, 56 in Tianjin, 124 in Hebei Province, 153 in Shandong Province, 168 in Jiangsu Province, 64 in Shanghai, 109 in Zhejiang Province, 89 in Fujian Province, 160 in Guangdong Province and 21 in Hainan Province. The data does not include higher education institutions in Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan.

At the 2023 National Network Video Conference on Employment and Entrepreneurship Work for College Graduates, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security highlighted that the number of college graduates is expected to reach 11.58 million. This represents an increase of 820,000 compared to the same period last year (Cao, 2022).

In summary, English, as the most widely used language in the world, has a high demand for English learning. As a developing country, China's enthusiasm for learning English has been increasing year by year in order to align with the international community. With the deepening of global economic and cultural exchanges, more and more people have realized the importance of English. Among major universities in China, English learning still accounts for a large proportion. In China, all Non-English-Major students are required to undergo 2-4 semesters of college English learning (Li & Wang, 2018). The Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China also listed English as a compulsory subject in higher education in China in 2014, reflecting the importance of English. As the main content of college foreign language education, it is a mandatory public basic course for most Non-English-Majors during the undergraduate education stage (Cheng & Wei, 2021).

In accordance with the Ministry of Education's Guidelines for Teaching English in Universities, foreign language education holds a pivotal position within China's higher education landscape (Li & Wang, 2018). Recognizing its vital role, the Ministry emphasizes that proficiency in English is integral to enhancing the knowledge, skills and overall

competence of college students (Liu, 2022). This strategic approach aligns with the broader goals of higher education in China, aiming not only to equip students with academic expertise but also to foster a well-rounded and globally competitive workforce (Li, 2023). The emphasis on foreign language education, particularly in English, acknowledges the language's international significance and its role as a tool for academic and professional success (Gong et al., 2020).

Within this framework, College English emerges as a cornerstone of foreign language education in Chinese universities, assuming a central role in the curriculum for Non-English-Majors (Li & Wang, 2018). As the primary focus of foreign language education at the university level, College English serves as a foundational component of undergraduate studies for students pursuing disciplines other than English. Its importance lies not only in language acquisition but also in the cultivation of communication skills, cross-cultural understanding and the ability to engage with global academic and professional communities (Gong et al., 2020). By integrating College English into the undergraduate curriculum, universities in China actively contribute to the holistic development of students, preparing them for the demands of an interconnected and linguistically diverse world.

In China, English language education has traditionally placed greater emphasis on reading, writing, and grammar, while oral communication has often been neglected in both classroom instruction and assessment. As a result, many Chinese EFL learners struggle to develop effective speaking strategies that facilitate interaction, fluency, and confidence in real-life communication. The exam-oriented education system further reinforces a focus on written performance, leaving limited opportunities for students to practice communicative competence (Zhang, 2025). In recent years, however, the growing demand for international communication and professional mobility has highlighted the importance of improving oral English proficiency. Speaking strategies, such as communication strategies, classroom debates, message reduction and the use of fillers, are therefore becoming increasingly recognized as essential tools for overcoming communication barriers and enhancing speaking performance (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021; Chou, 2024; Yang, 2024). These challenges are further compounded by speaking anxiety, a common emotional barrier among Chinese EFL learners. Speaking anxiety often arises from fear of negative evaluation, low self-efficacy, and limited exposure to authentic speaking environments (Gan & Aeamtussana,

2024; Gao, 2025). It can inhibit students' willingness to participate in class, increase self-consciousness, and ultimately hinder their oral performance.

Learning motivation also plays a critical role in language learning success. In China's exam-oriented education system, motivation is often extrinsically driven by academic requirements and social expectations rather than intrinsic interest (Xie, King & Luo, 2023). This reliance on external motivators may reduce students' engagement in communicative practices and limit their sustained effort to improve speaking ability. At the same time, students' learning attitudes, reflecting their beliefs, feelings, and behavioral tendencies toward English learning, are shaped by both motivational and emotional factors (Pan et al., 2022; Rochmawati et al., 2021). Positive attitudes can foster persistence and active participation, whereas negative attitudes may lead to avoidance and demotivation. Therefore, understanding how speaking strategies and speaking anxiety influence learning motivation, and how motivation in turn shapes learning attitudes, is essential for improving English language instruction and supporting students' communicative competence in Chinese universities.

1.3 Problem Statement

English speaking competence plays a crucial role in effective communication and global interaction. As English has become the dominant international language in education, business, science, and technology, the ability to speak English fluently is increasingly viewed as a key indicator of communicative competence and academic success (Alneyadi et al., 2023; Phan, 2021). For EFL learners, particularly university students in Non-English-Major programs, speaking English is not only essential for classroom participation and oral examinations but also for enhancing employability in an increasingly globalized labor market (Halommi & Stevens, 2023). Moreover, oral communication competence facilitates intercultural understanding and helps learners express ideas confidently in academic and professional contexts. Despite years of formal English instruction, many EFL students still struggle with oral communication due to limited exposure, lack of confidence, and speaking anxiety, underscoring the need for focused research on speaking performance and related affective and motivational factors.

The existing literature highlights significant gaps in the current focus on English education for Non-English-Major students in Chinese universities. Fu and Zheng (2021)

noted that English education in these institutions primarily centers on English majors, with insufficient attention given to Non-English-Majors. Huang et al. (2021) also emphasized that learning English as a second language demands considerable time and effort and Non-English-Majors often face the additional challenge of balancing this with the demands of other professional courses, an issue not always addressed by some educational institutions. Similarly, Li et al. (2021) pointed out the ongoing need for greater attention to Non-English-Major students. These findings underscore the importance of further exploring the specific challenges faced by this group within the broader context of English language learning.

Although numerous studies have examined English speaking competence among EFL learners, research focusing on speaking strategies remains relatively scarce, particularly among Chinese Non-English-Major university students. Previous studies have emphasized linguistic proficiency, teaching methods, or general communication strategies, but have seldom explored how learners use specific speaking strategies to overcome communication barriers (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021; Chou, 2024; Yang, 2024). Moreover, most existing research treats speaking strategies as isolated linguistic behaviors rather than examining their psychological and motivational implications (Wang, Shen & Yu, 2021; Xiuwen & Razali, 2021; Zhou & Mann, 2021). Few studies have investigated how the use of such strategies interacts with affective variables such as speaking anxiety or learning motivation to shape learners' overall attitudes toward English learning. In China, where classroom instruction continues to emphasize accuracy over fluency, this gap is particularly significant (Guan & Scott, 2025; Reynolds & Kao, 2021; Sun & Zhang, 2021; Sun & Zhang, 2022).

In addition to these practical problems encountered in speaking strategies, Non-English-Major undergraduates (NEMU) also face many challenges in their English-speaking anxiety. NEMU frequently experience difficulties in pronunciation, intonation, and fluency, which often lead to discomfort and avoidance of oral communication (Huang et al., 2021; Puspita et al., 2021). Classroom practices that prioritize written expression and examinations over speaking practice further exacerbate this issue (Vattøy, 2020), contributing to speaking anxiety, a pervasive problem among EFL learners (Asyfyfa et al., 2019). This anxiety, often linked to fear of negative evaluation and low confidence, has been found to interact with both motivation and attitude (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021; Sabti et al., 2019; Cocca & Cocca, 2019), ultimately influencing learners' willingness to communicate and overall oral performance.

For Non-English-Major undergraduates, insufficient motivation remains a key issue in English learning (Chen et al., 2021). This lack of motivation reduces students' enthusiasm and limits language improvement. Many students lose interest because they see little connection between English learning and their academic or career needs, making it difficult to sustain engagement. Although prior studies have examined education system (Fauzi & Anindiati, 2021) and teaching methods (Vonkova et al., 2021), learner background (Cheng & Chen, 2022), classroom environment (Qu & Wu, 2024), and technology (Qu & Wu, 2024) as factors influencing motivation, few have focused on how these factors operate in the oral English learning context for Chinese Non-English-Majors. Furthermore, the interaction between learning motivation, speaking anxiety, speaking strategies, and learning attitudes remains underexplored, highlighting the need for research on how motivation shapes students' oral English learning experiences.

Negative learning attitudes also pose a significant challenge for Non-English-Major undergraduates. Many students view English learning as burdensome or irrelevant to their field of study, leading to disengagement and poor learning outcomes (Getie, 2020; Pan et al., 2021; Sriwichai, 2020). Such attitudes are shaped not only by individual beliefs but also by factors such as cultural identities (Siddiqui, Asad & Rind, 2025), technology assistance (Lei et al., 2022), classroom environment (Ramzan et al., 2023), learning management systems (Qaddumi & Smith, 2024). Although previous research has explored attitudes toward English learning in general, limited attention has been given to how learning attitudes interact with motivation, speaking anxiety, and speaking strategies in shaping oral English learning among Chinese Non-English-Majors.

In addition to the practical gap concerning of oral English learning among Chinese NEMU, there also exists a significant theoretical gap regarding the interaction between affective and motivational variables in this context. Prior research has delved into the complex dynamics of EFL learners, revealing speaking strategies and speaking anxiety as the prevalent challenges that significantly influence learners' attitudes and motivation levels (Asyfyfa et al., 2019; Amoah & Yeboah, 2021; Sabti et al., 2019; Cocca & Cocca, 2019). These studies underscore the multifaceted nature of language learning, highlighting the close interplay between psychological factors, motivation, and learning attitudes. For NEMU, attitude and motivation are also recognized as key determinants of oral English learning outcomes (Aizawa et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2021). Understanding this interplay is crucial,

as it can provide insights into how speaking strategies and anxiety jointly shape students' engagement, confidence, and overall oral performance, ultimately informing more effective pedagogical practices.

However, empirical findings regarding the relationships among these variables remain inconsistent. Empirical findings on the relationships among speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes remain inconsistent. While some studies found weak, negative, or no correlations (Karagöl & Başbay, 2018; Öztürk, 2012; Bárkányi, 2021), others reported positive associations (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021; Muhayyang et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2024). These conflicting results suggest that the interconnections among speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, motivation, and learning attitudes are far from straightforward. Despite growing attention to affective and motivational factors in EFL learning, few studies have examined how these variables interact within the oral English learning context of Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates. This theoretical gap calls for further research to clarify these relationships and to provide context-specific insights into how emotional and motivational factors jointly shape English learning experiences in China's university classrooms.

Building upon the highlighted concerns, this study endeavors to delve into a comprehensive examination of speaking anxiety, attitudes and motivations among Chinese NEMU students as they engage in the learning process of the English language. Furthermore, the scope of this study extends to a nuanced exploration of the intricate interplay between key variables, namely speaking anxiety, learning attitudes and motivation. By doing so, the aim is to provide a more profound understanding of the dynamics shaping the English language learning experience for this specific demographic, thereby contributing valuable insights to the broader discourse on language acquisition.

1.4 Research Objectives, Research Questions and Research Hypotheses

The study aims to investigate the relationship between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes in the EFL classroom among Chinese undergraduates. The overarching goal is to provide insights into the dynamics of EFL learning among NEM Chinese undergraduates and contribute valuable information to the field of language education. This aim was guided by the following research objectives and research questions.

Research objectives as stated below:

RO1: To examine the levels of speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes among Non-English-Major undergraduates in Chinese universities.

RO2: To investigate the relationship between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes in the context of EFL.

RO3: To determine the effects of speaking strategies and speaking anxiety on learning motivation, as well as the effect of learning motivation on learning attitudes in the context of EFL.

Research questions as presented below:

RQ1: What are the levels of speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes among Non-English-Major undergraduates in Chinese universities?

RQ2: What is the relationship between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes in the context of EFL?

RQ3: To what extent do speaking strategies and speaking anxiety predict learning motivation, and to what extent does learning motivation predict learning attitudes in English language learning?

The hypotheses of this study are as follows:

H1: Speaking strategies are expected to be associated with learning motivation among Non-English-Major students.

H2: Speaking anxiety is expected to be associated with learning motivation among Non-English-Major students.

H3: Learning motivation is expected to be associated with learning attitudes among Non-English-Major students.

1.5 Significance of Study

This study seeks to enrich the existing literature on EFL learning among Non-English-Major undergraduates by addressing the proposed research questions and providing theoretical, contextual, and pedagogical insights. Theoretically, it draws upon the Socio-Educational Model (SEM) (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), to construct an integrated perspective on the affective, motivational, and attitudinal dimensions of English language learning.

This study is grounded in the Socio-Educational Model (SEM) (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), which provides a framework for understanding how social and motivational factors collectively influence language learning. By applying SEM to the English learning experiences of Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates, this research examines how speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes are interrelated within a specific socio-cultural and educational context (Liu et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2023; Ngo, 2022; Sun et al., 2022). The findings contribute to a deeper understanding of how socially and culturally mediated factors are associated with learners' engagement, strategic behaviors, and attitudes in the EFL context.

The current study aims to address the gap in research on NEMU students within the context of EFL in China. While numerous studies have been conducted in Western (Fangfang, 2023; Moises Jr, 2020; Nejjari et al., 2020; Selvi et al., 2023) and Asian EFL contexts, including Vietnam (Phan, 2021; Tuyet & Khang, 2020), Thailand (Panmei, 2021; Tang, 2020; Tim & Chano, 2020), Turkey (Öztürk, 2012) and South Korea (Seo, 2025; Takahashi & Im, 2020), research on NEMU students in China's EFL context remains limited and underdeveloped. Only a few studies have explored EFL contexts in China such as Zhu (2021), Zheng (2020) and Zou et al. (2022) highlighting the need for further investigation in this specific area.

Pedagogically, this study provides concrete implications for improving English language teaching and learning in Chinese universities. Many Non-English-Major undergraduates struggle with speaking anxiety and lack effective speaking strategies (Liu & Dong, 2023; Liu & Hong, 2021; Liu & Yuan, 2021). The findings of this research can help teachers design targeted classroom interventions that address these issues. For example, by understanding how speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, motivation, and learning attitudes interact, teachers can adopt supportive feedback methods, foster low anxiety learning

environments, and integrate communicative tasks that encourage active oral participation. Moreover, the results can inform curriculum designers in revising English syllabi to include explicit training in speaking strategies and affective regulation techniques, ensuring alignment with contemporary sociocultural and communicative teaching approaches (Pan et al., 2022; Soumia & Chaima, 2024; Suparlan, 2021; Yang et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2023). Such applications will ultimately enhance students' oral communication competence and confidence in real-world English use.

1.6 Operation Definition

1.6.1 Speaking Strategies

Nakatani (2006) defined speaking strategies as the specific techniques and methods used by learners to enhance the effectiveness and clarity of oral communication. These strategies aim not only to ensure linguistic accuracy but also to improve fluency, appropriateness and interaction in various speaking contexts. According to Sun et al. (2016) speaking strategies involve the ability to adapt to different situations, actively listen and respond and use non-verbal cues like gestures and facial expressions to support verbal communication. Metcalfe and Noom-Ura (2013) emphasized the importance of cultural awareness and communication strategies in achieving effective spoken interaction. In the present study, speaking strategies refer to learners' conscious efforts to improve spoken English by employing techniques.

This study refers to previous research on English speaking strategies and divides them into eight dimensions, namely: social affective strategies, fluency-oriented strategies, negotiation for meaning while speaking, accuracy-oriented strategies, message reduction and alteration strategies, non-verbal strategies while speaking, message abandonment strategies, attempt to think in English.

1.6.2 Speaking Anxiety

Speaking anxiety refers to the emotional discomfort individuals experience during oral communication, often involving feelings of tension, nervousness, or fear (Pratiwi et al., 2021). It may stem from self-doubt about language ability, fear of negative evaluation, or

concern over communication breakdowns (Damayanti & Listyani, 2020). This anxiety can affect fluency, clarity and effective expression and is especially common among non-native language learners (Idrissi, 2022). McCroskey (1984) described oral communication apprehension as anxiety in verbal interaction, a concept extended to foreign language contexts.

For this study, EFL speaking anxiety is defined as the apprehension experienced during foreign language communication, categorized into six dimensions: interaction anxiety, audience anxiety, confidence anxiety, language proficiency anxiety, negative evaluation anxiety, and test anxiety, each of which captures a distinct affective barrier that may hinder learners' willingness to speak and their overall oral performance.

1.6.3 Learning Motivation

Learning motivation refers to the psychological drive that initiates and sustains an individual's engagement in learning activities. It encompasses various types, including intrinsic motivation, which is rooted in personal interest and the inherent enjoyment of learning (Gottfried, 1990). Extrinsic motivation, which may be driven by career goals or social factors such as recognition and approval from others (Aydın et al., 2014). While amotivation, which reflects a lack of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, often leading to disengagement and indifference toward learning tasks (Legault et al., 2006). Together, these motivational components influence learners' attitudes, efforts and persistence in educational contexts.

For this study, learning motivation is defined as the internal and external drives that influence learners' engagement and persistence in EFL learning. It is categorized into four dimensions, intrinsic motivation, amotivation, extrinsic motivation (career, and social), which together reflect the different sources and types of motivation that affect students' participation, effort, and interest in English learning. This construct emphasizes both the autonomous and externally driven factors that can either enhance or hinder learners' sustained involvement and achievement in EFL activities.

1.6.4 Learning Attitudes

Learning attitudes refers to the set of beliefs and feelings that learners hold toward the target language, its speakers and their own culture (Douglas, 2000). It is a multidimensional construct that encompasses emotional responses, behavioural tendencies and cognitive evaluations (Abidin et al., 2012). These attitudes influence how learners think about, feel toward and behave in relation to language learning, shaping their motivation, engagement and overall learning experience (Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Ostrom, 1969).

For this study, learning attitudes are defined as the overall disposition of learners toward EFL learning, encompassing three dimensions, namely affective attitude, behavioral attitude, and cognitive attitude, which together reflect students' emotional responses, actual behaviors, and cognitive evaluations regarding learning English. Specifically, affective attitude refers to learners' emotional reactions, such as liking, pleasure, or dislike toward English learning; behavioral attitude pertains to learners' observable actions, decisions, and engagement in English learning activities; and cognitive attitude relates to learners' beliefs, knowledge, and rational evaluation of English learning. This construct captures the multidimensional nature of students' attitudes and provides a framework for assessing their feelings, actions, and thoughts in EFL contexts.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes among Non-English-Major undergraduate students in universities located in eastern China.

The focus on the eastern region is based on its distinctive educational and socio-economic characteristics. Compared with other regions, eastern China is generally more economically developed and provides greater exposure to English learning and use through international communication, business opportunities, and diversified educational resources. These contextual advantages create a unique environment for studying the interaction between English-speaking anxiety, motivation, and attitude. While the findings may primarily reflect conditions in this region, they can also offer valuable insights for understanding broader patterns in China's higher education context. Nonetheless, the

regional limitation is acknowledged as a potential constraint on the generalizability of results.

In alignment with the stated research objectives, the scope of this study is designed to clearly operationalize and test the hypothesized relationships among the core variables: speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes. Specifically, the study aims to determine the extent to which speaking strategies and anxiety independently and collectively influence learners' motivation, and how this motivation subsequently shapes their attitudes toward English learning. By focusing on Non-English-Major undergraduates, the study addresses a relatively underexplored group whose communicative competence is often constrained by curriculum limitations and exam-oriented instruction, thereby offering novel insights into EFL learning dynamics in the Chinese higher education context. Furthermore, the exclusive use of quantitative methods allows for the formulation and empirical testing of hypotheses (H1–H3) through statistical modeling, ensuring objectivity and replicability. Although qualitative inquiry is beyond the current scope, future research could incorporate interviews or classroom observations to provide deeper interpretive understanding of learners' affective and motivational processes. Overall, this well-defined scope establishes a coherent foundation for achieving the research objectives while acknowledging its geographical and methodological boundaries.

This study specifically targets undergraduate Non-English-Major students and explicitly excludes postgraduate students, English majors, and students from rural or vocational institutions. Such delineation ensures the sample's consistency and relevance to the research focus.

Methodologically, this study relies solely on quantitative survey data collected through online questionnaires. Qualitative methods such as interviews or classroom observations are not included within the current research scope. This quantitative focus allows for the statistical examination of relationships among the main variables English-speaking anxiety, motivation, and attitude while recognizing that qualitative insights may provide complementary perspectives beyond the present study.

1.8 Organization of Study

Chapter 1 served as an introduction to the research, providing a contextual background that framed the study. Within this chapter, the problem statement highlighted critical issues that necessitated exploration, while the research objectives and questions precisely delineated the focal points of the study. Emphasizing the paramount importance of the research, Chapter 1 also acquainted the reader with the operational definitions and the specific scope within which the investigation unfolded.

In Chapter 2, an extensive literature review unfolded, meticulously examining concepts integral to the study, such as EFL speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes. This chapter transcended a mere survey of existing literature by actively probing the intricate relationships among these variables. The thorough exploration not only synthesized prior research findings but also identified gaps and areas where the current study could contribute new insights and understanding.

Moving forward to Chapter 3, a detailed exposition of research methods was presented, encompassing discussions on research design, sampling methodologies, data collection techniques and the tools employed in the study. A clear elucidation of pilot testing and data analysis procedures ensured the rigorous and meticulous execution of the research. Serving as a comprehensive roadmap for the empirical investigation, this chapter outlined the methodological underpinnings that guided the study's execution, fostering transparency and reliability in the research process.

The fourth chapter provided an in-depth analysis of the collected data, beginning with a detailed examination of the demographic characteristics of the participants. This chapter also explored the mean distribution of key variables, including speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes, offering a comprehensive understanding of these factors. Furthermore, the chapter presented a thorough correlation analysis and linear regression analysis, investigating the relationships among these four variables. These analyses illuminated the interconnections among the variables, providing insights into their collective influence on the research outcomes.

Chapter 5 offered a comprehensive summary of the research findings, synthesizing the key insights gained throughout the study. It outlined the specific contributions of this research to the existing body of knowledge, highlighting its significance within the broader

academic context. Additionally, this chapter delved into the theoretical and practical implications of the study, examining how the findings could be applied in real-world contexts and advancing the understanding of the subject matter. The chapter also addressed the limitations encountered during the research process, acknowledging areas where further investigation was warranted. Finally, it proposed suggestions for future research, outlining avenues for continued exploration to build upon the foundations laid by this study.

CHAPTER 2:

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

This chapter examined various aspects related to speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes of research conducted on Non-English-Major students and sought to provide a detailed explanation of the theoretical concepts that guided the study so as to lay a claim for further empirical analyses. The drafting of research hypotheses was developed as an important part of the study as it enabled the investigation of the relationships between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, motivation and attitudes of Non-English-Major students to be more structured and guided. In addition, the chapter presented a coherent research design that provided the conceptual framework for the conducted empirical study enhancing the methodological rigor of the study. The goal of this chapter was to provide a working explanation of the problem that required analysis for the particular academic population.

2.2 The Chinese EFL Context

In the Chinese EFL context, English has long been regarded as a vital skill for academic success, career advancement, and international communication. However, despite years of English instruction, many Non-English-Major university students continue to experience difficulties in oral communication. This situation is shaped by unique cultural, institutional, and pedagogical factors that influence students' speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes. These factors interact within the broader context of China's exam-oriented education system, where emphasis on written proficiency and test performance often limits opportunities for authentic spoken interaction and communicative competence development.

Due to the strong influence of exam-oriented teaching and limited exposure to authentic communicative environments, many Chinese Non-English-Major students rely on compensatory and imitation strategies rather than interactional ones (Gu & Sharil, 2024, Xu, 2024). For example, learners often use code-switching, paraphrasing, or memorized expressions to maintain fluency, while others tend to remain silent or abandon messages to avoid making mistakes or losing face (Ahn, 2023; Guo & East, 2024; He, 2024). Moreover, classroom communication in China is often teacher-centered, reducing opportunities for spontaneous interaction and strategy development (Cheng & Ding, 2021). Cultural factors such as collectivism and modesty norms may also discourage students from speaking assertively or taking risks in conversation. As a result, the effective use of speaking strategies in China not only depends on linguistic competence but also on learners' confidence, motivation, and classroom environment. Strengthening strategic competence through learner training and interactive teaching methods could therefore enhance students' ability to manage communication breakdowns and improve their overall speaking performance.

Speaking anxiety is particularly prevalent among Chinese university students due to sociocultural and educational factors. Culturally, the concept of “mianzi” (face) and the fear of losing face in public discourage many students from speaking English in front of peers or teachers (Zhu, & Bresnahan, 2022). The traditional teacher-centered classroom model, which emphasizes grammatical accuracy and written examinations, provides limited opportunities for authentic oral communication (Chen, 2022). Consequently, students often lack confidence, worry about making pronunciation or grammatical mistakes, and develop communication apprehension in speaking tasks. Research by Guo (2023) and Zong (2025) confirms that negative evaluation and low self-confidence are major sources of speaking anxiety among Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates.

Learning motivation in China is shaped by both instrumental and social factors. Many students are driven by extrinsic motivations such as passing CET-4/CET-6 examinations, meeting graduation requirements, or improving employability (Hou & Huang, 2024; Li, 2021). However, intrinsic motivation tends to be weaker, as English learning is often perceived as a compulsory subject rather than a personally meaningful activity (Dong, Liu & Yang, 2022). Recent studies have also shown that students' motivation fluctuates depending on their classroom environment and perceived teacher support (Luo & Derakhshan, 2024; Zhang & Hu, 2025). Teachers' feedback styles, classroom climate, and

opportunities for communicative practice can significantly enhance or diminish students' willingness to learn and speak English.

Chinese Non-English-Major students' learning attitudes are often shaped by exam-oriented education and social expectations. Many students recognize the importance of English as a tool for self-development and global participation but may also perceive it as burdensome due to heavy coursework and limited practical application (Chang, 2025; Nguyen, 2022). Studies indicate that positive learning attitudes are associated with communicative teaching approaches and supportive peer interactions, while negative attitudes are linked to high anxiety and lack of speaking opportunities (Wu, Dixon & Zhang, 2021; Hu, Zhang & McGeown, 2024). Moreover, collectivist cultural values emphasize conformity and respect for authority, which may restrict students' willingness to take linguistic risks in speaking tasks, thereby reinforcing passive learning attitudes (Zhang, 2024).

Overall, the Chinese EFL context is characterized by exam-driven motivation, teacher-centered instruction, and cultural sensitivity to public evaluation, all of which jointly shape students' speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes. By situating the present study within this socio-educational context, it becomes possible to better interpret the psychological and behavioral patterns of Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates and to provide pedagogical insights that are both culturally and institutionally relevant.

2.3 English Speaking Strategies

The emphasis on strategic competence acknowledged that proficient speaking involved not only linguistic knowledge but also the ability to manage communication effectively in real-time situations (Octaviana, 2021). Researchers explored the connection between the use of language learning strategies and oral proficiency, indicating that more proficient students tended to utilize a wider range of strategies, particularly those related to cognitive and metacognitive processes (Bruen, 2001). Research further indicated that proficiency levels significantly influenced strategy use; advanced learners tended to favor accuracy-oriented strategies, whereas lower-proficiency students often relied on message reduction techniques (Rayati et al., 2022). Additionally, self-regulation strategies, including reading, video consumption and speaking exercises, were shown to empower learners by

enhancing vocabulary, pronunciation and critical thinking skills (Halim et al., 2023). Challenges, including learner anxiety and cultural disparities, persisted, thereby necessitating targeted pedagogical interventions to create supportive learning environments (Yasin, 2024).

Furthermore, strategic competence played a crucial role in compensating for gaps in linguistic knowledge and facilitating successful communication despite limitations in vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation (Octaviana, 2021). This recognition led to pedagogical approaches that emphasized the development of learners' strategic repertoire through explicit instruction, modelling and opportunities for practice in authentic communicative contexts (Derakhshan et al., 2016). Therefore, the subsequent subsection reviewed the strategies employed by EFL students.

2.3.1 Social Affective Strategies

Recent studies in language acquisition have highlighted the complex role of fillers and other speaking strategies in fostering oral fluency from a socio-affective perspective while emphasizing the importance of maintaining linguistic accuracy. Crouch (2020) found that the intentional use of fillers helps regulate cognitive load and reduce speaking anxiety, thereby facilitating smoother speech by providing learners with additional time to construct responses. Similarly, Gandeza (2023) conducted a conversational analysis and observed that fillers contribute to increased confidence and fluency among student speakers, although they do not inherently enhance linguistic precision. This finding reinforces the need to balance fluency and accuracy, a perspective further advanced by Zakirovich (2023), who contended that the relative priority of these aspects should align with instructional objectives and learner needs. Expanding on this discussion, Soumia and Chaima (2024) underscored the significance of speaking proficiency in a globalized world, noting that while gender differences influence fluency, individual competencies play a more decisive role, necessitating targeted pedagogical interventions to enhance communicative effectiveness.

Recent research across diverse contexts has provided contrasting insights into the dynamics between fluency, accuracy, and the use of speaking strategies such as fillers. In the United States, excessive reliance on fillers, particularly in formal academic or professional discourse, has been found to undermine speaker credibility and hinder audience comprehension (Seals & Coppock, 2022). Yet, this critical view contrasts with findings by

Crouch (2020), who reported that the intentional use of fillers among Chinese undergraduates at a U.S. STEM university functioned as a cognitive regulation mechanism. Fillers were shown to alleviate speaking anxiety, facilitate response planning, and contribute to smoother speech production. However, Crouch's study, limited by its small sample and lack of discourse-level analysis, calls for replication with larger and more diverse groups to validate these findings and examine how fluency interacts with syntactic and lexical development.

Beyond the U.S. context, cross-cultural research highlights the contextual complexity of EFL fluency development. Soumia and Chaima (2024) study in Algeria found that while gender affected features such as speech rate and pausing, individual proficiency remained the dominant factor in communicative competence. This suggests that sociocultural variables like gender may play only a secondary role compared with linguistic ability. However, the study's small sample and lack of longitudinal validation limit its broader applicability. Similarly, Zakirovich (2023) revisited the accuracy–fluency debate, arguing that their relative importance depends on instructional context rather than hierarchical priority. Although evidence from a Hungarian experiment indicated that fluency-oriented instruction did not reduce grammatical accuracy, Zakirovich's reliance on secondary data and absence of empirical testing in the Uzbek setting weaken the study's contextual validity. Collectively, these findings reveal persistent methodological and theoretical gaps, underscoring the need for more empirically grounded and context-sensitive investigations of fluency and accuracy in EFL learning.

Seals and Coppock (2022) and Gandeza (2023) offered contrasting perspectives on the pedagogical and communicative functions of language fillers, underscoring their role within social affective strategies. Seals and Coppock (2022) argued that excessive filler use undermines speaker credibility and audience comprehension, reflecting nervousness or inadequate preparation, issues that could be mitigated through strategic planning and self-awareness. In contrast, Gandeza (2023) demonstrated that fillers, when used intentionally, can reduce anxiety, enhance confidence, and support fluency by providing cognitive pauses for speech planning. While both studies recognize the emotional dimension of spoken communication, they diverge in assessing whether fillers signify communicative weakness or adaptive strategy. This divergence points to a broader need for research that distinguishes

between habitual and strategic filler use and situates their function within specific sociocultural and instructional contexts.

The discussion on fillers and speaking strategies highlights the balance between fluency and accuracy in language learning. Fillers help manage cognitive load, reduce anxiety and enhance confidence, but excessive use can undermine credibility and comprehension. Research emphasizes the need for a strategic approach that fosters fluency without compromising accuracy. Effective language instruction should integrate fluency-building techniques with accuracy-focused training, ensuring learners develop both confidence and precision in communication.

2.3.2 Fluency-oriented Strategies

Recent studies have emphasized the critical role of rhythm, intonation and pronunciation in developing English communicative competence, particularly as key components of fluency-oriented strategies. Mastering these elements not only results in more natural-sounding speech but also improves listener comprehension and speaker confidence by addressing issues such as non-standard pronunciation and inaccurate intonation (Cheng & Luo, 2020). The importance of targeted instructional methods, informed by big data to support teacher training, was reinforced in their study. The complexity of speaking skills in a globalized context has also been highlighted, along with advocacy for dynamic classroom practices such as imitation, role-play and interactive dialogues to enhance fluency and accuracy (Parab, 2020). The lack of pronunciation and intonation awareness among Chinese college students has been attributed to an overemphasis on reading, writing and grammar in traditional curricula (Gui, 2020). The study recommended integrating focused pronunciation training and teacher development programs to enhance overall language proficiency.

Recent research across different EFL contexts has highlighted the persistent neglect of prosodic features, particularly pronunciation, rhythm, and intonation, in the development of communicative competence. Onwochei (2021) reported that poor intonation accounts for up to 70% of intelligibility issues in spoken English, underscoring its crucial role in meaning construction and discourse coherence, as supported by Cruttenden's model (Nolan, 1987). However, the study's lack of empirical data limits the strength of its claims, reflecting a broader trend in pronunciation research where theoretical emphasis often outweighs pedagogical applicability. Similarly, Parab (2020) examined English-speaking instruction in

India and argued that fluency and accuracy should be fostered through learner-centered and interactive techniques such as role-play and imitation. Yet, as a literature-based review lacking empirical validation, its recommendations remain largely prescriptive rather than evidence-based.

In China, several studies have sought to address these long-standing issues from a more practical standpoint. Cheng and Luo (2020) found that mastery of rhythm and intonation significantly enhances both speaker confidence and listener comprehension, while Gui (2020) highlighted Chinese learners' widespread difficulties with non-standard pronunciation, inaccurate intonation, and misplaced stress, problems rooted in the exam-oriented focus on grammar and reading rather than communicative competence. Both studies called for systematic teacher training and the integration of prosodic instruction into EFL curricula, yet neither provided a detailed framework for implementation or assessment, limiting their contribution to actionable reform.

Collectively, these studies converge on the recognition that pronunciation and intonation are critical yet underemphasized dimensions of spoken English instruction. However, most research remains fragmented, either theoretical without empirical grounding, or diagnostic without pedagogical innovation. This imbalance reflects a broader weakness in EFL pedagogy, where the pursuit of grammatical accuracy and test performance often overshadows the communicative and prosodic dimensions essential for intelligibility. Future research should move beyond descriptive accounts to develop empirically tested instructional frameworks that integrate fluency, accuracy, and prosodic awareness within contextually responsive teaching models.

2.3.3 Negotiation for Meaning While Speaking

Recent research in EFL emphasizes the diverse benefits of incorporating negotiation of meaning (NoM) strategies into language instruction to improve both communicative competence and language accuracy. Students, regardless of proficiency level, often prioritize meaning over grammatical accuracy during interactions and are frequently unaware of errors in grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary (Awalin et al., 2021). Similarly, low-proficiency learners tend to rely heavily on confirmation checks and clarification requests during communicative tasks, highlighting the value of peer interaction in tasks like information gap activities and role-plays for developing oral skills (Fitria, 2021). In their investigation of

language accuracy, integrating NoM into structured, focused tasks leads to significant improvements in grammar and vocabulary use (Flora et al., 2021). Likewise, effective teacher implementation of key NoM components such as triggers, signals, responses and follow-ups improve vocabulary comprehension and facilitate smoother conversational exchanges in online speaking classes (Putri et al., 2022). These studies collectively underscore the importance of NoM as both a diagnostic tool for error awareness and a practical pedagogical strategy for enhancing EFL learners' speaking proficiency and accuracy.

Recent research in Indonesia underscores the pivotal role of negotiation for NoM in developing EFL learners' speaking proficiency across proficiency levels and instructional settings. Awalin et al. (2021) employed a mixed-methods design with 60 university students to examine learner' awareness of errors during spontaneous communication, revealing that grammar errors were most frequent, followed by pronunciation and vocabulary issues. The study highlighted that learners often prioritize meaning over accuracy and are frequently unaware of their mistakes, suggesting a critical need for instructional approaches that enhance error awareness and feedback mechanisms. Similarly, Fitria (2021) investigated low-proficiency learners' use of conversational interaction strategies in communicative tasks, finding that peer-supported strategies such as confirmation checks and clarification requests were central to facilitating comprehension and promoting oral skill development. Extending this focus to task design, Raja et al. (2022) demonstrated that focused tasks encourage active NoM engagement, which positively impacts language accuracy, particularly in grammar and vocabulary, though their qualitative design and limited dyadic observations constrain generalizability.

The increasing prevalence of online instruction further complicates the dynamics of meaning negotiation. Putri et al. (2022) examined the implementation of NoM strategies in Google Meet sessions, showing that structured teacher interventions, including triggers, signals, responses, and follow-ups, enhanced students' comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, and conversational fluency. While these findings confirm the adaptability of NoM across modalities, the study's reliance on a small sample and single-instructor context limits broader applicability.

Collectively, these studies demonstrate that negotiation for meaning serves as a crucial interactional mechanism for both low- and high-proficiency learners, facilitating

error correction, clarity, and improved language accuracy. However, the existing research is marked by methodological limitations, including small sample sizes, context-specific settings, and limited longitudinal data. Moreover, while the benefits of peer interaction and task-focused design are widely acknowledged, there is insufficient empirical guidance on how these strategies can be systematically integrated into curricula across diverse EFL contexts. Future research should address these gaps, employing larger, mixed-methods designs and comparing face-to-face and online environments to provide more robust, generalizable insights into the pedagogical implementation of NoM.

2.3.4 Accuracy- oriented Strategies

Recent research in EFL speaking instruction emphasizes the effectiveness of targeted pedagogical interventions and feedback mechanisms in enhancing communicative competence. For example, an integrated teaching-speaking cycle significantly improved the speaking performance of Taiwanese university students by encouraging the use of rehearsal and social strategies over an 18-week period (Chou et al., 2021). Similarly, direct oral corrective feedback (OCF) positively influenced both speaking accuracy and motivation among Iranian learners preparing for the IELTS exam (Hamidi et al., 2022). A communicative approach using role-play and task-based activities resulted in notable improvements in fluency and accuracy among students at an Aceh Besar institution (Hasanah, 2021). Additionally, flipped instruction enhanced the complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) of Iranian intermediate learners, with participants expressing positive attitudes toward this technology-enhanced method (Hashemifardnia et al., 2021).

Contextual differences also influence strategic preferences. Rayati et al. (2022) employed a mixed-methods design with 48 Iranian learners of varying proficiency levels and found that advanced learners relied more on accuracy-oriented strategies, whereas lower-proficiency learners tended to use message reduction techniques. This distinction underscores the need for differentiated instructional approaches tailored to learners' proficiency. In Aceh Besar, Hasanah (2021) compared 23 students exposed to a communicative approach using role-play and task-based activities with a control group following traditional methods. The experimental group showed notable gains in fluency and accuracy, demonstrating the effectiveness of interactive and task-based pedagogy in real classroom settings.

Chou et al. (2021) investigated the persistent challenges faced by Taiwanese university students in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses, where limited prior instruction often leads to weak speaking skills. Using a quasi-experimental design involving 60 low-intermediate EFL students, the study evaluated the effectiveness of Goh and Burns's (2012) integrated pedagogical cycle, which combines explicit instruction, rehearsal, and metacognitive reflection. Over 18 weeks, the experimental group received the integrated treatment, while the control group participated in standard speaking activities. Results indicated that the experimental group employed more rehearsal and social strategies and demonstrated consistent improvement in speaking performance, whereas the control group showed minimal gains. These findings underscore the pedagogical value of structured, strategy-based instruction in strengthening speaking competence. However, the study's limited sample size and focus on a single institutional context constrain its broader applicability, suggesting the need for replication across different proficiency levels and learning environments.

Hamidi et al. (2022) examined the effect of direct oral corrective feedback (OCF) on 46 Iranian EFL learners preparing for the IELTS exam through a quasi-experimental design. Learners in the experimental group received direct feedback, while the control group did not. The findings revealed that OCF significantly improved speaking accuracy and motivation, suggesting that systematic feedback can strengthen both linguistic precision and learner engagement. However, the study's short duration and limited scope make it difficult to determine whether such improvements can be sustained over time. Similarly, Hasanah (2021) conducted an experimental study with 23 Indonesian students at Madrasah Aliyah Ruhul Islam Anak Bangsa, Aceh Besar, comparing communicative and traditional teaching methods. The communicative approach, integrating role-play and task-based activities, led to a substantial rise in speaking scores, from 73.6 to 89.05, highlighting the effectiveness of interactive learning. Nonetheless, both studies share limitations in scale and external validity, as neither accounted for long-term retention nor diverse classroom conditions, which constrains the broader applicability of their findings.

Hashemifardnia et al. (2021) explored the effects of flipped instruction on the complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) of 60 Iranian intermediate EFL learners using a quasi-experimental design. Results showed significant post-test gains and positive learner attitudes, demonstrating the potential of technology-enhanced learning environments to

promote active engagement and language development. Yet, the study overlooked moderating factors such as learners' digital competence and classroom interaction dynamics, which may influence the sustainability of outcomes. In contrast, Rayati et al. (2022) adopted a mixed-methods design to investigate speaking strategy use among 48 Iranian learners with varying proficiency levels. Advanced learners employed more accuracy-oriented strategies, while low-proficiency learners relied on message reduction. This differentiation underscores how language proficiency mediates strategic behavior, but the study's reliance on self-reporting limits insight into how these strategies operate in real-time communicative settings. Together, these studies underscore the growing diversity of pedagogical approaches, ranging from technology-driven models to learner-centered strategy use, while also revealing the need for longitudinal and classroom-based validations of their effects.

2.3.5 Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies

Recent research on EFL speaking strategies highlights the diverse approaches learners adopt to overcome communication challenges. Debate-class undergraduates were found to use a variety of strategies, such as fillers, appeals for help and code-switching, to manage anxiety and vocabulary limitations, with little reliance on literal translation (Prawiro et al., 2022). Similarly, the effective strategy use of Turkish EFL students, as measured by the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory, was significantly linked to improved speaking proficiency (Sağlama & Alagözlüb, 2022). Indonesian learners were noted to use stalling, self-monitoring and interactional strategies in casual conversations to address communication breakdowns caused by limited vocabulary and cognitive processing demands (Susilowati & Kusumaningtyas, 2025). Students at the Islamic University of Indonesia were observed to prefer social-affective and accuracy-oriented strategies, particularly self-correction, in digital communication (Widianti, 2024). Chinese EFL learners were found to adapt their strategies based on interlocutor type, using direct strategies with L1 peers and more circumlocution, approximation and clarification requests in intercultural interactions (Zhang, 2024). Together, these studies emphasize the need for pedagogical approaches that support flexible and context-sensitive strategy use to enhance communicative competence.

The strategies used by undergraduate students to navigate communication challenges in debate classes were explored (Prawiro et al., 2022). Grounded in the importance of

speaking skills, the study employed a qualitative case study design involving 24 third-semester students. The researchers found that students used 11 out of 12 oral communication strategies identified by Dörnyei (1995), with fillers, appeals for help and code-switching being the most frequent. Notably, literal translation was not used as a strategy. These findings highlight that while students employ various strategies to address language deficiencies, there remains room for improvement in articulating arguments, suggesting areas for further pedagogical focus.

Sağlama and Alagozlu (2022) investigated oral communication strategies among 71 Turkish university EFL students using the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI), which categorized strategies across seven dimensions. Their findings revealed strong correlations between strategy use and speaking proficiency, suggesting that systematic strategy application can significantly enhance communicative competence. Similarly, Susilowati and Kusumaningtyas (2025) examined communication strategies employed by eight Indonesian English education majors through qualitative analysis of 10–15-minute casual conversations. Learners predominantly used stalling, achievement, and self-monitoring strategies, with stalling being most frequent. Both studies underscore the critical role of communication strategy instruction in addressing linguistic and cognitive barriers to fluent speech. However, while the Turkish study offers broader quantitative evidence, the Indonesian one provides micro-level insights from authentic discourse, suggesting the value of combining large-scale and interaction-based analyses in future research.

Widianti (2024) analyzed oral communication strategies among 53 students at the Islamic University of Indonesia, identifying frequent use of social-affective, fluency-oriented, and accuracy-oriented strategies, with self-correction as a common feature. This indicates that learners demonstrate metacognitive awareness and a proactive approach to monitoring their spoken performance. Complementarily, Zhang (2024) explored the strategy use of 45 Chinese EFL learners in interactions with different interlocutor types. The study found that learners employed more direct strategies when speaking with L1 peers but relied on circumlocution and clarification requests when interacting with non-Chinese interlocutors. These results emphasize the adaptive and situational nature of strategy use, suggesting that speaking strategies are not static but dynamically adjusted based on communicative context. Together, these studies highlight the importance of integrating

context-sensitive strategy training into EFL pedagogy to foster flexibility and intercultural communicative competence.

2.3.6 Non-Verbal Strategies

Gestures, facial expressions and posture significantly improve comprehension and classroom management, particularly for beginner learners, with systematic integration of these nonverbal cues into instructional practices being strongly advocated (Jílková, 2022). Similarly, both verbal and nonverbal communication were shown to be crucial in engaging students and regulating classroom dynamics (Muhamad et al., 2024). In the context of online learning, teachers' purposeful use of gestures was found to enhance clarity and engagement, despite challenges posed by the limited visibility of student gestures (Aswad & Rasjid, 2024). Furthermore, intentional incorporation of nonverbal cues by teachers was emphasized as fostering a dynamic learning environment that promotes higher levels of participation and comprehension (Păstae, 2024). In speech assessment, dynamic visual cues such as facial expressions, hand gestures and eye contact were found to significantly improve listeners' perceptions of speech comprehensibility and reduce perceived accentedness (Tsunemoto et al., 2022).

Jílková (2022) examined the essential role of nonverbal communication among EFL learners in the Czech Republic, identifying gestures, facial expressions, and posture as vital tools that enhance comprehension, engagement, and classroom management. Using a descriptive qualitative design involving questionnaires and classroom observations in both university and primary school settings, her study demonstrated that nonverbal signals effectively reinforce verbal instruction and improve information retention. Similarly, Muhamad et al. (2024) investigated verbal and nonverbal communication in an Indonesian EFL classroom through a qualitative case study involving one teacher and her students. Data from interviews and observations revealed that verbal communication (oral and written forms) and nonverbal behaviors (facial expressions and gestures) jointly contribute to student motivation, emotional regulation, and engagement. While both studies emphasize the pedagogical significance of nonverbal cues, Jílková focused more on learner comprehension and classroom control, whereas Muhamad et al. highlighted teacher communication effectiveness and student interaction. Together, these findings reinforce the

need for integrating verbal and nonverbal communication strategies to optimize EFL teaching and learning outcomes.

Aswad and Rasjid (2024) explored the role of nonverbal communication, particularly gestures, in online EFL classrooms in Indonesia, addressing a notable gap in virtual language instruction research. Using a qualitative design, they observed two teachers, nine students, and an expert through Zoom sessions, interviews, and documentation. The study revealed that teachers employed gestures more consciously and strategically to maintain clarity and engagement, whereas students' gestures were often constrained by technological limitations. Complementing this, Popescu (2024) investigated nonverbal communication in face-to-face EFL settings at Dimitrie Cantemir University in Romania through a qualitative case study involving classroom observations, interviews, and video recordings. The results demonstrated that purposeful use of gestures, facial expressions, and body language enriched interaction, clarified instruction, and promoted student participation. Together, these studies highlight that whether in digital or traditional classrooms, strategic nonverbal communication is crucial for sustaining engagement and improving comprehension in EFL teaching.

Tsunemoto et al. (2022) expanded the understanding of second language (L2) speech assessment by examining how dynamic visual cues, such as facial expressions and gestures, influence listener perceptions of comprehensibility, accentedness, and fluency. In an experimental design, 60 university student raters evaluated 2-minute video clips of 20 L2 English speakers from Chinese and Spanish backgrounds narrating personal stories under three conditions: (1) audio-only with a static image, (2) audio with dynamic facial expressions, and (3) full video including facial and torso movements. Results indicated that raters who viewed full dynamic videos rated speakers as more comprehensible and less accented than those in the other conditions. Specific nonverbal behaviours, including eyebrow movement and gaze direction, were positively correlated with higher ratings. The study highlights the essential role of eye contact and gestures in facilitating listener comprehension, emphasizing that multimodal cues substantially enhance communication effectiveness in L2 contexts.

These studies underscore the indispensable role of nonverbal communication in enhancing EFL learning and assessment. Whether in face-to-face or online settings, strategic use of gestures, facial expressions, and body movements not only reinforces verbal input but

also fosters engagement, comprehension, and fluency. Moreover, research on multimodal assessment demonstrates that visual cues significantly shape listener perceptions of speech quality, suggesting that language proficiency extends beyond verbal accuracy to include effective nonverbal expression. Therefore, integrating nonverbal communication training into EFL pedagogy can help learners develop more holistic communicative competence and confidence in both classroom and real-world contexts.

2.3.7 Message Abandonment Strategies

Recent research in EFL contexts emphasizes the role of communication strategies in overcoming linguistic and affective barriers. University students use strategies like clarification requests, message abandonment and meaning negotiation to handle communication breakdowns, suggesting the need for targeted strategy instruction (Rahman & Isroyana, 2021). Advanced learners rely on strategies like approximation to compensate for linguistic gaps, highlighting strategic competence (Ostovar-Namaghi et al., 2022). Students preparing for international expeditions use fillers, approximation, code-switching and circumlocution due to cognitive limitations and affective factors (Nastiti & Fauziati, 2021). University learners use diverse strategies to address lexical and grammatical challenges while managing affective issues (Putri et al., 2023). Even elementary learners use strategies like clarification and meaning negotiation to maintain effective communication despite limited language skills (Wijayanto & Hastuti, 2021). These studies underscore the importance of strategy instruction to bridge linguistic gaps and build learner confidence.

The study by Rahman and Isroyana (2021) critically explores how EFL students employ communication strategies to overcome linguistic limitations and improve oral competence, particularly in contexts marked by reticence and low confidence. Using a descriptive qualitative design, data were collected through open-ended interviews and classroom observations with 20 second-semester students from the English Department of Institut Pendidikan Nusantara Global. Through the analysis of 385 utterances based on Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy, the researchers identified asking for clarification, message abandonment, and meaning negotiation as the most frequent strategies. Although the study offers valuable insights into the compensatory functions of communication strategies, its descriptive design addresses only the use of these strategies without evaluating their effectiveness in enhancing actual communicative competence. Future research could

adopt longitudinal or intervention-based approaches to determine whether explicit strategy training can sustainably enhance learners' oral performance in EFL contexts.

Ostovar-Namaghi et al. (2022) examine advanced EFL learners' awareness and use of communication strategies (CSs) to compensate for linguistic deficiencies, drawing on the theoretical frameworks of Tarone (1977) and Dörnyei (1995). Employing a constructivist grounded theory approach with the constant comparative method, the study purposively sampled 17 advanced Iranian EFL learners through snowball sampling. Data were collected via open-ended interviews and analyzed using MAXQDA, resulting in four categories of CSs: explicit, reciprocal, implicit, and reduction strategies. While the findings indicate that explicit strategies, particularly approximation, were most frequently employed (82.4%), followed by reciprocal (76.5%), implicit (64.7%), and reduction strategies (11.8%). Additionally, the reliance on self-reported interviews may overestimate strategy use, and the study does not assess the actual effectiveness of these strategies in improving communicative outcomes. Despite the limitation, the research underscores the critical role of strategic competence in facilitating communication and provides tentative implications for curriculum design and pedagogical practice, which warrant further empirical validation.

Recent research highlights how EFL learners employ communication strategies to navigate linguistic and affective barriers in both academic and extracurricular contexts. Nastiti and Fauziati (2021) examined seven members of the Malimpa group at Universitas Muhammadiyah Surakarta preparing for the MUIE international expedition, using a descriptive qualitative case study with interviews and video recordings to analyze 385 utterances via Dörnyei's taxonomy. Fillers emerged as the most frequently used strategy (58.7%), reflecting both cognitive constraints, such as limited vocabulary and grammar, and affective factors, including nervousness and low self-confidence. Similarly, Putri et al. (2023) investigated university students at the University of Lampung through classroom observations and interviews, identifying strategies such as code-switching, circumlocution, and fillers to compensate for lexical and grammatical gaps while managing anxiety. While both studies provide valuable insights into the compensatory role of communication strategies, their reliance on small, purposive samples and descriptive designs limits generalizability and does not allow for assessment of the actual effectiveness of these strategies in enhancing communicative competence. Nevertheless, these findings underscore

the critical need for explicit instruction in communication strategies to support learners in overcoming both linguistic and affective challenges in EFL contexts.

Wijayanto and Hastuti (2021) examined how elementary-level EFL learners in Surakarta, Indonesia, use communication strategies to manage linguistic and affective challenges. Using a descriptive qualitative design with 20 second-semester students, data from classroom recordings, interviews, and observations were analyzed via Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy. Learners frequently employed clarification requests, message abandonment, and meaning negotiation, alongside assertive and directive speech acts, to maintain conversation despite limited vocabulary and low confidence. While the study highlights the compensatory role of these strategies, it does not account for contextual or individual differences, such as task type, interlocutor, or learners' personality, which may influence strategy choice and effectiveness, indicating the need for more nuanced, context-sensitive research.

2.3.8 Attempt to Think in English

Recent research highlights the challenges and opportunities of using synonyms effectively in EFL instruction. Jordanian learners struggle with selecting contextually appropriate synonyms, often relying on overgeneralization and semantic approximation, resulting in only 30.35% correct responses on a translation task (Rumman & Rabab'ah, 2023). Iraqi students also face difficulties in synonym use due to limited lexical knowledge, L1 interference and a failure to understand collocational nuances (Hassan, 2021; Nasser, 2021). These studies suggest that targeted instructional strategies, such as using domain theory to map semantic fields and explicitly teaching collocational usage, can improve learners' performance. In addition, subtle differences among near-synonyms have been revealed through corpus-based analyses, offering culturally informed insights into vocabulary use (Akutsu, 2023; Kruawong & Phoocharoensil, 2022). Overall, these findings suggest that incorporating synonym practice into language instruction can enhance vocabulary flexibility, communicative competence and learner confidence.

Research on EFL synonym acquisition shows that learners often struggle with semantic nuances and collocational patterns. Rumman and Rabab'ah (2023) found that Jordanian learners frequently produced incorrect synonyms due to negative transfer, limited lexical knowledge, and confusion from formal similarity; in a translation task involving 20

fourth-year students, errors largely reflected overgeneralization (44.5%) and semantic approximation (25%). Similar challenges were reported among Iraqi EFL learners: Nasser (2021) showed that cognitive linguistic instruction significantly improved synonym comprehension among first-year students, while Hassan (2021) found persistent errors among intermediate and advanced learners, mainly stemming from reliance on prominent synonyms, insufficient collocational knowledge, and L1 interference. Although these studies highlight useful pedagogical strategies, they are limited by short-term interventions and test-based measures, indicating the need for more longitudinal and contextually grounded research on synonym acquisition in authentic communication.

Recent studies highlight the pedagogical potential of near-synonyms for enhancing lexical awareness among EFL learners. Akutsu (2023) analyzed “welfare,” “well-being,” and “wellness” alongside Japanese loanwords, showing that subtle semantic differences can affect learners’ understanding. Kruawong and Phoocharoensil (2022) examined “teach,” “educate,” and “instruct,” revealing distinct collocational patterns that reflect nuanced usage. While both studies underscore the value of corpus-based analysis, they do not assess learners’ comprehension or productive use of these near-synonyms, leaving the practical impact on communicative competence largely untested.

The strategy of using synonyms is often promoted as a means to enhance linguistic flexibility and creativity, potentially helping learners navigate limited vocabulary and improve fluency (Aji et al., 2023). While incorporating synonyms may deepen vocabulary comprehension and cultural awareness, the existing research largely emphasizes theoretical benefits, offering limited empirical evidence on whether this strategy translates into measurable gains in communicative competence. Moreover, although it is suggested to boost confidence and adaptability (Kruawong & Phoocharoensil, 2022), the effectiveness of synonym use in authentic, spontaneous language production remains underexplored, leaving its practical impact on learners’ oral performance somewhat speculative.

2.4 Speaking Anxiety

Initially, research on English speaking anxiety primarily focused on describing and observing the anxious emotions of English learners in oral communication (Tanveer, 2007). Researchers realized that speaking anxiety might affect learners’ language expression and learning outcomes, although the specific mechanism of its impact remained unclear (Wang

& Zhan, 2020). Subsequently, research on English anxiety transitioned into the conceptualization and development of measurement tools. At that stage, researchers attempted to define speaking anxiety and develop corresponding instruments, such as the Oral Anxiety Scale (Al-Saraj, 2014; Cheng, 2004; Guntzviller et al., 2011) and sought to determine its dimensions and influencing factors to further examine underlying mechanisms and intervention measures.

As research advanced, scholars developed various theoretical models of speaking anxiety, examining the mechanisms and factors that influence it. These studies explored multiple dimensions, including language ability (Taufana and Mirza, 2020), socio-cultural factors Samad et al. (2021) and cognitive factors (Chen & Hwang, 2022). A growing focus was placed on understanding the actual impact of speaking anxiety on learners' oral expression and learning outcomes (Khasawneh, 2021).

In recent years, there has been growing attention to interventions and coping strategies designed to address speaking anxiety in language learning, including psychological interventions, teaching methods and classroom strategies (Jin et al., 2021; Toyama & Yamazaki, 2021). Researchers have aimed to reduce learners' speaking anxiety, improve their speaking abilities and enhance overall learning outcomes through effective intervention measures. Numerous studies have also investigated factors contributing to students' anxiety, such as the learning environment, psychological state and external feedback, which have informed the development of more effective solutions for alleviating speaking anxiety.

Research indicates that speaking anxiety can intensify learning difficulties, particularly in contexts where English education is emphasized, such as in China, where internationalization and social expectations heighten pressure on students (Toyama & Yamazaki, 2021). Six primary forms of oral anxiety have been identified: interaction anxiety, audience anxiety, confidence anxiety, language proficiency anxiety, negative evaluation anxiety, and test anxiety, with classroom speaking anxiety being the most prominent (Horwitz et al., 1986). Despite widespread recognition of its prevalence, the literature often overlooks how these anxiety types interact with pedagogical practices and learners' actual communicative performance. Speaking in English classes involves participation in discussions, presentations, and interactive tasks, yet students frequently struggle to translate theoretical knowledge into fluent oral production under anxious conditions (Guebba, 2021).

Overall, research on English speaking anxiety has evolved from initial observations and descriptive studies to the development of theoretical models and the examination of intervention strategies, providing important theoretical and practical insights into its associations with learners' experiences and potential coping approaches.

2.4.1 Interaction Anxiety

Learners often experience significant interaction anxiety when communicating with foreigners, particularly when faced with the fast pace or unfamiliar accents of native English speakers. Undergraduate students, in specific, find it challenging to comprehend these speech patterns, leading to concerns about their ability to communicate effectively (Yuwita & Ambarwati, 2023). This anxiety is compounded by social pressure, as students fear ridicule or criticism. Moreover, cultural differences and language barriers in interactions with foreigners further exacerbate their stress (Nejjari et al., 2020). A survey also highlighted that past failures or ongoing challenges led to a lack of confidence among Chinese undergraduate students, which negatively affected their speaking performance (Y. Wu et al., 2020).

Anxiety about voluntarily answering questions in English classrooms is another common issue (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021). Students strongly associated voluntary participation with feelings of anxiety and embarrassment, often driven by fears of underperformance and linguistic inadequacy (Damayanti & Listyani, 2020; Zhong & Zhu, 2023). These concerns extended beyond the fear of making mistakes and included the social implications of being judged by peers and teachers. Teacher-centered methods, which typically place students in passive roles, contribute to this reluctance (Hanh, 2020). The rigid structure of such methods limits student engagement and makes it difficult for learners to participate actively. Furthermore, the lack of opportunities for self-directed learning in these environments exacerbates feelings of insecurity, further diminishing students' confidence in their language skills. As a result, this anxiety negatively impacts their willingness to engage in class activities, hindering both their language development and academic performance.

Taken together, these findings reveal that approaches narrowly centered on language proficiency are inadequate for addressing the complex challenges faced by EFL learners. The persistence of interaction anxiety and reluctance to participate demonstrates that learners' difficulties are not purely linguistic but are also deeply intertwined with emotional,

social, and cognitive factors. This underscores the urgent need for pedagogical interventions that go beyond traditional grammar- or vocabulary-focused instruction, incorporating strategies to build students' confidence, reduce fear of negative evaluation, and cultivate supportive classroom dynamics. By attending to these multiple dimensions, educators can create learning environments that not only enhance communicative competence but also promote sustained engagement, intrinsic motivation, and positive learning attitudes.

2.4.2 Audience Anxiety

The literature highlights several key factors contributing to oral presentation anxiety among tertiary ESL/EFL students. Research consistently identifies environmental constraints (e.g., large class sizes, limited practice opportunities), psychological factors (such as stress and fear of negative evaluation) and linguistic challenges (including limited vocabulary and first language interference) as major contributors. Recent studies have highlighted that while technology-enhanced and student-centered interventions show promise, their effectiveness is often context-specific, emphasizing the need for a more holistic approach (Kho & Ting, 2023). Anxiety during presentations is often triggered by factors like fear of forgetting material and difficulties with eye contact, with higher-performing students experiencing more intense anxiety (Haryanto, 2021; Kurakan, 2021). Despite advances in intervention strategies, a gap remains in developing universally applicable methods for addressing oral presentation anxiety across diverse contexts.

Oral presentation anxiety remains a significant obstacle for tertiary ESL/EFL learners, affecting both academic performance and professional preparedness. Kho and Ting (2023) synthesized 41 studies, identifying environmental, psychological, linguistic, and resource-related factors contributing to anxiety. While technology-enhanced instruction, innovative assessments, and student-centered approaches showed promise, their context-specific nature limits broader applicability. Similarly, Kurakan (2021) found moderate anxiety among 72 Thai engineering students, with triggers including fear of forgetting content, difficulties with eye contact, and language limitations. Coping strategies such as peer rehearsals and script review were commonly used. Collectively, these findings highlight that existing interventions often address isolated aspects of anxiety rather than its multidimensional nature, emphasizing the need for holistic pedagogical approaches that

integrate cognitive, affective, and linguistic support to foster communicative competence and learner confidence.

Performance anxiety in public speaking poses a significant barrier for Indonesian EFL students, particularly in mandatory English courses that intensify stress and self-consciousness (Haryanto, 2021). Despite its curricular importance, many learners struggle with pre-speech nervousness, fear of errors, and the pressure of being the center of attention, all of which constrain oral performance. Employing a mixed-methods design, the study analyzed nine students from an English Education program in Bogor, categorized by high, middle, and low performance levels. Data were collected through preliminary questions, a performance anxiety questionnaire, and focus group discussions. Notably, higher-scoring students reported the greatest anxiety, suggesting that performance pressure may disproportionately affect those with higher expectations or perceived competence. While the study provides detailed insight into anxiety triggers, its extremely small sample limits generalizability and the capacity to develop widely applicable pedagogical strategies.

In sum, the findings underscore that performance anxiety is multifaceted, affecting learners differently based on perceived ability, and highlight the need for instructional interventions that not only target skill development but also address psychological and affective barriers to effective public speaking.

2.4.3 Confidence Anxiety

The literature revealed that a primary factor contributing to undergraduate students' difficulties in speaking English is their concern over inaccurate pronunciation, as they may feel unable to perfectly replicate native-like English pronunciation. This concern often results in a fear of speaking in front of others (Almuslimi, 2020) and fearing these errors could negatively impact their self-image and the evaluations they receive from peers and instructors (Suparlan, 2021). Additionally, many students express anxiety about making grammatical errors or using inappropriate vocabulary during speaking communication, which can lead to diminished self-confidence and a reluctance to participate in spoken interactions (Leacock et al., 2014). The anxiety is particularly heightened when students are required to speak publicly in English classes, further intensifying their fear and discomfort (Damayanti & Listyani, 2020; Dana & Aminatun, 2022; Liu & Yuan, 2021).

Therefore, providing effective solutions to address speaking anxiety for undergraduate students is also something that many English educators are currently contemplating. Some studies suggest that teachers and classmates can provide positive support and encouragement to help students overcome anxiety and build self-confidence (Inada, 2021; Villegas-Puyod et al., 2020). In addition, school education also needs to create more opportunities for speaking practice, such as group discussions, role-playing, speech competitions, etc., so that students can have the opportunity to exercise their speaking skills and gradually overcome anxiety (Tim & Chano, 2020). Effective feedback is also one of the ways to help them identify and correct speaking problems (Damayanti & Listyani, 2020). Therefore, teachers and educational institutions need to take comprehensive measures to help learners overcome learning difficulties and speaking anxiety, improve their oral expression ability and confidence.

2.4.4 Language Proficiency Anxiety

The literature revealed several key trends and themes regarding language proficiency and its influence on both test-taking and communicative behaviours among EFL learners. Researchers consistently identified that anxiety in language tasks was multifactorial, stemming from environmental constraints, such as large class sizes and limited practice opportunities, psychological factors, including stress, nervousness and fear of negative evaluation and linguistic challenges, such as limited vocabulary and interference from learners' first language. Although interventions, particularly technology-enhanced and student-centered approaches, showed promise, their effectiveness was often context-specific, highlighting the need for more holistic strategies to address language anxiety and communicative reluctance.

Recent studies reveal that EFL learners' performance and anxiety are shaped by more than language proficiency alone. Al Fraidan and Olaywi (2024) found that higher-proficiency Saudi learners used contextual cues for educated guessing in multiple-choice tests, while lower-proficiency learners relied on simpler heuristics, with gender influencing approach. Similarly, Zainal et al. (2022) showed that culturally based instruction improved Indonesian learners' speaking skills and reduced anxiety, exposing the limitations of traditional EFL materials that ignore sociocultural factors. Together, these findings critique the narrow focus on linguistic competence in EFL pedagogy, highlighting the need for

interventions addressing cognitive strategies, affective states, and cultural awareness to enhance performance and confidence.

The role of language proficiency in the willingness to communicate among Saudi EFL learners was explored, situating the study within Saudi Arabia's broader efforts to enhance English education for professional growth (Alqurashi & Althubaiti, 2021). Drawing on theoretical frameworks by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) and MacIntyre and Charos (1996) regarding willingness to communicate, the authors employed a qualitative design using a triangulation strategy that incorporated both focus-group discussions and individual interviews. The study involved 33 participants- comprising three English language instructors and 30 third-year undergraduate EFL learners from three English language classes at the University of Jeddah. The findings revealed that students exhibited a reluctance to communicate in English due to perceived linguistic inadequacies, limited vocabulary and fears of mispronunciation and misunderstanding, which led them to prefer using their first language over English. These results highlighted the critical influence of language proficiency on willingness to communicate and indicated the need for further research into additional factors affecting oral communication.

2.4.5 Negative Evaluation Anxiety

The studies conducted by Bailey et al. (2024), Rahmat et al. (2022) and Okyar (2023) collectively highlighted significant trends in understanding the multifaceted nature of anxiety in foreign language (FL) learning contexts, particularly concerning performance anxiety, motivation and self-efficacy. A prominent theme across these studies was the interplay between external and internal factors influencing language anxiety. The role of academic competitiveness as a mediating factor between instrumental motivation and FL performance anxiety was emphasized, with the suggestion that competitive educational environments exacerbated anxiety levels despite high motivation (Bailey et al., 2024). Similarly, the exploration of how fear of negative evaluation (FNE) interacted with both external conditions (such as audience characteristics) and internal conditions (such as self-perception) indicated that anxiety was not solely an individual experience but was influenced by contextual factors (Rahmat et al., 2022). Further contributing to this discourse, the relationships between speaking self-efficacy, FNE and self-perceived proficiency were

examined, revealing that these factors significantly predicted speaking anxiety among EFL learners (Okyar, 2023).

Despite highlighting the detrimental effects of anxiety on language learning, current research remains limited in scope and generalizability. Most studies focus on East Asian and Turkish contexts, leaving the experiences of learners in other regions underexplored. Furthermore, while the negative impact of anxiety on perceived learning outcomes is well-documented, few studies examine interventions or instructional strategies to mitigate these effects. For example, Bailey et al. (2024) found that among 318 South Korean EFL students in remote classes, high instrumental motivation increased language anxiety, yet this relationship was fully mediated by academic competitiveness, which in turn negatively affected perceived learning outcomes. These findings underscore the complex interplay between motivation, competitiveness, and anxiety, and critique the prevailing focus on linguistic proficiency alone. They highlight the urgent need for research that addresses cultural variability and evaluates practical pedagogical strategies to reduce anxiety and enhance learning outcomes in diverse EFL settings.

Recent research highlights the multifaceted nature of foreign language speaking anxiety (FLSA) and its interplay with fear of negative evaluation (FNE) among EFL learners. Rahmat et al. (2022) examined 129 participants to explore how FNE interacts with external factors (e.g., audience, venue) and internal factors (e.g., nervousness, self-perception) in oral presentations. Their findings revealed a weak but positive association between FNE and these factors, alongside a strong correlation between external and internal influences, indicating that both environmental and personal dimensions contribute to public speaking anxiety. Similarly, Okyar (2023) investigated 293 Turkish EFL students, emphasizing the role of speaking self-efficacy, self-perceived proficiency and gender in shaping FLSA. Collectively, these studies underscore the complexity of anxiety in oral performance, demonstrating that cognitive, affective and contextual factors intersect to influence learners' confidence and communicative behaviour. However, both studies remain largely descriptive and quantitative, offering limited insight into how pedagogical interventions might effectively address FNE and FLSA, thereby exposing a critical gap in evidence-based strategies for reducing anxiety in diverse EFL settings.

2.4.6 Test Anxiety

Test anxiety was one of the most significant challenges faced by many learners. Concerns about failing speaking exams and the embarrassment associated with answering questions were primary sources of anxiety for students learning English speaking skills. The widespread fear of exam failure was highlighted, along with the anxiety associated with academic assessments (El Shazly, 2021; Suparlan, 2021; Tuyet & Khang, 2020). This fear, often associated with apprehensions about failure, negatively impacted students' academic performance and future prospects (Abdullah et al., 2022; Ahmetovic et al., 2020). Moreover, students frequently hesitated to respond in class due to low self-confidence, fear of negative evaluation and the possibility of making mistakes during verbal interactions (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021).

Recent studies have examined innovative approaches to mitigating test- and speaking-related anxiety among EFL learners, particularly in technologically mediated contexts. Akram and Abdelrady (2023) investigated 34 female Saudi undergraduates, applying cognitive-attention theory to assess the impact of ClassPoint on test anxiety. Using a quasi-experimental design, they found that interactive, technology-enhanced instruction significantly reduced students' anxiety compared to traditional methods, highlighting the potential of engaging tools to alleviate stress and improve focus. Complementing this, Nugroho et al. (2021) explored speaking anxiety in online EFL classrooms, identifying not only traditional stressors such as fear of negative evaluation but also novel challenges specific to remote learning, including technological failures and teacher-dominated interactions.

While both studies provide evidence that targeted interventions and adaptive learning environments can reduce anxiety, they remain context-specific and limited in scale, offering little guidance on broader pedagogical implementation. Collectively, these findings underscore the need for comprehensive strategies that integrate technology, instructional design, and affective support to address the evolving sources of anxiety in both face-to-face and online EFL learning environments.

2.5 Learning Motivation

The development of English learning motivation is a gradual and multifactorial process, typically unfolding across several stages:

The development of English learning motivation is a gradual and multifactorial process that unfolds across several stages and contexts. In the early phases of language learning, students' motivation is typically shaped by external pressures such as academic demands, parental influence, or social expectations (Jin et al., 2021). While such extrinsic motivators can initiate participation, their impact often remains temporary, eliciting compliance rather than genuine engagement. However, much of the existing literature tends to describe this transition from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation in linear or idealized terms, often overlooking the variability of learners' contexts and the pedagogical conditions required to sustain it. For example, Baaqeel's (2020) emphasis on meaningful experiences as a catalyst for internalizing motivation is conceptually persuasive, yet the study offers limited empirical evidence on how such experiences are operationalized in classroom practice or measured across learner groups. Consequently, while theoretical frameworks highlight the role of autonomy and personal relevance, empirical generalizability remains constrained by methodological diversity and small-scale qualitative designs.

As learners advance, they are said to develop clearer goals and more personalized visions for their English learning—ranging from communicative competence to cross-cultural engagement (Yue et al., 2022). However, these studies often fail to specify whether such goal formation is a cause or a consequence of motivational persistence. Furthermore, many quantitative studies rely heavily on self-reported data, which raises concerns about social desirability bias and the reliability of inferences regarding learners' actual motivational trajectories. Although research by Karnchanachari (2020) links self-efficacy with sustained motivation, the findings are limited by contextual specificity and a lack of longitudinal validation. Hence, while goal clarity and confidence are repeatedly emphasized as critical to persistence, the evidence base remains fragmented, making it difficult to draw robust conclusions about causality or cross-cultural applicability.

More broadly, the development of English learning motivation should be viewed as a dynamic interaction among psychological, contextual, and pedagogical factors rather than a fixed sequence of motivational stages. Yet, educational practice and even much empirical research continue to treat motivation as a static construct. Studies such as those by Adinda

and Mohib (2020) and Teng (2024) commendably advocate for nurturing autonomy, competence, and relatedness, drawing on self-determination theory; however, their conclusions often stem from small or culturally homogeneous samples, limiting the extent to which findings can be generalized to diverse EFL contexts. Similarly, Senjahari et al. (2021) provide valuable insights into motivational orientations but stop short of addressing how these orientations interact dynamically under varying instructional designs. Overall, existing research remains overly compartmentalized, examining intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as discrete categories rather than interdependent, evolving constructs shaped by pedagogical and socio-cultural influences. Future studies must therefore adopt more integrative and methodologically rigorous approaches to better capture the fluid and context-sensitive nature of English learning motivation.

2.5.1 Intrinsic Motivation

Recent research has increasingly emphasized comparative studies of intrinsic motivation in the context of language learning. Intrinsic motivation refers to the inherent enjoyment and fulfilment that learners experience from engaging in activities such as studying English (Gilakjani et al., 2012). Scholars have explored the effects of intrinsic motivation, including interest and curiosity, alongside extrinsic motivation, such as grades and rewards, on English language learning outcomes (Fiddiyasari & Pustaka, 2021; Liu, 2020; Pranawengtias, 2022). Key findings suggest a positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and sustained learning engagement (Bailey et al., 2021; Sun & Gao, 2020).

Intrinsic motivation has been shown to positively influence individuals' willingness to share knowledge, as those with higher intrinsic motivation are more likely to engage in meaningful emotional exchanges (Mansor & Jaharuddin, 2020). Similarly, learners motivated intrinsically are more inclined to share acquired knowledge, suggesting that such motivation fosters a greater propensity for actively communicating personal experiences (Meng & Li, 2024). Furthermore, the ability to share knowledge may cultivate a sense of achievement and pride, which can in turn enhance intrinsic motivation for English learning (Shen & Chang, 2018).

2.5.2 Extrinsic Motivation

While extrinsic motivation may generate short-term interest in learning, it tends to lack long-term sustainability (Hussain et al., 2020; Liu, 2020). In recent years, research has also paid more and more attention to the reasons why students lack motivation.

Research on extrinsic motivation has primarily centered on two dimensions: extrinsic career motivation and extrinsic social motivation. Many students are driven to learn a foreign language by the aspiration to gain admission to prestigious institutions, with strong English proficiency perceived as essential to achieving this goal (Wang & Zheng, 2021; Zheng et al., 2019). However, in some regions, Non-English-Major students may adopt early admission strategies, resulting in reluctant participation in language studies and a subsequent decline in intrinsic motivation (Zheng, 2020).

The growing emphasis on extrinsic motivation in academic pursuits can be attributed to the increasingly intense employment pressures and heightened social competition in China over recent years. As the job market becomes more competitive, many students are driven to enhance their academic qualifications in order to improve their future employment prospects (Horta & Li, 2023; D. Wu et al., 2020). This pursuit of academic success is often seen as a strategic move to secure better career opportunities, with many students opting to study abroad as a means of further enhancing both their English proficiency and academic credentials (Huang & Curle, 2021; Tran et al., 2021).

The belief that higher academic qualifications will lead to a competitive edge in the job market has made studying abroad an increasingly popular choice. This extrinsic motivation, closely tied to career advancement, serves as a powerful driver for students to invest more time and effort into their English studies. As a result, students are often highly focused on achieving language proficiency as a tool to gain access to better job opportunities, which in turn fuels their commitment to academic learning (Darvin & Norton, 2023; Ramzan et al., 2023). The growing reliance on such external incentives not only shapes students' learning behaviours but also influences their attitudes toward English education, fostering a mindset where academic achievement is seen as a means to an end rather than an intrinsic passion for the language itself.

External motivation, particularly social motivation, refers to an individual's drive to engage in an activity due to external factors such as social recognition, group identification,

or evaluations from others (Aydın et al., 2014). Social recognition, especially through affirmation and support from family, plays a pivotal role in motivating students to study diligently, underscoring the influence of social dynamics on learning motivation (Šimunović & Babarović, 2020). In the context of English language learning, heightened parental expectations significantly shape students' academic goals, with a focus on achieving English proficiency reflecting broader societal trends where parents' aspirations for their children's educational and career success serve as powerful motivators (Liu & Dong, 2023).

Similarly, the crucial role of parental expectations in motivating students was underscored, with the desire to fulfil these expectations often being a central driver behind many students' commitment to learning English. This social pressure is further compounded by the strong influence of family members' recognition and approval, which serve as powerful external motivators in shaping students' attitudes toward language learning (Huang, 2017). Additionally, close familial relationships were argued to be pivotal in boosting students' confidence and overall motivation (Yaqoob et al., 2023). The emotional and psychological support that students receive from their families often fosters a sense of validation, which strengthens their academic determination. In this context, familial support and approval are not merely emotional comforts but play a crucial role in sustaining students' drive toward achieving academic and language learning goals, particularly when they align with the social and educational aspirations of their families.

One of the reasons for motivating students with external motivation - social may be because of the filial piety that is highly respected in Chinese society. In the context of Confucian culture, where filial piety is regarded as one of the core virtues and parents hold a revered status (Xie et al., 2023), family expectations play a crucial role in shaping students' motivation. Research has confirmed that students' extrinsic motivation is related to filial piety and their learning motivation is influenced by their parents' expectations (Guo et al., 2021; Wang & Rao, 2022). Further building on this, To (2023) found a significant positive correlation between authoritarian filial piety and extrinsic motivation, indicating that these students are also highly motivated by external rewards such as grades or social recognition. Together, these studies highlight the intricate connection between Confucian cultural values, parental influence and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, demonstrating how deeply rooted cultural norms shape students' educational goals and behaviors.

In addition, many researchers have explored the impact of learner autonomy, self-efficacy, and goal setting on English learning motivation (Basikin, 2020; Garhani & Supriyono, 2021; Takahashi & Im, 2020). These studies have found the importance of autonomy in learner motivation and learning outcomes, as well as the positive impact of setting goals reasonably on improving learning motivation.

Researchers further explore the impact of learners' perception of social environment and expectations of others on English learning motivation (Getie, 2020; Pranawengtias, 2022). Some studies have found the importance of peer and family attitudes and motivation towards learners (San Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2022; Wallace & Leong, 2020). There are also studies that have confirmed the motivating effect of schools and teachers on student learning (Alrishan et al., 2023; Hussain et al., 2020)

2.5.3 Amotivation

Amotivation is one of the learning motivations that has received more attention in recent years. Recent research has also found that students lack motivation in the process of learning English (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Research in recent years has also found that students lack motivation in the process of learning English. Research in Afghanistan found that students' interest and motivation in learning English had decreased (Orfan, 2020). The same conclusion was reached by Adie et al. (2024). It was believed that students' motivation to learn decreased because they encountered difficulties and obstacles in the learning process (Nishida & Takagi, 2023). Although no relationship between motivation and academic performance was found (Hu et al., 2024), it was argued that helping students better understand the utility of English is essential to motivating them to learn (Wang & Littlewood, 2021). It was mentioned that anxiety is one of the factors that motivate learning and appropriate anxiety can act as a catalyst to enhance learning motivation and encourage students to participate more deeply in the learning process (Bárkányi, 2021).

In addition to amotivation, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, research on learning motivation also focuses on the following aspects:

At the emotional level, researchers focus on the impact of learners' emotional attitudes (such as interest, pleasure and anxiety) on English learning motivation and outcomes (Alrabai, 2024; Dewaele & Li, 2022). Some studies have found that positive

emotional attitudes have a promoting effect on learning motivation and learning outcomes (Chang & Tsai, 2022). In addition, some studies suggest the importance of cultivating emotional intelligence in improving learners' emotional attitudes (Habeab Al-Obaydi et al., 2022).

Cross cultural comparative research has been a hot topic in recent years. Researchers compare the differences and commonalities in English learning motivation among learners from different cultural backgrounds. Important findings include the shaping and influence of cultural factors on learning motivation, as well as the positive role of cross-cultural communication in enhancing learning motivation (Akram et al., 2024; Alshuraiaan, 2023).

The important findings of these studies contribute to a deeper understanding of the essence and influencing factors of English learning motivation, providing scientific basis for educators to formulate effective teaching strategies and educational policies and promoting students' English learning motivation and learning outcomes.

2.6 Learning Attitudes

The current research on English learning attitudes has also received increasing attention from scholars. It is crucial to study English learning attitudes as they directly affect learners' learning motivation, engagement, behavior and outcomes (Yu et al., 2021). Understanding the attitudes of learners helps to personalize teaching, optimize teaching methods and environments, improve learning outcomes and enhance the learning experience of learners (Alshuraiaan, 2023). Current research on attitudes focuses on three dimensions: cognitive attitudes, behavioral attitude and affective attitude.

Recent research has highlighted the importance of learners' cognitive attitudes toward English learning, particularly in how they influence academic performance and the adoption of effective learning strategies (Huang et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2021). Cognitive attitudes encompass the beliefs and knowledge that individuals hold about a subject, influencing their motivation to learn (Svenningsson et al., 2022). Learners with positive cognitive attitudes are more likely to understand language knowledge, plan their learning effectively and achieve better academic results (Nja et al., 2022; C. Sun et al., 2022). Moreover, studies show that students increasingly view English proficiency as crucial for cognitive growth and educational success (Senad et al., 2021; Yuliani et al., 2023; Zulfikar

et al., 2019) with English learning not only enhancing language skills but also boosting problem-solving abilities and critical thinking (Mou, 2024).

Moreover, English learning attitudes should be understood as dynamic constructs may shaped by the complex interplay of learning strategies, anxiety, and motivation. While effective learning strategies, such as metacognitive regulation, self-assessment, and communicative engagement, are often assumed to promote positive attitudes, their impact is contingent on learners' awareness, training, and contextual support (Papi & Hiver, 2025; Ramzan et al., 2023). In many instructional settings, strategy use remains superficial or teacher-dependent, limiting its potential to genuinely transform learners' attitudes.

Similarly, the influence of learning anxiety is frequently oversimplified in existing research, which tends to emphasize its negative effects without recognizing its possible adaptive role. Excessive anxiety undoubtedly undermines confidence and participation (Kafle, 2025; Gao & Zuo, 2025). Yet mild, task-oriented anxiety can stimulate alertness and persistence, if appropriately managed through pedagogical design. Motivation, too, is often discussed as a precursor to attitude, but this relationship is more reciprocal and context-sensitive than commonly portrayed.

Low motivation does not automatically translate into positive attitudes when learning environments are rigid, test-oriented, or culturally alienating (Deng, 2024; Maru et al., 2021). Thus, fostering constructive English learning attitudes requires more than promoting strategy use or reducing anxiety, it demands critical reflection on how educational systems, assessment practices, and cultural ideologies shape learners' emotional and cognitive orientations toward English. Only through such a holistic and critical approach can attitudes evolve from externally shaped compliance to authentic, self-sustaining engagement.

2.6.1 Affective Attitude

Affective attitude refers to an individual's emotional inclination and feelings towards a specific object or concept (Ostrom, 1969). Research has shown that the attitudes and emotions of English learners toward the language are multifaceted and often complex. While studies by Pranawengtias (2022) and Hao et al. (2023) reported that many students maintained a generally positive attitude toward learning English, the reality of their learning experience often led to fluctuations in their motivation. Despite initial enthusiasm,

challenges such as poor learning performance and a lack of tangible achievement throughout the learning process can significantly dampen students' interest and enthusiasm.

It was found that when students do not see visible progress or struggle with language barriers, their motivation tends to decline (Lei, 2023; Li, 2023; Yusriyah, 2020). This decline in motivation can result from feelings of frustration, a sense of failure and diminished self-efficacy, all of which negatively impact students' attitudes toward continuing to engage with the language. The lack of a sense of achievement, which is critical to maintaining interest, can cause learners to question the effectiveness of their efforts, leading to disengagement. This highlights the need for learning environments that not only foster positive attitudes but also provide support and strategies to help learners overcome challenges and feel a sense of accomplishment throughout their journey.

It was noted that the emotional tendencies and reactions of learners towards English learning, including their preferences, excitement, aversion and other emotional experiences towards learning activities, should be taken into account (Getie, 2020). Research explores the influence of emotional attitudes on learning motivation, engagement and outcomes, as well as how to regulate and promote positive emotional experiences among learners (Zhang et al., 2020). Research has found a positive correlation between learners' positive emotional experiences in English learning and their learning motivation, engagement and outcomes (Dao & Sato, 2021; Li et al., 2020). Learners with positive emotional attitudes are more inclined to continue learning and achieve better academic results (Getie, 2020). In addition, teachers' emotional attitudes and emotional management abilities are associated with learners' emotional experiences and learning outcomes.

Challenges in English learning persist, with many students showing low enthusiasm and empathy toward English classes. It was linked to poor academic performance and a diminished sense of achievement, which reduces motivation (Lei, 2023; Yusriyah, 2020). Similarly, it was found that law students often struggle with English due to low interest and confidence (Li, 2024). However, students who view English as important tend to be more engaged and motivated (Hao et al., 2023; Pranawengtiyas, 2022). Additionally, students with negative attitudes frequently experience heightened anxiety in English-speaking situations. It was observed that these students feel shy and uncomfortable when speaking in front of peers (Putri et al., 2020). While it was noted that classroom anxiety reduces participation (Damayanti & Listyani, 2020). Further, it was highlighted that concerns about peer judgment

and low confidence exacerbate nervousness, especially in formal academic settings (Liu & Hong, 2021).

Moreover, affective attitudes toward English learning are not merely personal emotional responses but are also socially and culturally mediated. Learners' emotions are shaped by broader sociolinguistic factors such as language ideology, classroom culture, and perceived linguistic hierarchies. In many educational contexts, English is positioned as a marker of intelligence, modernity, or global competence, which can generate both aspiration and emotional pressure (Gao & Zheng, 2022). Students who internalize these societal expectations may experience ambivalence, simultaneously valuing English as a tool for advancement while feeling alienated by the cultural and linguistic dominance it represents. This tension often manifests as emotional fatigue, anxiety, or resistance, particularly among students from non-elite educational backgrounds who perceive the learning environment as exclusionary. Additionally, the affective climate of the classroom, shaped by teacher empathy, peer support, and classroom norms, plays a decisive role in either amplifying or alleviating these emotional tensions (Peng & Woodrow, 2022).

When teachers employ punitive or overly evaluative approaches, students' negative affective responses can solidify into long-term disengagement and self-doubt. Conversely, classrooms that validate emotional expression and promote collaborative learning can transform affective struggles into opportunities for growth. Therefore, a critical understanding of affective attitude must extend beyond individual emotion management to include the structural and cultural forces that shape how learners feel, think, and act toward English learning.

Moreover, affective attitudes toward English learning should not be viewed merely as private emotional states but as products of broader sociocultural and institutional power dynamics. The emotional experiences of learners are deeply shaped by how English is positioned within educational systems and society, as a symbol of intelligence, prestige, and global mobility (Lee, 2021). While this symbolic value may enhance motivation for some, it also creates an affective hierarchy that privileges students with greater linguistic or cultural capital, reinforcing inequities in confidence, participation, and achievement. Learners from marginalized or non-elite educational backgrounds often internalize deficit perceptions of their English ability, resulting in chronic anxiety, self-doubt, and emotional alienation.

At the classroom level, affective attitudes are further mediated by pedagogical practices and institutional culture. Authoritarian, exam-oriented teaching approaches can suppress emotional engagement, reduce learners to passive recipients of instruction, and transform anxiety into fear rather than motivation (Ghaleb, 2024). Conversely, classrooms that embrace emotional diversity and promote empathy can counteract these structural pressures, allowing affective experiences to become sources of empowerment rather than exclusion (Khattak, Ullah & Imran, 2025). Thus, research and pedagogy must move beyond treating affective attitudes as individual traits to critically interrogate how educational systems, linguistic hierarchies, and cultural ideologies reproduce emotional inequalities in English learning. Only by addressing these systemic dimensions can affective attitudes evolve from sites of tension into catalysts for genuine emotional and intellectual growth.

2.6.2 Behavioural Attitude

Behavioural attitude refers to the attitude exhibited by an individual towards a specific object or concept in their actual behaviour (Bentler & Speckart, 1979). Regarding attitude toward learning, various factors can influence students' behaviour and their overall engagement in the learning process. For example, students who are overly concerned about what their classmates think may experience heightened learning anxiety, which can diminish their enthusiasm for academic tasks (Liu & Hong, 2021; Putri et al., 2020). This anxiety can manifest as a fear of judgment, leading to avoidance behaviours such as procrastination, reduced participation and a lack of confidence in their abilities.

It was found that classroom anxiety negatively impacts students' willingness to engage in English-speaking activities (Damayanti & Listyani, 2020). When students feel anxious about speaking in front of peers, they are less likely to volunteer answers or participate in discussions, further limiting their opportunities for language practice and growth. The fear of making mistakes, coupled with the pressure to perform well, can result in students withdrawing from interactions, thus hindering their academic progress. Therefore, it is crucial to address the psychological and social factors that shape students' behavioral attitudes, as they play a key role in shaping their motivation and success in learning (Liu & Hong, 2021).

In addition, researchers focus on the attitudes and preferences exhibited by learners in actual learning behaviors, including the selection of learning strategies, the level of

participation in learning activities and the setting of learning goals (Chen et al., 2022). Research explores the impact of behavioral attitudes on learning performance and the learning process, as well as how to guide and cultivate more positive learning behaviors among learners (Lai et al., 2022). Research has shown that the actual learning behavior of learners is closely related to their learning attitudes (Getie, 2020). A positive learning attitude usually encourages learners to adopt more proactive learning behaviors, such as participating in classroom discussions, actively completing assignments and actively seeking learning resources (Ramzan et al., 2023). In addition, the teaching environment and the teaching methods of teachers can also affect the learning behavior and attitude of learners (Getie, 2020).

However, a more critical examination of behavioural attitude reveals that it is not merely a reflection of individual disposition but the outcome of complex interactions among psychological, pedagogical, and socio-cultural factors. While traditional studies often attribute students' behavioural engagement or avoidance to internal traits such as motivation or anxiety, this view risks neglecting the structural and contextual forces that shape classroom behaviour. For instance, competitive assessment systems, teacher-centered pedagogies, and culturally imposed expectations about "face" and error avoidance can intensify students' reluctance to participate, reinforcing passive learning patterns despite their underlying motivation (Cheng & Ding, 2021). Furthermore, the assumption that positive attitudes automatically produce active behaviours oversimplifies the learning process. Learners may cognitively value English learning but still exhibit avoidance behaviours if classroom environments lack psychological safety or opportunities for authentic interaction. Similarly, behavioural attitudes are closely intertwined with learning strategies, students who receive explicit strategy training tend to display greater autonomy and persistence, whereas those without such guidance often rely on rote or surface-level engagement (Cekiso, 2025; Kwarikunda et al., 2022). In this sense, behavioural attitudes are not static indicators of willingness or effort but adaptive responses to the learning ecology.

To cultivate genuinely positive behavioural attitudes, educators must therefore critically reconsider classroom structures and pedagogical approaches that either enable or constrain students' participation. Encouraging risk-taking, valuing mistakes as learning opportunities, and integrating collaborative learning can mitigate fear-driven behaviours and promote authentic engagement. Moreover, institutional reforms that shift the focus from

performance outcomes to learning processes can further empower students to exhibit sustained, self-directed learning behaviours (Gupta et al., 2024). Thus, addressing behavioural attitudes requires a systemic and reflective approach, one that situates student behaviour within broader emotional, cognitive, and social frameworks rather than reducing it to isolated acts of engagement or avoidance.

2.6.3 Cognitive Attitude

The attitudes of Chinese undergraduate students towards English learning are complex, ranging from positive to passive, as well as negative. Some students have a positive and proactive attitude towards English learning. They love English and believe that mastering it is an important way to improve their competitiveness and expand their international perspective (Peng et al., 2020). These students usually voluntarily participate in activities such as English corners and foreign language competitions, actively seeking opportunities to improve their English proficiency (Fang & Liu, 2020).

However, another group of students adopts a passive attitude towards English learning, often driven by external factors such as academic requirements rather than personal interest. These students may lack intrinsic motivation and may only engage in English learning to meet exam demands or fulfil academic obligations (Yue et al., 2022). As a result, they tend to view English learning merely as a necessary task and their efforts are typically concentrated around exam periods. Outside of these times, they are not proactive or consistent in their learning process and may fail to make meaningful progress in mastering the language (Tao et al., 2020). This lack of sustained engagement can hinder their long-term success in English learning, as they are not motivated to improve beyond the immediate academic requirements.

In some cases, students may even develop a negative and resistant attitude towards English learning, which may stem from previous frustrating learning experiences or their own cognitive limitations. These students may become averse to English learning and view it as an unnecessary or burdensome task (Pan et al., 2021). Some may perceive learning English as monotonous or tedious, leading to a lack of enthusiasm or willingness to invest the necessary effort to improve. As a result, they are less likely to engage actively in their studies or develop strategies for overcoming language learning challenges, which further reinforces their resistance (Tang et al., 2020).

The reasons for the formation of these different attitudes are also diverse. The education system in China is associated with students' attitudes toward English learning. For example, an exam system dominated by exam-oriented education may lead to students developing a utilitarian attitude towards English learning, focusing only on English grades and neglecting the true improvement of language abilities (Zou et al., 2022). In addition, the learning environment also has a certain impact on students' attitudes towards English learning. If schools lack good English teaching resources and learning atmosphere, students may lose interest in English learning and adopt a passive attitude (Wang et al., 2021).

Personal interests and motivation are important factors that influence students' attitudes towards English learning (Getie, 2020). If students are interested in learning English and consider it a pleasant experience, they will adopt a proactive attitude (Ramzan et al., 2023). On the contrary, if students lack interest and motivation in learning English, they will adopt a passive or resistant attitude (Al-Ahmadi & King, 2023).

Different attitudes toward English learning are associated with varying learning outcomes and language abilities. Students with a proactive attitude typically achieve better academic performance, improve their language proficiency faster and are more likely to adapt to future learning and work environments (Hartinah et al., 2020). Students who hold a passive or resistant attitude may face problems such as decreased interest in learning, unsatisfactory grades and ineffective improvement in language ability (Panmei, 2021).

Research has shown that individual differences among learners have a certain impact on their attitudes towards English learning. Learners of different genders, ages, cultural backgrounds and learning experiences may have differences in their learning attitudes (Saarinen et al., 2021). Therefore, teachers need to design differentiated teaching strategies and support measures based on the individual characteristics of learners. Understanding the learning attitude of learners can help teachers better understand the needs and characteristics of students, thereby designing targeted teaching activities and strategies, improving teaching effectiveness and learner satisfaction (Bobe & Cooper, 2020).

2.7 Underpinning Theories

Underpinning theories refers to a set of concepts, hypotheses and frameworks based on logical reasoning and empirical verification that systematically and deeply analyze,

explore and explain phenomena, laws and principles in a specific field (Rycroft-Malone & Bucknall, 2010). The main purpose of studying theory is to understand and explain phenomena in the real world, provide guidance for practice and promote the development of the discipline (Bednar et al., 2013). The importance of research theory is reflected in its guidance for practice, promotion of innovation, improvement of disciplinary level, resolution of practical problems and establishment of academic consensus (Iyamu, 2013). It provides theoretical support and guidance for disciplinary development and problem-solving and promotes progress and cooperation in the academic community (Bednar et al., 2013). The present study is informed by the Social Educational Model (SEM) (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), which provides a framework for understanding the social and motivational factors associated with language learning.

To extend this understanding, the SEM adds a sociopsychological dimension by focusing on learners' cultural identity, social context, and attitudes toward the target language community (Rock & Danaee, 2025). SEM explains how these social and attitudinal factors shape motivation and learners' willingness to engage in communicative use of English. It highlights that motivation is not merely an internal drive but is also socially constructed through cultural and contextual interaction.

The SEM developed by Gardner and Lambert (1972) and further refined by Gardner (1985, 2010), is one of the most influential frameworks in second language acquisition research. SEM posits that second language learning is not merely a cognitive process but also a social and affective phenomenon influenced by learners' cultural background, attitudes toward the target language community, and motivation. In this model, motivation is conceptualized as a dynamic construct composed of three interrelated components: attitudes toward learning the language, desire to learn the language, and effort invested in learning. Gardner (2010) emphasized that language learning success is strongly determined by the learner's integrativeness, which reflects the willingness to identify with and participate in the target language community.

In organizational contexts, the SEM has been applied to explain how social and environmental factors shape individuals' motivation and learning behavior. For example, within corporate language training or multicultural workplaces, employees' attitudes toward the target language group and perceived social support significantly influence their motivation to communicate effectively and adopt strategic learning behaviors (Gardner,

2020). This perspective underscores the importance of fostering a positive social climate and cultural openness to enhance motivation and performance in language-related professional development (Rock & Danaee, 2025). In educational settings, the SEM provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how learners' motivation, attitudes, and learning outcomes are shaped by social, cultural, and instructional contexts (Rock et al., 2021). Empirical studies grounded in the SEM consistently indicate that learners' motivation and engagement are shaped by the social learning environment, particularly through supportive classroom climates, positive teacher–student interactions, and favorable attitudes toward the target language community (Vimala, 2025).

In the present study, the SEM is particularly suitable for explaining the relationship between English speaking strategies and learning motivation among EFL learners. Speaking strategies, such as fluency-oriented strategies, message reduction, or accuracy-oriented strategies, are not merely cognitive techniques but also expressions of motivational orientation. Learners with higher integrative or intrinsic motivation tend to employ communicative strategies more actively to achieve fluency and confidence in English speaking (Chen, 2022). Conversely, when motivation is low or socially constrained, learners may avoid active participation or limit strategic engagement. Therefore, the SEM provides a strong theoretical foundation for interpreting how social attitudes and motivational orientations shape learners' use of speaking strategies in Chinese university settings, where English learning is deeply embedded in socio-educational and cultural contexts.

Moreover, SEM highlights that the development of speaking strategies is not merely an individual endeavor but a socially mediated process shaped by cultural identity and group belonging (Gardner, 2006). In the Chinese EFL context, where English learning often carries both academic and social significance, learners' motivation to speak English may depend on their perceived social acceptance of English use and their attitudes toward Western or global cultures. The model therefore provides an essential framework for understanding how social attitudes, cultural identity, and learning motivation collectively influence the strategic behaviors that underpin effective oral communication. Integrating SEM into this study enables a nuanced interpretation of how speaking strategies and motivation interact within a socio-educational environment that blends individual effort with cultural and social dynamics.

Applying SEM to the present study allows for a comprehensive examination of how these socio-educational factors are associated with learners' engagement in speaking strategies, experiences of speaking anxiety, and overall learning attitudes. It offers a lens for interpreting the associations between learners' motivation and their strategic behaviors, highlighting that effective language learning emerges from the interplay between individual effort and the broader social and cultural environment. By integrating SEM, this study can account for both the personal and social dimensions of EFL learning, providing deeper insights into why learners adopt particular speaking strategies, how anxiety is experienced in socially relevant contexts, and how motivation translates into positive learning attitudes. This theoretical perspective thereby reinforces the relevance of the study's research objectives, particularly in exploring the associations among speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, motivation, and learning attitudes within Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates.

2.8 Gaps in Literature

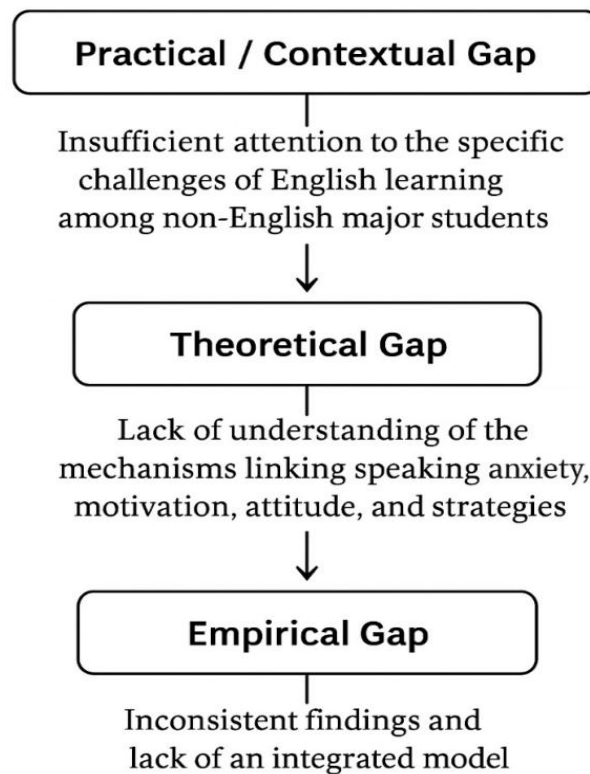
Despite extensive research on English language learning among Non-English-Majors, several critical gaps remain, both in practice and theory. First, there is a practical or contextual gap: English education in Chinese universities has predominantly focused on English majors, with insufficient attention paid to Non-English-Major students (Fu & Zheng, 2021; Huang et al., 2021; Li et al., 2021). Non-English-Majors often face the additional challenge of balancing English learning with other professional courses, yet existing studies rarely address these context-specific difficulties.

Second, a theoretical gap exists in understanding the emotional dimension of oral communication. While speaking anxiety is widely acknowledged as a barrier to effective communication, the mechanisms by which it influences learners' motivation and learning attitudes remain underexplored (Huang et al., 2021; Puspita Sari et al., 2021; Vattøy, 2020). Most research treats strategies as isolated linguistic behaviors rather than examining how they interact with anxiety, motivation, and attitudes to support learners' oral performance (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021; Chou, 2024; Yang, 2024; Wang, Shen & Yu, 2021; Zhou & Mann, 2021). Although low motivation and negative attitudes are frequently reported among Non-English-Majors, few studies have empirically examined how these factors jointly shape oral English learning outcomes (Chen et al., 2021; Getie, 2020; Pan et al., 2021; Sriwichai, 2020).

Finally, there is an empirical gap stemming from inconsistent findings and the lack of a unified model. Existing studies report conflicting results regarding the relationships among speaking anxiety, motivation, attitudes, and strategies, highlighting the need for rigorous empirical research and an integrated framework to explain how affective, cognitive, and behavioral factors interact among Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates (Karagöl & Başbay, 2018; Öztürk, 2012; Bárkányi, 2021; Amoah & Yeboah, 2021; Muhayyang et al., 2023).

Taken together, these gaps underscore the necessity of developing an empirical model that integrates speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, learning attitudes, and speaking strategies, thereby providing both theoretical insights and practical guidance for optimizing oral English learning among Non-English-Majors in China. Summarize of research gaps have presented in Figure 2-1.

**Figure 2-1:
Research Gaps**



2.9 Conceptual Framework

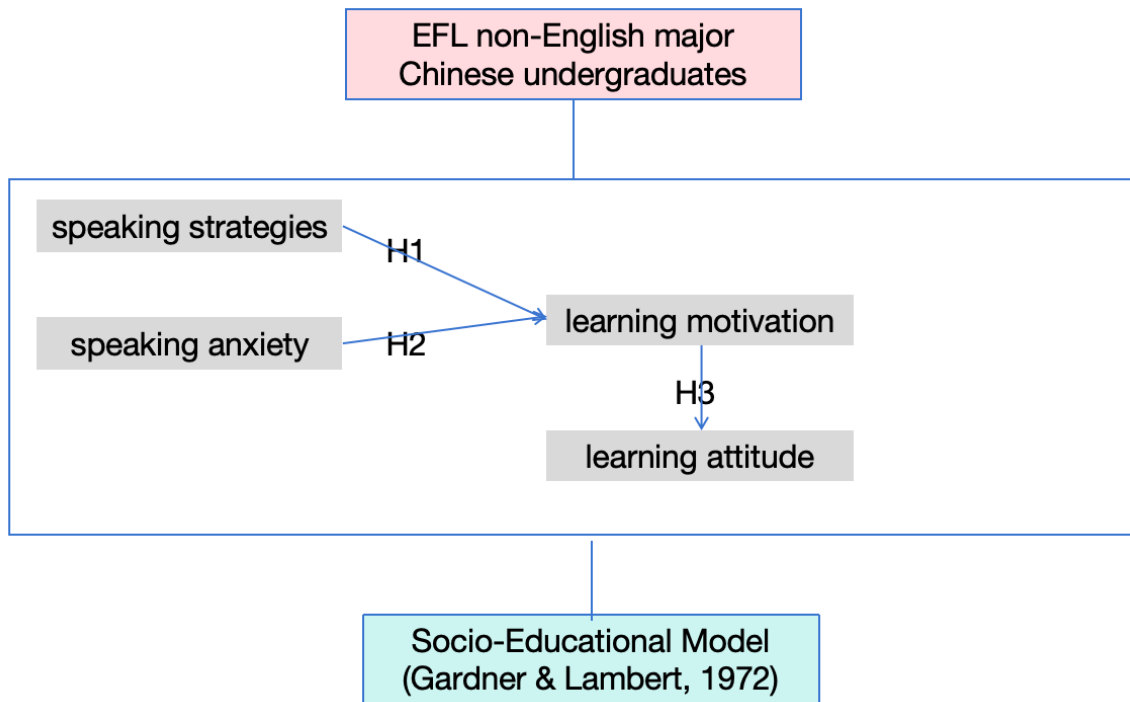
The conceptual framework of this study is grounded in the SEM (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), which provides a comprehensive lens for understanding the interplay among speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes among EFL Non-English-Major Chinese undergraduates. SEM emphasizes that language learning is shaped by both individual and sociocultural factors, highlighting the role of social context, cultural identity, and learners' attitudes toward the target language community in motivating engagement and strategic behavior.

Within this framework, speaking strategies are conceptualized as socially and cognitively mediated actions that enable learners to communicate effectively and sustain motivation. These strategies include social affective strategies, fluency-oriented strategies, negotiation for meaning, accuracy-oriented strategies, message reduction and alteration strategies, non-verbal strategies, message abandonment strategies, and attempting to think in English. SEM posits that learners' strategic use of language reflects their attitudes toward English and their desire to participate meaningfully in social and communicative interactions.

Speaking anxiety is also interpreted through a socio-educational lens, in which learners' affective experiences are shaped by social and contextual factors, including peer evaluation, classroom dynamics, and cultural attitudes toward language learning. SEM explains that anxiety may be associated with learners' motivation and engagement, as socially mediated perceptions of competence and acceptance influence their willingness to adopt speaking strategies.

Furthermore, learning motivation and learning attitudes are understood as interrelated constructs within the socio-educational environment. SEM suggests that learners' motivation is associated with their social context and the perceived value of English in academic, professional, and social domains. In turn, motivation is associated with the adoption of speaking strategies and the formation of positive learning attitudes, encompassing cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions.

**Figure 2-2:
Conceptual Framework**



Overall, by applying SEM as the sole theoretical foundation, this study emphasizes the social and motivational factors that collectively shape learners' engagement with speaking strategies, experiences of anxiety, and learning attitudes. The model provides a coherent framework for examining the associations among these variables in the context of EFL education in Chinese universities, as depicted in Figure 2-2.

2.10 Hypothesis Development

The relationship between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes is very complex and different researchers have reached different conclusions.

2.10.1 The Relationship between Speaking Strategies and Learning Motivation

Eye contact is an important interaction strategy within the context of speaking strategies. Research has shown that students consider eye contact from lecturers to be crucial, as it enhances their learning motivation and promotes greater engagement in the learning process (Muhayang et al., 2023). Additionally, studies have indicated that learners who employ the synonym strategy can effectively increase their learning motivation, foster self-

regulated learning and develop independent learning skills (Yang et al., 2024). Furthermore, a positive correlation has been found between motivational factors and various oral strategy factors, underscoring the essential role of motivation in the effective utilization of oral strategies (Quadir, 2014).

Effective speaking strategies facilitate students' active participation in classroom discussions and aid in establishing clear learning objectives. Employing positive speaking strategies not only maintains students' interest in English language learning but also fosters a constructive learning attitude (Liu et al., 2021). Collectively, these factors enhance learning motivation, making students more engaged and committed to their English studies (Hossain & Al Younus, 2024). Therefore, the strategic implementation of speaking techniques is instrumental in cultivating a favorable attitude toward English learning and in stimulating students' motivation to acquire the language. El-Adl and Alkharusi (2020) research also identifies a positive correlation between specific learning strategies and students' motivation to learn. Based on this, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H1: Speaking strategies are expected to be associated with learning motivation among Non-English-Major students.

2.10.2 The Relationship between Speaking Anxiety and Learning Motivation

The relationship between speaking anxiety and learning motivation is rather complex. It was found that motivation can help learners control language learning anxiety and further improve their learning performance (Almurshed & Aljuaythin, 2019). A positive relationship between learning anxiety and learning motivation was also found (Balogun et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2020). Furthermore, learning motivation itself can influence students' levels of anxiety (Pan et al., 2022). Students with high intrinsic motivation and enthusiasm for learning English may demonstrate greater resilience in overcoming learning challenges, thereby reducing anxiety.

The relationship between intrinsic motivation and language anxiety remains a topic of debate in literature. Some studies have reported a negative correlation between foreign language classroom anxiety and intrinsic motivation, while simultaneously finding a positive correlation between anxiety and extrinsic motivation (Ahmetovic et al., 2020). Additionally, it has been observed that elevated levels of anxiety and excessive pressure can reduce

students' motivation and potentially lead to avoidance behaviours in language learning (Bećirović et al., 2021). Furthermore, other research has indicated no direct correlation between learning motivation and anxiety, highlighting the complexity of these interactions (Bárkányi, 2021). Since there are controversies in the research, further research on the relationship between learning anxiety and learning motivation is necessary. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H2: Speaking anxiety is expected to be associated with learning motivation among Non-English-Major students.

2.10.3 The Relationship between Learning Motivation and Learning Attitudes

The study found that the relationship between learning motivation and learning attitudes is mutual influence and interaction. Students with intrinsic motivation, driven by personal growth, genuine interest, or enjoyment of learning, are more likely to sustain a positive learning attitude (Pan et al., 2022). Research has found that learning attitude has a positive influence on learning motivation. A positive learning attitude, rooted in a belief that learning English is both meaningful and valuable, can enhance students' intrinsic motivation, thereby increasing their enthusiasm and willingness to actively engage in the learning process (Ferrer et al., 2022). This positive outlook on learning can lead to better learning outcomes, as students are more inclined to pursue English learning with interest and dedication (Chen et al., 2022). The interconnection between anxiety and motivation is highlighted (Baaqeel, 2020), while learning attitudes is identified as a key predictor of educational motivation (Rochmawati et al., 2021). Furthermore, a strong positive correlation exists between learning attitudes and motivation, indicating that favorable attitudes lead to higher motivation (Chen et al., 2022). This reciprocal relationship is supported by Senad et al. (2021) and Chou et al. (2021) suggesting that nurturing both cognitive attitudes and motivation is essential for enhancing language proficiency. Collectively, these studies underscore the importance of fostering positive attitudes to improve motivation and, ultimately, learning outcomes. Positive attitudes can enhance learners' motivation to engage in language learning. While external motivations, such as academic rewards, can drive engagement, it has been cautioned that an overemphasis on these factors may undermine intrinsic motivation (Idris et al., 2021).

In summary, there is an interrelationship between English learning attitude and learning motivation. Based on this, this study proposes the following research hypotheses:

H3: Learning motivation is expected to be associated with learning attitudes among Non-English-Major students.

2.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviews literature on EFL learners' speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning attitudes and learning motivation in the process of English learning. Through literature review, it is found that the current speaking strategies adopted by Chinese undergraduate students mainly focus on four parts: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Speaking anxiety is common, mainly due to concerns about pronunciation and lack of confidence. And different learners also have different motivations and attitudes towards English learning. In addition, this chapter also discusses the relationship between learning speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes and finds the intricate relationship between the variables. Further research is necessary to help understand the factors that influence English learning among Non-English-Major EFL students in China.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter delves into the research methods employed in this study, aiming to provide a comprehensive understanding of the research paradigm, tools and techniques utilized for data collection, analysis and other relevant processes. The primary focus of this research is to examine the English speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes among Chinese NEMU students. Quantitative research methods are predominantly employed, with data collection predominantly carried out through online survey questionnaires. For more intricate insights, please refer to the subsequent chapters.

3.2 Research Design

Survey design is an important component of quantitative research methods. Survey design refers to the overall plan and arrangement adopted by researchers in conducting quantitative research, including the determination of research questions, sample selection, data collection methods and selection of measurement tools (Krosnick, 2018). Quantitative research methods are specific research methods and techniques implemented under the guidance of survey design, including questionnaire surveys, experimental studies, observational studies, etc (Leavy, 2022). Survey design determines how research is conducted, while quantitative research methods are the specific operational methods for implementing survey design.

Compared with experimental designs, which are suitable for testing causal effects under controlled conditions, this study does not manipulate independent variables or implement interventions. Its purpose is not to examine cause-and-effect relationships but to analyze naturally existing associations among variables in real educational settings.

Therefore, an experimental approach is unsuitable and may even compromise ecological validity.

Similarly, while mixed-methods designs could have provided richer contextual insights through qualitative data, they typically require substantial time, resources, and sample balancing to ensure methodological integration. Given that the present study's primary aim is quantitative measurement and statistical analysis of relationships, incorporating qualitative components would have extended beyond the study's defined scope and research objectives. However, qualitative approaches are acknowledged as valuable for future studies to deepen the understanding of learners' emotional and motivational experiences.

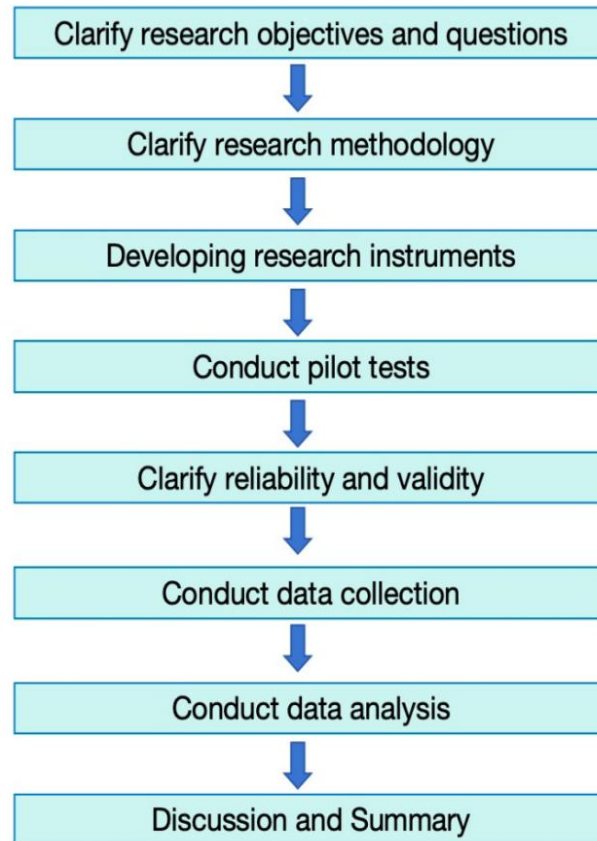
The use of a questionnaire-based survey further aligns with the study's practical and ethical considerations. It allows for the inclusion of a large number of participants while maintaining anonymity, thereby encouraging honest responses and minimizing social desirability bias (Fife-Schaw, 2020). The standardized instruments ensure consistency and comparability across respondents and enhance the study's internal validity.

Furthermore, the online administration of the survey offers flexibility and accessibility for participants, eliminates geographical constraints and enables data collection from multiple institutions efficiently (Wu et al., 2022). This digital approach also simplifies data management and ensures participant privacy (Andrade, 2020), thereby contributing to both methodological rigor and ethical soundness.

In summary, the survey design is critically suited to this study because it enables the quantitative assessment of complex psychological constructs, supports statistical analysis of inter-variable relationships, and ensures broad representativeness through large-scale data collection. By contrast, experimental and mixed-methods designs are deemed less appropriate given the study's correlational aims and practical constraints. Therefore, adopting a quantitative survey design ensures alignment between research objectives, methodological precision, and empirical validity.

The research design facilitated the smooth implementation of the questionnaire survey. The program designed for this study mainly involved the following steps (see Figure 3-1).

**Figure 3-1:
Research Design Process**



Positivism is a research methodology that emphasizes verifying theoretical hypotheses and inferences through observation and empirical data (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020). Research conducted within the framework of positivism typically tends to use quantitative methods, that is, to quantify and measure the phenomena and relationships of the research object through numerical and statistical analysis (Park et al., 2020). Therefore, quantitative research is often seen as a typical method of positivist research, as it emphasizes verifying theoretical hypotheses or solving research problems by collecting a large amount of quantifiable data.

The data collection and analysis process in quantitative research is usually standardized and objective, which helped to ensure the reliability and repeatability of the results (Strijker et al., 2020). Quantitative research can quantify the phenomena and relationships of research objects, describe and analyze them through numerical data and make research results more accurate and comparable (Chali et al., 2022). In addition, quantitative research typically uses statistical analysis methods to process data, reveals the relationships and trends between variables and provides objective research conclusions

(Ryser, 2021). Not only that, but quantitative research also helps to verify theoretical hypotheses or research questions, supports or rejects research hypotheses through data validation, thereby improving the scientific and credibility of research (Chali et al., 2022). Quantitative research results usually have high generalizability and can provide reliable basis and guidance for decision-making, policy guidance and practice (Ryser, 2021). Therefore, quantitative research plays an important role and has significant value in scientific research and practice and is of great significance in promoting the development of disciplines and solving practical problems.

The main reasons why quantitative research is applicable to this study are as follows: firstly, quantitative research can quantify and compare speaking anxiety, motivation and attitudes among different student groups, enabling researchers to accurately measure and compare the performance of these variables in different contexts. In addition, quantitative research can use statistical analysis methods to examine the relationship between speaking anxiety, motivation and attitude, including correlation and regression analysis, in order to reveal the degree of correlation and influencing factors between them. More importantly, quantitative research helps to validate the hypotheses or relationships proposed in the research objectives (RO). For example, by quantifying the expression of speaking anxiety, motivation and attitude, their situation can be verified among Chinese undergraduate students who are not English majors in EFL.

The quantitative research results have high generalizability and application value and can provide scientific basis and suggestions for educational practice, curriculum design and teaching guidance, thereby promoting the improvement and development of language education. In summary, quantitative research methods are applicable to this study as they can effectively achieve the research objectives and provide reliable research conclusions, offering a scientific basis for understanding and improving the speaking anxiety, motivation and attitudes of Chinese undergraduate students who are not English majors in EFL contexts.

3.3 Development of Research Instruments

The survey questionnaire of this study was adapted from previous research. Specifically, the speaking strategy was adapted from Benattabou (2020), Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009), Metcalfe and Noom-Ura (2013), Nakatani (2006) and Sun et al. (2016). Speaking anxiety was adapted from Aydin (2008), Aydin (2013) and Horwitz et al. (1986).

Learning attitude was adapted from Abidin et al. (2012), and the learning motivation was adapted from Aydın et al. (2014), Schreglmann (2018), Selvarajah et al. (2010) and Lim (2012).

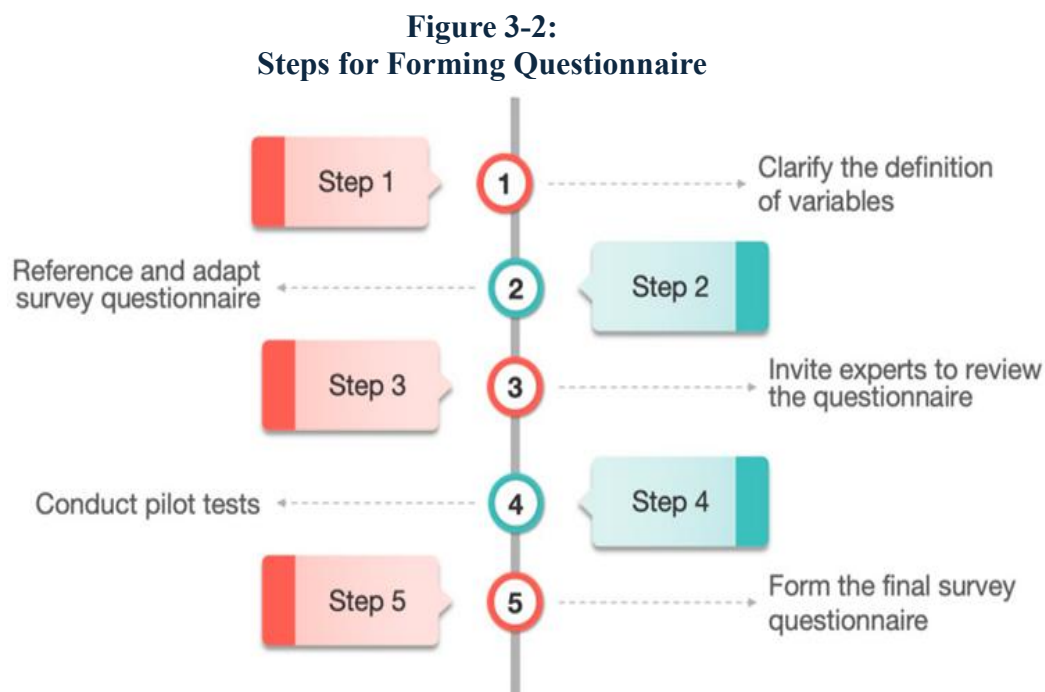
To ensure content relevance and cultural appropriateness, two domain experts from Weifang Institute of Technology were invited to review both the English and Chinese versions of the adapted questionnaires. Expert 1, Pan Huanting, was a Lecturer specializing in Language Learning and Teaching, with around ten years of experience in language education research and instructional practices. Expert 2, Shengnan Li, was an Associate Professor specializing in Language Learning and Teaching, with approximately ten years of experience in effective language acquisition and pedagogical strategies. Both experts had extensive experience in Chinese EFL contexts and were therefore well suited to evaluate item clarity, cultural fit, and construct alignment.

Both experts provided detailed written feedback on item relevance, clarity, and cultural appropriateness. Their evaluations resulted in improvements such as enhanced translation accuracy, deletion of overlapping items, and refinement of ambiguous statements. These structured expert judgments strengthened the content validity and contextual suitability of the final instrument. Annotated versions of their comments were included in Appendix 7 and Appendix 8.

The self-reported questionnaire was employed in this study because it enables efficient collection of a large amount of data from a wide range of participants within a relatively short period of time. It is particularly suitable for measuring participants' perceptions, attitudes, and internal psychological states, which are not easily observable through external assessment. Furthermore, self-reported instruments allow respondents to express their personal experiences and reflections more accurately, and provide insights into individual differences that might not emerge through other data collection methods such as observation or interviews. Nevertheless, to address potential biases associated with self-reported data (e.g., social desirability or response tendency), anonymity was ensured, and clear instructions were provided to encourage honest and accurate responses.

A reasonable survey questionnaire needed to clarify the research purpose and questions, design clear and concise questions, choose appropriate question types and ensure that the questionnaire layout is clear and logically reasonable (Aithal & Aithal, 2020). After

collecting feedback and making modifications during the pre-testing phase, the questionnaire format was determined and passed ethical review. Subsequently, the survey was carried out according to the plan and data was collected. Finally, the data was analysed and interpreted, and the results were compiled into a report format. The questionnaire was revised based on feedback. The main steps in forming a survey questionnaire are as follows (Figure 3-2):



3.3.1 Step 1: Clearly Define Variables

The classification of speaking strategies in this study is primarily based on Nakatani's (2006) Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI), which provides a comprehensive and empirically validated framework for analyzing EFL learners' speaking strategies. The OCSI was selected because it specifically targets oral communication in foreign language contexts, aligning closely with the focus of this study on Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates' speaking performance. Compared with other strategy taxonomies (e.g., Oxford's SILL or Cohen's Language Learning Strategy Framework), the OCSI offers a more detailed categorization of interactive and compensation strategies used in real-time communication, making it particularly relevant to the current research objectives.

To ensure contextual appropriateness, several items from the OCSI were adapted to reflect the sociocultural and classroom realities of Chinese learners, where factors such as

teacher-centered instruction and face-saving tendencies influenced speaking behavior. Cultural adaptation was not limited to translation; wording adjustments were made to enhance comprehensibility and relevance to the Chinese EFL classroom norms. In addition, to enrich the measurement of each strategy, supplementary items were referenced and adapted from Benattabou (2020), Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009), Metcalfe and Noom-Ura (2013), and Sun et al. (2016). The operational definitions of the eight strategy dimensions were presented in Table 3-1.

**Table 3-1:
Operational Definitions of Speaking Strategies**

Term	Definition
Social Affective Strategies	Various actions individuals take, such as relaxation, positive reinforcement, risk-taking and using fillers, to manage their emotions and interactions during social situations effectively.
Fluency-Oriented Strategies	Actively managing aspects such as rhythm, pronunciation, conversational flow, contextual adaptation, pacing and clarity in speech to enhance communication effectiveness.
Negotiation for Meaning While Speaking	Actively ensuring comprehension through comprehension checks, repetition, monitoring listener reactions, providing examples and encouraging error correction by others.
Accuracy-Oriented Strategies	Actively emphasizing grammar, word order, self-correction and native-like speech to enhance linguistic accuracy in conversation.
Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies	Adapting expressions, using familiar words, changing messages if unclear and adjusting sentences for better communication or description.
Non-Verbal Strategies While Speaking	Making eye contact, using gestures, facial expressions, pictures, videos, or mime to enhance communication when verbal expression is insufficient or challenging.
Message Abandonment Strategies	Leaving messages unfinished, seeking help, giving up, resorting to saying only a few words, or remaining silent to avoid embarrassment.
Attempt to Think in English	Adjusting known English sentences, constructing sentences from native language thoughts, practicing native-like expressions, seeking synonyms, or creating new words when unsure.

The classification of speaking anxiety in this study was primarily based on Horwitz et al.'s (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), which has been widely validated for assessing anxiety in EFL contexts. FLCAS was selected due to its comprehensive coverage of multiple dimensions of language anxiety, making it particularly suitable for capturing the nuanced experiences of Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates. Compared with other anxiety measures, FLCAS provides a robust framework for distinguishing between various types of classroom-related anxieties, such as communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation.

**Table 3-2:
Operational Definitions of Anxiety**

Term	Definition
Interaction Anxiety	Feeling uneasy or self-conscious during social interactions due to fear of making mistakes or being judged.
Audience Anxiety	Nervousness or apprehension when speaking or presenting in front of others, often leading to physical symptoms and performance issues.
Confidence Anxiety	Persistent lack of self-assurance resulting in insecurity, self-doubt and avoidance of challenges.
Language Proficiency Anxiety	Stress and unease when using a non-native language, especially due to perceived limitations in language skills.
Negative Evaluation Anxiety	Fear of criticism or rejection from others, leading to avoidance of situations where evaluation or feedback is possible.
Test Anxiety	Psychological distress before or during assessments, impairing performance through symptoms like difficulty concentrating and memory recall issues.

To enhance the contextual relevance and measurement precision, the scale was adapted to reflect the sociocultural and educational norms of Chinese learners, including classroom dynamics and teacher-student interactions. Cultural adaptation involved not only translation but also the modification of item phrasing to improve clarity and applicability in Chinese EFL classrooms. Additionally, to further enrich the measurement, selected items were referenced and adapted from Aydin (2008, 2013), ensuring that the scale captured both general and context-specific aspects of speaking anxiety. The operational definitions of the six types of anxiety were presented in Table 3-2.

**Table 3-3:
Operational Definitions of Motivation**

Term	Definition
Intrinsic Motivation	Deriving enjoyment and interest from activities related to English language learning, such as discussions, learning new topics, sharing knowledge and reading texts or magazines in English.
Amotivation	lack of interest, understanding, or perceived usefulness towards learning English, despite recognition of its potential benefits for future utility, social interactions and personal development.
External Motivation - Career	The belief that proficiency in English will provide career-related advantages such as job opportunities, professional advancement, university admission and meeting workplace demands.
External Motivation - Social	Desire to demonstrate proficiency in English to family, peers, or others, seeking recognition, validation, or praise for language skills and aiming to improve cross-cultural communication abilities through language learning.

The classification of learning motivation in this study was primarily based on Aydın et al.'s (2014) Academic Motivation Scale for Learning Biology, which categorized motivation into four distinct types. This scale was chosen because of its clear structure, empirical validation, and its suitability for measuring intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in academic settings. Compared with other motivation scales, it offers a balanced assessment of multiple motivational dimensions, making it appropriate for Chinese undergraduate students in higher education.

To ensure cultural relevance and improve measurement accuracy, the items were adapted to align with the educational context and learning experiences of Chinese students, including references to classroom norms and student engagement patterns. Additionally, selected items were enriched and adapted from Schreglmann (2018), Lim (2012), and Selvarajah et al. (2010) to better capture context-specific aspects of academic motivation. The operational definitions of the four types of motivation were provided in Table 3-3.

The classification of learning attitude in this study was primarily based on Abidin et al.'s (2012) EFL Students' Attitudes towards Learning English Language scale, which categorizes attitudes into three distinct types. This scale was selected due to its empirical validation and its specific focus on EFL learners, making it highly relevant for measuring attitudes among Chinese undergraduate students. Compared with alternative attitude scales, it effectively captures both affective and cognitive aspects of language learning, aligning with the study's objectives. Moreover, the clear dimensional structure of the scale facilitates precise operationalization of learning attitudes and supports systematic analysis of attitudinal differences among learners. As a result, the scale provides a robust foundation for examining students' attitudinal tendencies within the present research context.

To enhance cultural relevance and contextual accuracy, the items were adapted to reflect the experiences and classroom norms of Chinese students learning English. Operational definitions of the three types of attitudes were provided in Table 3-4 ensuring clarity in measurement and consistency with the overall research framework.

**Table 3-4:
Operational Definitions of Learning Attitudes**

Term	Definition
Affective Attitude	Feelings of pride, excitement, enjoyment, confidence, curiosity, interest and varying levels of liking or disliking towards studying and using English in different contexts.
Behavioral Attitude	Feeling comfortable speaking English, valuing its role in relationships, practicing with proficient speakers, gaining confidence, completing homework promptly, seeking help when needed and showing enthusiasm and attentiveness during lessons.
Cognitive Attitude	Beliefs and attitudes about studying English, including its importance for education, knowledge enhancement, communication, real-life application, language learning ease, satisfaction with performance and recognition of interdisciplinary content.

3.3.2 Step 2: Reference and Adapt Survey Questionnaire

To better fit the language background and cultural context of the research subjects, this study made appropriate adjustments to some items in the original questionnaire. These adjustments were intended to improve the clarity and grammatical naturalness of language expression and make the items easier for subjects to understand. As Hanifa et al. (2024) pointed out, the cultural and linguistic adaptability of teaching questionnaire content in the target group is the key to improving effectiveness and participation. In addition, Nguyen and Habók (2022) emphasized that language questionnaires implemented in different educational contexts need to be adjusted in language to ensure the effectiveness and reliability of scale measurement. At the same time, Dauzón-Ledesma and Izquierdo (2023) also supported the consideration of semantic accuracy and contextual adaptability in the translation or revision of scales through localization verification of the questionnaire for Mexican EFL students in their study. In summary, based on the guidance of the above literature, this study made necessary language adjustments while keeping the original questionnaire structure and measurement purpose unchanged to ensure that respondents can accurately understand the content of the items and answer them truthfully.

Speaking strategies were adapted from seminal works by Benattabou (2020), Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009), Metcalfe and Noom-Ura (2013), Nakatani (2006) and Sun et al. (2016). Some of the adapted strategies were as follows:

Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking: Most of the items in this category were left unchanged, with only minor adjustments for grammatical consistency. For example, the statement "I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech" was slightly reworded to

improve flow, becoming "I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech, while I am speaking."

Accuracy-Oriented Strategies: A few items in this category underwent modifications. For instance, "I pay attention to grammar and word order during conversation" was separated into two distinct statements for clarity: one addressed grammar and the other addressed word order.

Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies: The items here largely retained their original form, with minor adaptations, such as simplifying "I reduce the message and use simple expressions" to a more concise "I reduce the message."

Non-Verbal Strategies while Speaking: Some slight changes were made to enhance specificity of non-verbal cues. For example, the item "I use gestures and facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself" was divided into two statements, one focusing on gestures and the other on facial expressions, for greater precision.

Attempt to Think in English: Items in this category were kept largely unchanged, with minor adaptations for consistency and clarity in wording, such as "I think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way."

These changes were made to ensure the questionnaire more accurately reflected the speaking strategies being studied while maintaining the integrity of the original concepts. For detailed comparisons, refer to the tables in the Appendices.

The Speaking Anxiety Questionnaire was adapted from Horwitz et al. (1986) and other relevant sources, including Aydin (2008) and Aydin (2013), to assess various anxiety factors specific to speaking English in an EFL context. The original items, which were primarily designed to measure language anxiety in general, were modified to focus on the specific challenges of speaking English in the classroom. These adaptations ensured that the questionnaire aligns with the participants' context of English language learning while maintaining the core dimensions of anxiety as identified in prior research. Some of the adapted items are as follows:

For the Interaction Anxiety dimension, the items measuring general anxiety about speaking in a foreign language were adjusted to specifically address the anxiety students felt when speaking English. For example, the item "I tremble when I know that I'm going to be

called on in language class" was modified to "I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on to speak in English class." Similar changes were made throughout this category to reflect the unique challenges faced by learners in the context of speaking English, such as the nervousness about volunteering answers or the increased self-consciousness when speaking in front of peers.

In the Audience Anxiety dimension, items that focused on the fear of being judged or laughed at for speaking in a foreign language were adapted to focus on the social anxiety associated with speaking English. For instance, "I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language" became "I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English." Other adjustments included reframing items about speaking with native speakers or not understanding the teacher's words, shifting the focus to English language proficiency rather than language learning in general.

The Confidence Anxiety and Language Proficiency Anxiety dimensions were also adapted to reflect the particular concerns of EFL learners. Items like "I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class" were rephrased to "I do not feel sure of myself when I am speaking in English class." Similarly, language proficiency concerns, such as making mistakes or not understanding the teacher, were specifically linked to English. The Negative Evaluation Anxiety category, which measures the fear of making mistakes and being criticized, also saw similar adjustments, ensuring the items accurately reflected the experiences of EFL learners in an English classroom.

Finally, the Test Anxiety dimension was adapted to reflect oral English tests rather than general language tests. Items such as "I am usually at ease during tests in my language class" were modified to "I am nervous during my oral English test," thereby capturing the specific anxieties related to speaking English in test situations. Other items in this category focused on the fear of failing or the increased anxiety during oral English tests, highlighting the unique stressors associated with oral assessments in an EFL context.

In this study, the motivation questionnaire was adapted primarily from Aydın et al. (2014), with additional items drawn from Schreglmann (2018), Lim (2012) and Selvarajah et al. (2010). The questionnaire was modified to reflect English language learning rather than biology or other unrelated domains, while also ensuring the phrasing was suitable for the target population of university students. The questionnaire was structured around four

categories of motivation: Intrinsic Motivation, Amotivation, Extrinsic Motivation (Career-Oriented) and Extrinsic Motivation (Social-Oriented).

Items under intrinsic motivation were adapted to highlight students' enjoyment and genuine interest in English learning. The original statements, which referenced biology, were systematically modified to refer to English courses and activities. For example, "I enjoy learning biology subjects" became "I enjoy learning English courses," and "I enjoy making discussion on biology subjects" was adapted to "I enjoy making discussion in English." These changes preserved the original meaning but shifted the focus to English language learning, maintaining the emphasis on personal satisfaction, curiosity and internal desire to learn.

Amotivation items originally reflected a lack of purpose or value perceived in learning biology or technology. These items were reworded to convey the opposite sentiment toward English learning, emphasizing awareness of its importance and benefits. Negative statements such as "I don't see any reason for learning biology" were positively reframed as "I see many reasons for learning English." This transformation not only contextualized the items but also supported a more affirming tone for evaluating motivation in a language learning context. Furthermore, items relating to the impact on social life or personal identity were changed accordingly, such as "I keep away from it since it has a negative effect on social life" being adapted to "I like learning English since it has a positive effect on social life."

Career-related extrinsic motivation items were tailored to reflect the relevance of English proficiency to students' future academic and professional aspirations. For instance, "To get a good job in the field of biology" became "I think learning English will give me a job advantage." Similarly, items were adjusted to reflect the belief that English proficiency contributes to success in both higher education and the job market. One adapted item based on Lim (2012), "I believe that knowing English will meet the demand of the workplace," highlighted the practical utility of English for future employment opportunities.

This category addressed the social drivers of English learning, such as the desire for approval from family, peers and society. Adaptations here retained the underlying motivational constructs but shifted their focus from biology to English. For example, "To show my family that I'm successful in biology" was revised to "I want to show my family

that I'm successful in English.” Another adapted item from Selvarajah et al. (2010), “I want to improve my ability to work with other cultures by learning English,” reflects a broader social motivation, acknowledged the role of English in intercultural competence.

In this study, the attitude questionnaire was adapted from Abidin et al. (2012), with modifications made to some of the items to better suit the context of the study and the respondents. The adaptations were categorized into three domains: cognitive, behavioural and affective (emotional) attitudes.

The items in the cognitive domain focused on students' beliefs and evaluations about studying English and its perceived value. A few items were adapted to reflect a more personalized perspective, changing statements from a general belief to one that reflects the individual's viewpoint. For example, the original item "Studying English is important because it will make me more educated" was modified to "I think studying English is important because it will make me more educated." Similarly, some items were simplified for clarity, such as "Studying English helps me getting new information in which I can link to my previous knowledge," which was changed to "I get new information by studying English that I can link to my previous knowledge." Additionally, the item "I cannot summarize the important points in the English subject content by myself" was reversed to "I can summarize the important points in the English subject content by myself" to better align with positive cognitive evaluations of learning English.

The behavioural domain captured students' actions or tendencies related to learning English. A number of items were kept unchanged, such as "I like to give opinions during English lessons" and "I like to practice English the way native speakers do." However, some items were adapted to reflect positive engagement and behaviours. For instance, the item "I put off my English homework as much as possible" was changed to "I finish my English homework as early as possible" to better represent proactive learning behaviours. Similarly, "I do not feel enthusiastic to come to class when English is being taught" was changed to "I feel enthusiastic to come to class when English is being taught." The statement "I feel embarrassed to speak English in front of other students" was also modified to "I feel comfortable to speak English in front of other students," encouraging a more positive behavioral response to speaking English.

Affective domain assessed students' emotional responses and feelings towards learning English. Most of the items in this section remained unchanged, such as "I feel proud when studying English language" and "I enjoy doing activities in English." However, some adaptations were made to reflect more positive emotional experiences. For instance, the item "I don't get anxious when I have to answer a question in my English class" was adapted to "I feel relaxed when I have to answer a question in my English class," fostering a more positive emotional attitude towards language use. Also, the original item "To be honest, I really have little interest in my English class" was adapted to "I have little interest in my English class," shifting the expression to reflect a more neutral, rather than negative, emotional response.

In summary, the adaptations made to the original questionnaire focused on ensuring that the items better reflected the personal attitudes of students while emphasizing positive cognitive, behavioural and emotional responses towards learning English. These adaptations aimed to enhance the relevance of the questions to the target population and to provide clearer and more direct reflection of students' learning attitudes. The full list of the original and adapted items is provided in the Appendices.

3.3.3 Step 3: Invite Experts to Review the Questionnaire

The involvement of subject-matter experts in the evaluation of research instruments constituted a critical phase in the questionnaire development process. Their domain-specific expertise and contextual understanding played an essential role in enhancing the content validity, cultural relevance and methodological rigor of the instrument (Lim, 2024; Villarino, 2024). Expert appraisal contributed to the overall reliability and ethical soundness of the research by identifying and addressing potential sources of bias, ambiguity, or misinterpretation in questionnaire items. This process ensured conceptual coherence, cultural appropriateness, and high-quality data collection from the target population (Bhandari & Hallowell, 2021).

To ensure the appropriateness and content validity of the adapted instruments for Chinese NEMU students, a comprehensive expert validation process was conducted. Given that the original instruments were developed in English, but the participants of this study were Chinese university students, the questionnaire was provided in both English and Chinese to facilitate comprehension and promote accurate responses.

The translation of the questionnaire was first completed by the researcher and subsequently reviewed by two university professors. They examined the translated items for clarity, linguistic accuracy, cultural relevance, and conceptual consistency with the original constructs. Based on their professional feedback, minor wording adjustments were made to enhance precision and contextual suitability for Chinese learners. The revised items after expert review are presented as follows:

**Table 3-5:
Questionnaire Adjustment**

Variables	Original	Adjusted
Speaking Strategy	I try to enjoy the conversation. 我试着享受这次谈话。	I try to enjoy the conversation. 我试着享受这次对话。
	I do not mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes. 我不介意冒险，即使我可能会犯错。	I do not mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes. 我不介意大胆开口，即使我可能会犯错。
	I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech, while I am speaking. 当我说话时，我会注意听众对我说话的反应。	I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech, while I am speaking. 当我讲话时，我会注意听众的反应。
	I encourage others to correct errors in my speaking. 我鼓励其他人纠正我说话中的错误。	I encourage others to correct errors in my speaking. 我鼓励其他人纠正我口语中的错误。
	I pay attention to grammar during conversation. 聊天时，我会注意语法。	I pay attention to grammar during conversation. 我在对话中注意语法。
	I reduce the message. 我减少了信息。	I reduce the message. 我减少了句子里的信息。
	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent. 我替换了原始消息，因为我觉得无法实现我的初衷。	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent. 我用新句子替换了最初的句子，因为我觉得最初的句子无法表达我原本的意图。
	I describe the characteristics of the object instead of using the exact word when I am not sure. 当我不确定时，我描述对象的特征，而不是使用确切的单词。	I describe the characteristics of the object instead of using the exact word when I am not sure. 如果我不确定使用哪个单词，我会描述主体的特征，而不是使用确切的单词。
I think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way. 我会模仿以英语为母语的人的表达习惯，并进行练习。	I think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way. 我会模仿英语母语人士的表达习惯，并进行练习。	
Speaking Anxiety	I look for a different way to express the idea, like using a synonym. 我寻找一种不同的方式来表达这个想法，比如使用同义词。	I look for a different way to express the idea, like using a synonym. 我寻找一种不同的方式来表达自己的想法，比如使用同义词。
	I make up new words or guess if I don't know the right ones to use. 当我不知道该用什么词时，我会编造新词。	I make up new words or guess if I don't know the right ones to use. 当我不知道该用什么词时，我会编造新词或猜词。

Table 3-5
continued

	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on to speak in English class. 当我知道我将被要求在英语课上发言时，我会颤抖。	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on to speak in English class. 当我知道我要在英语课上发言时，我会紧张地颤抖。
	I panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class. 当我在英语课上不得不在没有准备的情况下说话时，我惊慌失措。	I panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class. 当我需要在没有准备的情况下在英语课上发言时，我会惊慌失措。
	I am embarrassed to volunteer answers orally in my English class. 在英语课上自愿口头回答，我感到很尴尬。	I am embarrassed to volunteer answers orally in my English class. 在英语课上自愿口头回答问题，让我觉得很尴尬。
	I am afraid when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English. 当我听不懂老师用英语说的话时，我很害怕。	I am afraid when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English. 当我听不懂老师讲的英语时，我很害怕。
	I am nervous in my English class than in my other classes. 比起其他课程，英语课让我更紧张。	I am nervous in my English class than in my other classes. 我上英语课比上其他课紧张。
	I am nervous when I am speaking in my English class. 当我在英语课上说话时，我很紧张。	I am nervous when I am speaking in my English class. 当我在英语课上讲英语时，我很紧张。
	I am confused when I am speaking in my English class. 当我在英语课上说话时，我很困惑。	I am confused when I am speaking in my English class. 当我在英语课上讲英语时，我很困惑。
	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make. 我害怕英语老师即将纠正我犯的每一个错误。	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make. 我害怕英语老师会纠正我犯的每一个错误。
	I fear making mistakes when I speak. 当我讲英语时，我害怕犯错。	I fear making mistakes when I speak. 我害怕讲英语时犯错。
	I worry a great deal with my performance after an oral English tests. 我很担心有英语口语考试后的表现。	I worry a great deal with my performance after an oral English tests. 英语口语测试后，我非常担心我的成绩。
Learning Attitude	I think studying English is important because it will make me more educated. 我认为学习英语很重要，因为它会让我受过更多的教育。	I think studying English is important because it will make me more educated. 我认为学习英语很重要，因为它会让我更有学识。
	I get new information by study English in which I can link to my previous knowledge. 我通过学习英语获得新信息，我可以在其中联系到我以前的知识。	I get new information by study English in which I can link to my previous knowledge. 我通过学习英语获得新信息，我也可以把这些新信息和我以前学过的知识关联到一起。
	I think English language is easy to learn. 我认为英语很容易学。	I think English language is easy to learn. 我认为学习英语很容易。
	I improve my personality by learning English. 我通过学习英语来提高我的个性。	I improve my personality by learning English. 我通过学习英语来改善我的性格。

Table 3-5
continued

	I feel relaxed whenever I have to speak in my English class. 每当我在英语课上说话时，我都会感到放松。	I feel relaxed whenever I have to speak in my English class. 每当我在英语课上发言时，我都会感到放松。
	I feel comfortable to speak English in front of other students. 我觉得在其他学生面前说英语很舒服。	I feel comfortable to speak English in front of other students. 我觉得在其他学生面前说英语很自在。
	I feel enjoyable to study English. 我觉得学习英语很愉快。	I feel enjoyable to when studying English. 我觉得学习英语很愉快。
	I have good emotions when study English. 学习英语时，我的情绪良好。	I have good emotions when studying English. 学习英语时，我的情绪良好。
	I prefer studying in my mother tongue rather than English. 我更喜欢用我的母语而不是英语来学习。	I prefer to study in English rather than Mandarin. 我更喜欢用英语而不是中文来学习。
	I wish I could speak English fluently. 我希望我能说流利的英语。	I wish I could speak English fluently. 我希望我能流利地讲英语。
Learning Motivation	I enjoy reading magazines in English. 我喜欢用英文阅读杂志。	I enjoy reading magazines in English. 我喜欢阅读英语杂志。
	I enjoy reading texts in English. 我喜欢读英语课文。	I enjoy reading texts in English. 我喜欢阅读英语文本
	I think English will be useful for me in the future. 我认为英语会对我的未来有帮助。	I think English will be useful for me in the future. 我认为将来英语会对我有用。
	I know why I should learn English.我知道为什么学英语。	I know why I should learn English. 我知道为什么学英语。
	I like participating the activities in English. 我喜欢用英语参加活动。	I like participating the activities in English. 我喜欢参加英语活动。
	I chose profession related to English for my future. 我会选择选着与英语相关的职业。	I chose profession related to English for my future. 未来,我会选择与英语相关的职业。
	I think understand English will benefit me in my career. 我认为懂英语会对我的职业生涯有好处。	I think understand English will benefit me in my career. 我认为懂英语会对我的职业生涯有帮助。
	I believe that knowing English will meet the demand of the workplace. 我认为学习英语能够满足满足工作的要求。	I believe that knowing English will meet the demand of the workplace. 我认为懂英语能满足职场需求。
	I want to be praised by the people around me that my English is good. 我想获得大家对我英语的赞扬。	I want to be praised by the people around me that my English is good. 我想让大家都夸我的英语好。
	I want to improve my ability to work with other cultures by learning English.我想通过学习英语来提高我与其他文化合作的能力。	I want to improve my ability to work with other cultures by learning English. 我想通过学习英语来提高我与其他文化背景的人合作的能力。

After expert review, the final survey questionnaire was established. This questionnaire has been carefully revised and adjusted to ensure its content is accurate, clear and can comprehensively capture the topics of interest in the research. The review and suggestions of experts provided valuable guidance for the final version of the questionnaire, making it of higher quality and credibility.

Following the expert review, several questionnaire items were identified as having considerable overlap in content. Consequently, the researcher deleted or merged certain items to improve clarity and avoid redundancy. For example, in the oral communication strategies dimension, Item 5 (“I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say”) and Item 6 (“I do not mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes”) reflected similar behavioral tendencies; therefore, Item 6 was removed. Likewise, Item 7 (“I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation”) overlapped with Item 8 (“I pay attention to my pronunciation”), both focusing on aspects of pronunciation, leading to the deletion of Item 7. Similarly, Item 27 (“I replace the original message with another message because I feel incapable of executing my original intent”) was conceptually similar to Item 28 (“I change my sentence when I feel I cannot get the message across with the first/previous sentence I produced”), resulting in the removal of Item 28. Other items with overlapping meanings were also eliminated. Through this refinement process, the questionnaire was reduced from 45 items to 37 items, thereby enhancing the instrument’s structural validity and overall clarity.

In the dimension of speaking anxiety, several overlapping or redundant items were also removed. For example, Item 1 (“I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on to speak in English class”), Item 5 (“I am more nervous in my English class than in my other classes”), and Item 9 (“I am nervous when I am on my way to English class”) all described similar anticipatory anxiety toward English lessons. Therefore, Items 5 and 9 were deleted, with Item 1 retained as the representative item. Similarly, Item 11 (“I do not feel sure of myself when I am speaking in English class”) and Item 12 (“I do not feel confident when I speak in English class”) conveyed nearly identical meanings, leading to the deletion of Item 11. Other items with comparable statements were also removed. Through this refinement process, the speaking anxiety scale was reduced from 30 items to 24 items, thereby improving the internal consistency and reducing redundancy within the construct.

In the Learning Motivation dimension, several redundant items were also removed to eliminate repetition and enhance the clarity of the construct. For instance, Item 4 (“I enjoy reading magazines in English”) and Item 5 (“I enjoy reading texts in English”) reflected highly similar enjoyment-based reading motivations; therefore, Item 4 was deleted. Likewise, Item 7 (“I think English will be useful for me in the future”) and Item 9 (“I understand how useful the English I learn will be”) both assessed learners’ perceptions of the future utility of English, leading to the deletion of Item 7. In addition, Item 14 (“I think understanding English will benefit my career”) and Item 15 (“I think learning English will give me a job advantage”) conveyed comparable career-related motivations, resulting in the removal of Item 15. Through this refinement process, the Learning Motivation scale was reduced from 20 items to 12 items, thereby improving its conciseness and construct validity.

In the Learning Attitudes dimension, several items were deleted or merged to reduce redundancy and improve clarity. For example, Item 1 (“I think studying English is important because it will make me more educated”) and Item 3 (“I have more knowledge when studying English”) were highly similar, leading to the deletion of Item 3. Similarly, Item 35 (“I feel relaxed when I have to answer a question in my English class”) and Item 38 (“I have good emotions when studying English”) both reflected positive emotional experiences, resulting in the removal of Item 38. Additionally, Items 29 (“If I miss a class, I ask my friends for the homework on what has been taught”) and 30 (“If I miss a class, I ask teachers for the homework on what has been taught”) were merged into a single item: “If I miss a class, I ask my friends or teachers for the homework on what has been taught.” Through this refinement process, the Learning Attitude scale was reduced from 49 items to 30 items, thereby enhancing the instrument’s conciseness and construct validity.

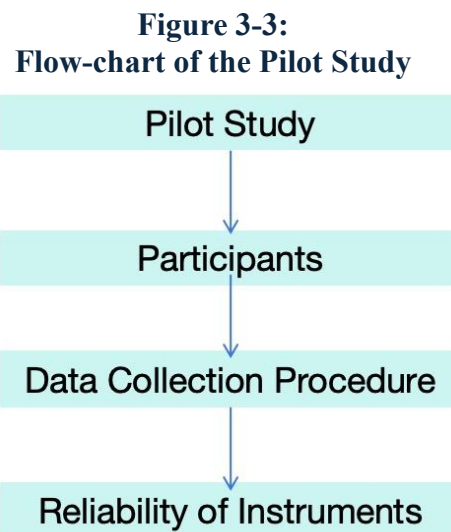
In summary, the questionnaire underwent a thorough refinement process across all dimensions to reduce redundancy and improve clarity. Items with overlapping content were carefully reviewed by the researchers and either deleted or merged, ensuring that each retained item meaningfully contributed to the measurement of the intended construct.

**Table 3-6:
Summary the Number of Questionnaire**

Variables	Sub-Dimension	Number	Total
Speaking Strategies	SSSAS	5	37
	SSFOS	5	
	SSNMS	4	
	SSAOS	5	
	SSMRAS	5	
	SSNSS	5	
	SSMAS	4	
	SSATE	4	
	SAIA	4	
	SAAA	4	
Speaking Anxiety	SACA	4	24
	SALPA	4	
	SANEV	4	
	SATA	4	
	LMI	3	
	LMA	3	
Learning Motivation	LMEMC	3	12
	LMEMS	3	
	LAC	10	
	LAB	10	
Learning Attitudes	LAA	10	30

3.3.4 Step 4: Pilot Study to Calculate Reliability

In Phase 4, a pilot study was conducted among 60 freshmen and sophomores. The procedure for this pilot study is presented in Figure 3-3:



3.3.5 Pilot Study

The purpose of the pilot study was to adjust and validate a survey questionnaire on EFL speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes among NEMU students. The pilot testing was conducted to identify and address potential issues and to evaluate the feasibility of the research design before the formal study commenced. In addition, the pilot study helped assess the effectiveness and reliability of research tools, estimate time and resources and enhance confidence in research plans (Teresi et al., 2022). As an integral stage of the research process, pilot study provided essential information to support the validity and successful implementation of the main study.

3.3.6 Participants for the Pilot Study

The preliminary examination enlisted the participation of a cohort comprising 60 freshmen and sophomores, who were duly apprised of the overarching objectives of the study preceding their engagement with the questionnaire. Heightened ethical considerations underscored the imperative of ensuring participant confidentiality, thereby necessitating the adoption of anonymized survey measures. Machin et al. (2018) suggested that around 30 individuals should be recruited in the pilot test to serve as a representative sample for the actual survey. The pilot study was conducted on a separate set of participants, those who were not involved in the main study. The main study sample size was 500 undergraduates selected from six different universities in Eastern China via the judgmental sampling technique. Judgmental sampling could help researchers more easily find cases that meet the research requirements and ensures the diversity and representativeness of the research sample (Rai & Thapa, 2015).

3.3.7 Data Collection Procedure for Pilot Study

Before conducting the pilot study, the respondents were thoroughly briefed about the purpose of their participation and the precautions to be taken. The study employed a face-to-face approach, requiring each respondent to spend approximately 1 hour completing the questionnaire survey. The pilot study was carried out within a university setting. To facilitate the process, the author secured a classroom to serve as the designated location for respondents to complete the paper-based questionnaires. To ensure an organized approach, the pilot study was divided into two groups, each consisting of 30 participants.

During the survey, which focused on "learning attitudes," a notable issue arose. A total of 39 students sought clarification on whether the term "mother tongue" mentioned in the questionnaire referred to their local dialects or to Mandarin Chinese. This confusion prompted the author to provide an immediate explanation and subsequently adjust the questionnaire to eliminate ambiguity. This adjustment aimed to improve the clarity of the questions and to ensure that all respondents had a consistent understanding of the terms used. As a result, the revised questionnaire more accurately captured the students' perspectives on their learning attitudes and enhanced the overall reliability and validity of the study's findings.

3.3.8 The Instruments Reliability and Validity

Reliability refers to the ability of measuring tools to obtain consistent results in multiple repeated measurements, which is key for ensuring consistency in research results and reducing errors (Sürücü & Maslakci, 2020). In addition, ensuring the reliability of research is a key factor in improving decision effectiveness and enhancing research reproducibility (Coleman, 2022). Cronbach's Alpha is a common measurement method that improves the accuracy and credibility of research by evaluating the consistency and reliability of measurement tools. The following rule of thumb was proposed by Arof & Ismail (2018) to estimate the reliability of an instrument based on Cronbach's alpha:

**Table 3-7:
Reliability Range on Cronbach's Alpha**

Reliability Coefficient	Credibility
≥ 0.90	Excellent reliability
0.80 - 0.89	Good reliability
0.70 - 0.79	Acceptable reliability
0.60 - 0.69	Questionable reliability
0.50 - 0.59	Poor reliability
< 0.50	Unacceptable reliability

3.3.9 Results of The Pilot Study

This pilot study was designed to adapt and validate questionnaires for the primary doctoral research project. The primary goal was to ensure that the questionnaires were both reliable and valid for use in the main study. To establish the reliability of the questionnaires,

Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was employed. This statistical measure assesses the internal consistency of the items within the questionnaire, providing an indication of how well the items measure the same underlying construct. The analysis was conducted using SPSS version 27, a comprehensive statistical software package widely used in social science research. By using Cronbach’s alpha, the study aimed to identify any items that may need revision or removal to improve the overall reliability of the questionnaire, thereby ensuring that the final instrument would yield consistent and dependable results in the subsequent phases of the doctoral project.

3.3.10 Questionnaire on Speaking Strategies

Table 3-8 demonstrates the reliability results of the speaking strategy questionnaires. These questionnaires contain nine subscales, including social affective strategies, fluency-oriented strategies, negotiation for meaning while speaking, accuracy-oriented strategies, message reduction and alteration strategies, non-verbal strategies while speaking, message abandonment strategies and attempts to think in English. The number of items in each subscale ranges from 3 to 5. All subscales exhibit high reliability, with Cronbach’s alpha values of 0.87 to 0.89, respectively. Overall, the combined set of items shows good reliability, with a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.89. In summary, the speaking strategy questionnaires are highly reliable tools for measuring speaking strategies in this study.

**Table 3-8:
Reliability of Speaking Strategies**

S/N	Subscales	Items	Reliability	Interpretation
1	SSSAS	5	0.88	Good reliability
2	SSFOS	5	0.87	Good reliability
3	SSNMS	4	0.88	Good reliability
4	SSAOS	5	0.88	Good reliability
5	SSMRAS	5	0.88	Good reliability
6	SSNSS	5	0.87	Good reliability
7	SSMAS	4	0.88	Good reliability
8	SSATE	4	0.88	Good reliability
9	All items	37	0.89	Good reliability

Notes: SSSAS=Social Affective Strategies, SSFOS=Fluency-Oriented Strategies, SSNMS=Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking, SSAOS=Accuracy-Oriented Strategies, SSMRAS=Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies, SSNSS=Non-verbal Strategies while Speaking, SSMAS=Message Abandonment Strategies, SSATE=Attempt to Think in English.

3.3.11 Questionnaire on Speaking Anxiety

Table 3-9 demonstrates the reliability results of the speaking anxiety questionnaires. These questionnaires contain subscales such as interaction anxiety, audience anxiety, confidence anxiety, language proficiency anxiety, negative evaluation anxiety and test anxiety. Each dimension has 4 items. All subscales exhibit good reliability, with Cronbach's alpha values of 0.81 to 0.82. The overall reliability for all 24 items combined is excellent, with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.84. In summary, speaking anxiety questionnaires are highly reliable tools for measuring various dimensions of speaking anxiety in this study.

**Table 3-9:
Reliability of Speaking Anxiety**

S/N	Subscales	Items	Reliability	Interpretation
1	SAIA	4	0.82	Good reliability
2	SAAA	4	0.82	Good reliability
3	SACA	4	0.82	Good reliability
4	SALPA	4	0.81	Good reliability
5	SANEV	4	0.82	Good reliability
6	SATA	4	0.81	Good reliability
7	All items	24	0.84	Good reliability

Notes: SAIA= Interaction Anxiety, SAAA=Audience Anxiety, SACA=Confidence Anxiety, SALPA=Language Proficiency Anxiety, SANEV=Negative Evaluation Anxiety, SATA= Test Anxiety

3.3.12 Questionnaire on Learning Motivation

Table 3-10 demonstrates the reliability results of the learning motivation questionnaires. These questionnaires contain subscales such as intrinsic motivation, amotivation, external motivation - career and external motivation - social. Each dimension has 3 items. All subscales exhibit high reliability, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.72 to 0.76. The overall reliability for all 12 items combined is excellent, with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.80. In summary, the learning motivation questionnaires are highly reliable tools for measuring various dimensions of learning motivation in this study.

**Table 3-10:
Reliability of Learning Motivation**

S/N	Subscales	Items	Reliability	Interpretation
1	LMI	3	0.76	Acceptable reliability
2	LMA	3	0.75	Acceptable reliability
3	LMEMC	3	0.72	Acceptable reliability
4	LMEMS	3	0.75	Acceptable reliability
5	All items	12	0.80	Acceptable reliability

Notes: LMI=Intrinsic Motivation, LMA=Amotivation, LMEMC=External Motivation - Career, LMEMS=External Motivation - Social

3.3.13 Questionnaire on Learning Attitudes

Table 3-11 demonstrates the reliability results of the learning attitude questionnaires. These questionnaires assess different dimensions of learning attitudes, including cognitive, behavioural and affective (emotional).

**Table 3-11:
Reliability of Learning Attitudes**

S/N	Subscales	Items	Reliability	Interpretation
1	LAC	10	0.93	Excellent reliability
2	LAB	10	0.92	Excellent reliability
3	LAA	10	0.91	Excellent reliability
4	All items	30	0.94	Excellent reliability

Notes: LAC=Cognitive, LAB=Behavioral, LAC=Affective (Emotional)

These questionnaires contain subscales such as LAC, LAB, and LAA. Each subscale has 10 items. All subscales exhibit excellent reliability, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.91 to 0.93. The overall reliability for all 30 items combined is excellent, with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.94. In summary, the learning attitude questionnaires are highly reliable tools for measuring various dimensions of learning attitudes in this study.

3.3.14 Summary of Reliability

Cronbach's alpha is a statistical measure commonly used to measure internal consistency, typically used to evaluate the reliability of questionnaire surveys or measurement tools. Generally speaking, Cronbach's alpha exceeding 0.7 is considered an acceptable level of reliability.

**Table 3-12:
Pilot Test of Variables**

S/N	Cronbach's Alpha	Interpretation
SS	0.89	Good reliability
SA	0.84	Good reliability
LM	0.80	Acceptable reliability
LA	0.94	Excellent reliability

Notes: SS=Speaking Strategy, SA=Speaking Anxiety, LA=Learning Attitude, LM=Learning Motivation

These data indicate that there is a strong correlation between various items within the measuring tool, indicating that the measuring tool has a high degree of consistency. Based on the pilot test results shown in Table 3-12, the Cronbach's alpha of all the variables exceeds 0.7; therefore, the measurement tool of this study is considered suitable for accurately measuring the intended constructs.

3.3.15 Actual Study

Following the aforementioned procedures, the present study culminated in the development of the definitive survey instrument, detailed within Appendix 1. Comprising five distinct sections, the questionnaire was structured to elicit multifaceted insights pertaining to the participant cohort. The initial section aimed to gather demographic information, including gender, age and foundational English learning background. Subsequent sections examined nuanced aspects such as speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes toward English language acquisition.

**Table 3-13:
Survey Questionnaire Summary**

Variables	Items	Reliability	Interpretation
Demographic Information (Gender, Grade, Major, Learning English frequency, Language test)	5	-	-
Speaking Strategies	37	0.89	Good reliability
Speaking Anxiety	24	0.84	Good reliability
Learning Motivation	12	0.80	Good reliability
Learning Attitudes	30	0.94	Excellent reliability
Total	108	-	-

There were two types of questions in the survey questionnaire. Multiple-choice questions were used for questions related to the demographic information of the participants and a 5-point Likert scale was used for questions related to variables. 1 means strongly disagree, 2 means disagree, 3 means neutral, 4 means agree and 5 means strongly agree. The summary of the survey questionnaire is shown in Table 3-13.

3.4 Sample Settings for Actual Study

Reasonable sample setting is a key step in ensuring the representativeness and credibility of research results. By representing the target population, supporting statistical inference, effectively utilizing resources, reducing bias and adjusting samples according to research objectives, the accuracy and reliability of research results can be ensured (Lakens, 2022). Therefore, a reasonable sample setting is crucial for the quality and credibility of the study.

3.4.1 Sample Object for Actual Study

The research subjects of this study are freshmen and sophomores of Non-English-Majors from six universities in eastern China. The focus on eastern China was chosen due to the region's higher level of economic development, population density, and greater internationalization, which provided a more diverse and representative sample of private higher education students. Universities in eastern China often offer more opportunities for international communication and an English-speaking environment, which can impact the English proficiency and psychological state of NEM students.

The sample was selected from Qilu Institute of Technology, Weifang Institute of Technology, Anhui International Studies University, Huzhou College, Shanghai Lixin University of Accounting and Finance, and Shaoxing University. These six universities, situated across Shandong, Zhejiang, Shanghai, and Anhui, collectively reflect the geographical, economic, and cultural diversity of the eastern region. These institutions have robust academic ecosystems, attracting students from surrounding regions and beyond, and are well-placed to provide insights into the English learning and psychological characteristics of NEM students.

**Table 3-14:
Universities and Number of People Sampled**

The Name of the University	School Category	Nature of Education	Number of People Sampled
Qilu Institute of Technology	Comprehensive	Private	93
Weifang Institute of Technology	Science and Engineering	Private	67
Anhui International Studies University	Language	Private	83
Huzhou College	Comprehensive	Public	56
Shanghai Lixin University of Accounting and Finance	Finance and Economics	Public	71
Shaoxing University	Comprehensive	Public	45

Students who choose NEM are motivated by their special interest in learning English as a foreign language. Compared to English major students, NEM students may face more challenges in English learning because they usually have not received systematic English training and English may not be the main subject in their learning life (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021). Therefore, studying the English learning situation and psychological state of this group can help provide a more comprehensive understanding of the situation of English as a foreign language learner.

Choosing freshmen and sophomores was appropriate because students at this stage were in the early stages of university-level English learning, and their attitudes, motivations, anxiety, and other aspects of English learning may be more sensitive and subject to change. Furthermore, to ensure sample appropriateness, the inclusion criteria specified students who had completed at least one year of English courses, while students with no prior English learning experience or those enrolled in short-term exchange programs were excluded. Freshmen and sophomores were also adapting to university life and learning environments, making their learning and psychological states more variable. By focusing on this group, the study could better understand their English learning situation and provide targeted teaching and counseling interventions.

Additionally, demographic details such as gender, faculty, and year of study were collected to evaluate representativeness and ensure balanced sampling, although proficiency level was assumed comparable due to the standardized curriculum across these institutions. Future studies could incorporate objective proficiency assessments to further strengthen sample characterization.

3.4.2 Sample Techniques for Actual Study

The sampling technique used in this study was judgmental sampling. The reason for choosing judgmental sampling was that researchers wanted to ensure that the research sample is representative and could cover various characteristics and viewpoints of key groups in the research field. Non-English-Major freshmen and sophomores tended to have specific common experiences and issues in English learning. Through judgmental sampling, researchers could select cases with typical characteristics and experiences to better understand the commonalities and differences of this group.

In addition, due to the fact that the research subjects were freshmen and sophomores of Non-English-Majors, they may be relatively rare and unevenly distributed. Therefore, using judgmental sampling could help researchers more easily find cases that meet the research requirements and ensured the diversity and representativeness of the research sample (Rai & Thapa, 2015). Judgmental sampling could help researchers efficiently select samples within limited resources and time, avoiding waste of resources and time consumption (Lakens, 2022). By selectively selecting cases, researchers were able to collect data that aligns with their research objectives more quickly.

The limitation of this study lay in the use of judgmental (purposive) sampling, which may have restricted the generalizability of the findings. Since participants were selected based on specific inclusion criteria rather than random sampling, the results primarily reflected the characteristics of the chosen group of Non-English-Major freshmen and sophomores. Consequently, the conclusions may not have fully represented all university students in different regions or academic disciplines.

The procedure for selecting participants was described in greater detail in this study to ensure methodological transparency. Participants were chosen according to predefined inclusion criteria: they had to be full-time Non-English-Major freshmen or sophomores currently enrolled in compulsory English courses. The researchers contacted university English instructors and student advisors to identify eligible participants and distributed questionnaires through classroom sessions and online platforms. In addition, corresponding questions were included in the questionnaire to verify participants' eligibility and ensure that only qualified respondents were included in the final sample.

Overall, judgmental sampling empowers researchers to construct a sample that best serves the objectives of the study, thereby enhancing the credibility and relevance of the research outcomes (Lakens, 2022). By combining methodological rigor with practical considerations, judgmental sampling represents a valuable approach for advancing knowledge and addressing real-world challenges in research inquiry.

3.4.3 Sample Size for Actual Study

The sample size of this study was compared with Krejcie and Morgan (1970) calculation of sample size. This study chose Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table as sample size reference because it is a classic sample size calculation method widely used in various research fields. The study of Krejcie and Morgan's table is based on a comprehensive analysis of different sample sizes and error levels. Their method has been validated and applied multiple times and has a high reputation and reliability in the academic community.

In addition, this method was based on standard statistical formulas and the calculation process was relatively simple and intuitive. This enables researchers to quickly and accurately determine the appropriate sample size without the need for complex mathematical deductions or calculations. This table is applicable to various research designs and survey types, including cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies, experimental studies. Therefore, regardless of the method used in the study or the object of study, this table can be used to determine the appropriate sample size.

As one of the standards for sample size calculation in early research, Krejcie and Morgan's method has become the preferred choice for many researchers. Therefore, using this method can make research results easier to compare and contrast with other studies, enhancing the comparability and external validity of the study. Choosing Krejcie and Morgan (1970) as sample size reference can ensure that the research design maintains a certain degree of standardization and credibility, which helps to improve the methodological quality and scientific value of the study. The population of Jinan City in 2023 was 9.437 million. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) classification of population and sample, the minimum sample size that should be taken in this study was 384.

**Table 3-15:
Determining Sample Size**

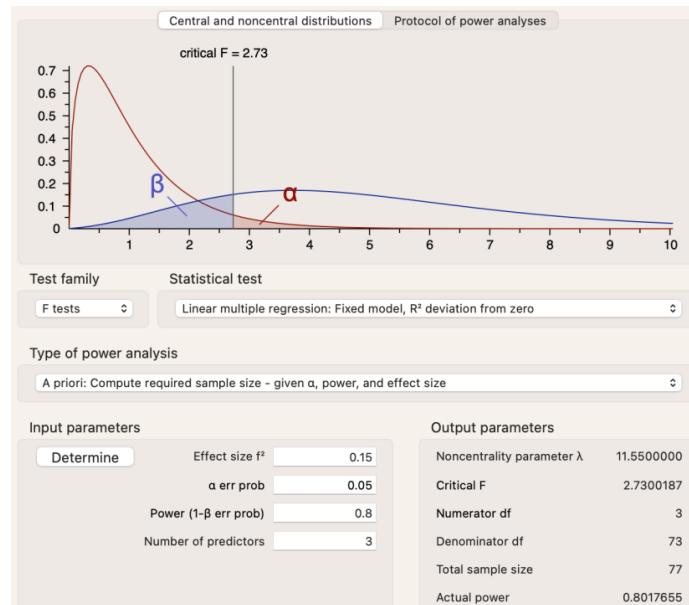
<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	100000	384

Note.—*N* is population size. *S* is sample size.

Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970

A priori power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3.1 (Faul et al., 2009) for multiple regression with four predictors. Assuming a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$), $\alpha = 0.05$, and power = 0.80, the minimum required sample size was 77. The actual sample of 406 exceeded this requirement, providing sufficient statistical power to detect medium-sized effects and enhancing the reliability and stability of the regression estimates. The large sample also supports more robust subgroup analyses and improves the generalizability of the findings within the target population of Non-English-Major freshmen and sophomores.

**Figure 3-4:
Minimum Sample Power Calculation of G*Power**



3.5 Ethical Consideration

Ethical considerations refers to the process of considering and adhering to ethical principles when conducting any research, project, or action (Brittain et al., 2020). This encompasses respect and protection of the rights, dignity and well-being of participants, affected parties and relevant social groups (Suri, 2020).

The ethical considerations of this study include ensuring that the autonomy and dignity of participants are respected and that they are not harmed or subjected to any infringement through participation in the research. In addition, the study identifies and evaluate potential risks associated with the research and adopts appropriate measures to mitigate these risks, thereby ensuring the safety and well-being of participants. Adhering to ethical principles enhances the credibility and scientific value of research, ensuring the accuracy and effectiveness of research results.

As researchers or practitioners, adhering to ethical principles is an important way to maintain social responsibility and public trust, ensuring that the contribution of research or projects to society is positive and acceptable. Many countries and organizations have established relevant laws and regulations that require researchers to adhere to ethical principles when conducting research or projects and to punish violations of regulations. Thus, this study will also comply with the relevant laws and regulations of the research

country. Ethical considerations constitute a crucial step in ensuring that research and projects are morally responsible, helping to safeguard that the rights and well-being of participants are respected and protected, while enhancing the scientific and social value of the research or project.

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Universiti Malaysia Sarawak, ensuring compliance with institutional and national ethical standards. Participants received an information sheet explaining the study purpose, procedures, expected duration, potential benefits, and minimal risks.

Informed consent was obtained electronically before participation. Participants were informed that participation was entirely voluntary, that they could withdraw at any time without penalty, and that refusal would not affect their academic standing.

To protect anonymity, no personally identifiable information was collected. Responses were stored securely on password-protected platforms accessible only to the research team. Aggregated data were used for reporting, ensuring that individual responses could not be traced. Participants were also provided with information on campus counseling services in case reflecting on anxiety-related questions caused discomfort. These procedures ensured that ethical principles of autonomy, beneficence, and confidentiality were upheld throughout the study.

3.6 Data Collection Process for Actual Study

This study adopted the form of online data collection. The use of online data collection has many advantages, including a wide range of participants and a convenient and efficient data collection process (Braun et al., 2021). The online format makes it cost-effective and data quality easy to control. In addition, the form of online data collection can also provide better protection for the privacy of participants, and it is also highly flexible (Moises Jr, 2020). This approach not only breaks through geographical limitations but also improves the efficiency and speed of data collection, providing a convenient and reliable source of data for research and projects (Braun et al., 2021).

Data collection was conducted on the *Wenjuanxing* platform. The advantage of data collection on *Wenjuanxing* lies in its simple and user-friendly interface and rich functional

options, allowing researchers to easily create, manage and customize survey questionnaires and collect and analyze data in real-time. In addition, *Wenjuanxing* provides secure and reliable data storage and transmission mechanisms, as well as high cost-effectiveness, making it widely used in various research and survey projects. The data collection process took a total of two weeks and the specific plan in Table 3-19.

**Table 3-16:
Data Collection Process**

Day	Steps
Day 1	Determine research purpose and questions; Clarify variables and indicators.
Day 2	Select and prepare tools; Create and design questionnaire; Test questionnaire.
Day 3	Modify and adjust questionnaire.
Day 4-5	Recruit participants; Develop recruitment strategy; Prepare recruitment materials.
Day 6-11	Publish questionnaire link; Supervise data collection; Backup and save data.
Day 12	Import data; Initial data cleaning; Ensure data accuracy.
Day 13	Data analysis; Choose appropriate statistical methods for analysis.
Day 14	Organize analysis results; Write research report.

3.7 Data Analysis for Actual Study

Choosing the appropriate data analysis platform and methods is crucial as they ensure the accuracy and reliability of data analysis, as well as improve analysis efficiency and speed. In addition, reasonable data analysis methods can deeply explore the potential information in the data, support decision-making and problem-solving and enhance the credibility and persuasiveness of research (Adigwe et al., 2023). At the same time, selecting appropriate tools and methods can also flexibly respond to different research needs and conditions, providing important guarantees for the smooth progress of research projects.

3.7.1 Data Analysis Software

The selection of the data analysis summaries generated by the *Wenjuanxing* survey platform and SPSS version 27 for data analysis was based on their convenience, practicality and analytical capabilities. Utilizing the *Wenjuanxing* platform's summaries provided quick insights into overall data trends and supported quality assurance, while SPSS offered robust statistical analysis tools for deeper exploration and validation of research findings. Together,

they formed a comprehensive approach to effectively analyze and interpret research data, catering to both immediate analytical needs and more sophisticated statistical requirements.

3.7.2 Descriptive Statistics Analysis for RO1

To examine the levels of speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitude among participants, this study employed a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The mean scores of each construct were used to represent the overall level of respondents' perceptions. The classification criteria for interpreting the mean values were adapted from Latif and Binti (2015), who proposed clear cutoff points for interpreting learners' affective and behavioral responses. Specifically, mean scores ranging from 1.00 to 2.49 were interpreted as indicating a low level, 2.50 to 3.49 as a moderate level, and 3.50 to 5.00 as a high level of the respective construct.

Accordingly, in the present study, these intervals were consistently applied to interpret the levels of all key variables, including speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes. This uniform classification allowed standardized interpretation across constructs and facilitated meaningful comparison of the participants' proficiency and affective engagement levels. The interpretation scheme was presented in Table 3-17, which summarizes the categorical meanings of the mean scores used to describe each variable in this research.

Table 3-17:
Level of Speaking Strategies, Speaking Anxiety, Learning Motivation, and Learning Attitudes

Level	Mean Value (Range)
Low	From 1.00 to 2.50
Moderate	From 2.51 to 3.50
High	From 3.51 to 5.00

Source: Latif (2015)

3.7.3 Pearson Correlation Analysis for RO2

This study required the use of Pearson's correlation test to investigate the relationships between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety and learning motivation. To ensure its validity, several assumptions had to be met. The measurement level assumption

required that variables be on an interval or ratio scale; in this study, Likert-scale data were treated as continuous, making them suitable for correlation analysis. Normality was verified through tests such as Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov, along with visual methods like histograms and P-P plots; if violations occurred, transformations or non-parametric alternatives like Spearman's correlation were considered. By fulfilling these assumptions, Pearson's correlation test could be appropriately applied to analyze the relationships among the key study variables.

**Table 3-18:
Meaning of Pearson Correlation Coefficient Value**

Range of r	Degree of Relationship
$-1.0 \leq r \leq -0.7$	A strong negative linear relationship
$-0.7 \leq r \leq -0.3$	A distinct negative linear relationship
$-0.3 \leq r \leq -0.1$	A weak negative linear relationship
$-0.1 \leq r \leq +0.1$	Not a linear relationship
$+0.1 \leq r \leq +0.3$	A weak positive linear relationship
$+0.3 \leq r \leq +0.7$	A distinct positive linear relationship
$+0.7 \leq r \leq +1.0$	A strong positive linear relationship

Source: Ahmed et al., 2023

This study employed the Pearson correlation coefficient to examine the relationships between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes in English learning. According to Ahmed et al. (2023), the intensity of the Pearson correlation coefficient could be categorized based on the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two continuous variables. As presented in Table 3-18, a strong negative ($-1.0 \leq r \leq -0.7$) or strong positive ($+0.7 \leq r \leq +1.0$) correlation indicated a significant association. A moderate correlation was observed when $-0.7 \leq r \leq -0.3$ or $+0.3 \leq r \leq +0.7$, whereas a weak correlation ($-0.3 \leq r \leq -0.1$ or $+0.1 \leq r \leq +0.3$) suggested a minimal association. Correlation values between -0.1 and $+0.1$ indicated no linear relationship. These classifications provided a structured approach for interpreting the strength and direction of relationships between variables in quantitative research.

3.7.4 Regression Analysis for RO3

To address RO3, which examined the predictive relationships among speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes, hierarchical

multiple regression analysis was employed. Prior to the analysis, the data were screened to ensure that key assumptions of regression were met, including normality, linearity, and multicollinearity.

Normality of the variables was assessed using graphical methods, including histograms and Q-Q plots, with minor deviations addressed through appropriate data transformations (e.g., log or square-root transformations) to improve distributional symmetry. Linearity was evaluated by inspecting scatterplots of predicted versus observed values, ensuring that the relationships between independent and dependent variables conformed to a linear pattern. Multicollinearity among predictors was examined using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance statistics, with VIF values below 5 and tolerance values above 0.2 indicating no serious multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2021).

The hierarchical regression procedure was conducted in two stages. In the first stage, learning motivation was regressed on speaking strategies and speaking anxiety to determine the predictive association of these independent variables. In the second stage, learning attitudes were regressed on learning motivation to assess its predictive role. During the analysis, standard regression indices, including R^2 and adjusted R^2 for variance explanation, ANOVA F-tests for model significance, and regression coefficients (β) with associated t-values for predictor evaluation, were monitored to ensure statistical rigor.

This methodological approach ensured that the regression models were appropriate, assumptions were satisfied, and the relationships between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning attitudes, and learning motivation were rigorously evaluated, thereby providing a robust framework for testing the proposed research objective.

3.8 Summary of Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis procedures for this study were designed to comprehensively address each research objective (RO), with consistent data collection and analytical methods applied across RO1, RO2, and RO3.

For RO1, which examines the levels of speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes among Non-English-Major undergraduates in Chinese universities, data were collected via an online questionnaire using Likert-scale

items. Descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and frequencies, were computed to summarize participants' responses and provide an overview of their experiences and perceptions regarding these constructs.

For RO2, the same questionnaire data were used to investigate the relationships between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes. Pearson correlation analysis was employed to examine the strength and direction of relationships between variables, while regression analysis was conducted to explore potential causal pathways, which provided insights into how speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, and learning motivation interact and influence students' learning attitudes in English language learning.

**Table 3-19:
Research Questions and Analysis Methods**

RQ	Data Collection Method	Data Analysis Method
RQ1: What are the levels of speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes among Non-English-Major undergraduates in Chinese universities?	An online questionnaire with Likert-scale items was used to measure speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes.	Descriptive statistics: mean, standard deviation, frequency.
RQ2: What is the relationship between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes in the context of EFL?	An online questionnaire measuring speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes was administered to the participants.	Pearson coefficient correlation analysis were used to analyze the correlation between variables.
RQ3: To what extent do speaking strategies and speaking anxiety predict learning motivation, and to what extent does learning motivation predict learning attitudes in English language learning?		Regression analysis were used to analyze the causal relationship between variables.

For RO3, which determines whether speaking strategies and speaking anxiety influence learning motivation, and whether learning motivation subsequently affects learning attitudes, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was employed. The regression procedure involved two stages: (1) regressing learning motivation on speaking strategies and speaking anxiety, and (2) regressing learning attitudes on learning motivation. Key statistical indices, including R^2 and adjusted R^2 , ANOVA F-tests, and regression coefficients (β) with associated t-values, were monitored to ensure the appropriateness and rigor of the analysis.

These data analysis procedures collectively ensured that each research objective was addressed systematically, which allowed for a robust examination of levels, relationships, and predictive associations among the key variables in the context of English language learning.

3.9 Data Preparation

Preparing the information was the first stage in data analysis. Data preparation involves editing, coding and data entry to ensure the precision and adequacy of the data (Hair Jr et al., 2019). All the questions in this study were pre-coded ahead of data collection. The use of such codes through Likert scale facilitated the data entry process.

Outliers are data that exhibit a unique mix of traits that distinguish them from what is considered normal. Outliers are responses that are out of the ordinary for a given topic or a group of questions (Hair et al., 2019; Sarstedt et al., 2021). Because outliers can negatively impact the normalcy of data and lead to erroneous results, it is critical to carefully examine outliers before using them (Hair Jr et al., 2019; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Outliers can be useful in indicating characteristics of the population that are not seen during the regular course of study. Conversely, detrimental outliers are not representative of the population, are inconsistent with the research objectives and may be very misleading in statistical analyses (Hair Jr et al., 2019). In this study, outliers were identified through multivariate detection methods across all independent and dependent variables.

The Mahalanobis D2 measure is used to identify outliers. It is a multivariate evaluation of each observation over a set of variables (Hair et al., 2019). This approach, which utilises SPSS v27, determines the distance between each observation in the multidimensional space of all observations. A larger D2 value indicated that the data should be eliminated from the observation generation distribution.

The researcher first identified the total number of study variables, which was 4 (with learning attitude being the dependent variable). Then, based on the chi-square statistical table, the researcher determined the number of outliers based on the value of degrees of freedom, which was 3 (total number of variables, which is 4-1). In contrast, according to Mishra et al. (2013), the value of p was set at 0.001, as shown in Table 3-20. Based on the chi-square statistical table, the chi-square value obtained was 16.2662. Any case with

Mahalanobis D2 of 16.2662 and above was considered a multivariate outlier. The data shows there is no outliers in the research.

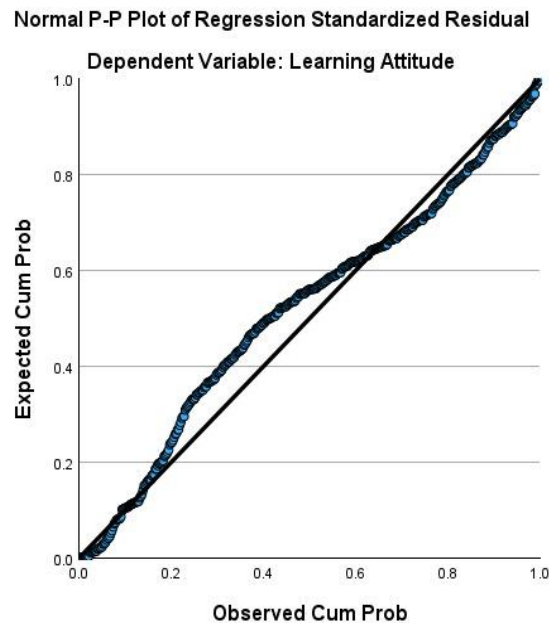
**Table 3-20:
Chi-square Statistical Table**

<i>Df</i>	<i>p-value</i>					
	0.1	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.005	0.001
1	2.7055	3.8415	5.0239	6.6349	7.8794	10.8276
2	4.6052	5.9915	7.3778	9.2103	10.5966	13.8155
3	6.2514	7.8147	9.3484	11.3449	12.8382	16.2662
4	7.7794	9.4877	11.1433	13.2767	14.8603	18.4668
5	9.2364	11.0705	12.8325	15.0863	16.7496	20.515
6	10.6446	12.5916	14.4494	16.8119	18.5476	22.4577
7	12.017	14.0671	16.0128	18.4753	20.2777	24.3219
8	13.3616	15.5073	17.5345	20.0902	21.955	26.1245
9	14.6837	16.919	19.0228	21.666	23.5893	27.8772
10	15.9872	18.307	20.4832	23.2093	25.1882	29.5883
11	17.275	19.6751	21.92	24.725	26.7568	31.2641
12	18.5493	21.0261	23.3367	26.217	28.2995	32.9095
13	19.8119	22.362	24.7356	27.6882	29.8195	34.5282
14	21.0641	23.6848	26.1189	29.1412	31.3193	36.1233
15	22.3071	24.9958	27.4884	30.5779	32.8013	37.6973
16	23.5418	26.2962	28.8454	31.9999	34.2672	39.2524
17	24.769	27.5871	30.191	33.4087	35.7185	40.7902
18	25.9894	28.8693	31.5264	34.8053	37.1564	42.3124
19	27.2036	30.1435	32.8523	36.1909	38.5823	43.8202

3.10 Normality

The researcher then examined the data's normality using data cleaned of errors. Then, the researcher conducted an assessment that involved inspecting the normality of error terms. This was done to verify that the residuals are normally distributed by using a Normal P-P plot. Figure 3-5 shows that the point is close to the diagonal line and thus, the error terms were considered normally distributed.

**Figure 3-5:
Normality of the Error Terms**



3.11 Summary

This chapter introduced the methodologies employed in ongoing research. Stemming from the study's aims to explore English speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes among Chinese undergraduate students, it began by articulating the research objectives and focal points. The research design adopted quantitative methods, particularly in survey development. Subsequent sections detailed the meticulous process of crafting research instruments. The pilot study affirmed the reliability of all research instruments. The discussion on sampling techniques explained the rationale behind the sample size selected for the main study, followed by ethical considerations, data collection procedures and the level of analysis and measurement construction.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The fourth chapter of the study is the research findings and discussions section. This chapter presents the research results of data analysis through charts, tables, or other visual methods, including descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, regression analysis, etc. In addition, this chapter provides an explanation and analysis of the research results, including consistency between findings and expectations, explanation of abnormal results and the degree to which the results answer the research questions. This chapter also includes discussions on the importance of research findings, their impact on relevant fields and possible practical applications.

4.2 Demographic Information

The survey sample comprised freshmen and sophomores enrolled in six academic institutions. A distribution of 500 survey questionnaires was administered, from which 415 responses were gathered, yielding a response rate of 83%. Table 4-1 shows the gender, grade, major, and extracurricular English learning time of the participants, providing a comprehensive overview of the demographic characteristics that contextualize the subsequent data analysis.

Among the respondents, 203 identified as male and 212 as female. The proportion of male participants was calculated at 48.92%, while the female counterpart constituted 51.08% of the total respondents. These findings suggest a marginal gender disparity in respondent demographics, with a slightly higher representation of females.

**Table 4-1:
Demographic Information**

Demographic Variables	Interpretation	N	%
Gender	Male	203	48.92
	Female	212	51.08%
Grade	Freshman year	214	51.57%
	Sophomore year	201	48.43%
Major	Humanities majors	141	33.98%
	Science and engineering	199	47.95%
	Business and Social Sciences	75	18.07%
Weekly extracurricular English learning time	Less than 1 hour per week	88	21.2%
	1-2 hours per week	139	33.49%
	3-4 hours per week	84	20.24%
	5-6 hours per week	84	20.24%
	More than 7 hours per week	20	4.82%

In the collected questionnaires, freshman students accounted for 51.57%, slightly higher than sophomore students' 48.43%. These results suggest that in this survey, the participation of freshmen was slightly higher than that of sophomores, but the difference between the two was not significant.

According to the data, there are certain differences in the professional distribution of the respondents. Students majoring in science and engineering were the largest group in the survey, accounting for 47.95% of the total respondents, followed by students majoring in humanities, accounting for 33.98% and finally students majoring in business and social sciences, accounting for 18.07%. These results indicate that in this survey, there were relatively more students in the fields of science and engineering, while there were relatively fewer students in the fields of business and social sciences.

According to data analysis, the survey on extracurricular time for learning English shows a clear trend. Most respondents spend relatively scattered time on learning English each week, but the highest proportion is between 1-2 hours per week, reaching 33.49%. In addition, the least number of respondents, only 4.82%, studied for more than 7 hours per week. These results reflect the varying levels of engagement of students in English learning and provide valuable insights into the distribution of time spent on extracurricular English learning.

4.2.1 Benchmarks for Interpreting Levels of Key Variables

The Speaking Strategy Questionnaire comprised 37 items (see Appendix 3) categorized into eight dimensions: Social Affective Strategies, Fluency-Oriented Strategies, Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking, Accuracy-Oriented Strategies, Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies, Non-Verbal Strategies while Speaking, Message Abandonment Strategies, and Attempt to Think in English. The Speaking Anxiety Questionnaire consisted of 24 items (see Appendix 4), which were grouped into six categories: Interaction Anxiety, Audience Anxiety, Confidence Anxiety, Language Proficiency Anxiety, Negative Evaluation Anxiety, and Test Anxiety.

In addition, the EFL Learning Motivation Questionnaire included 12 items (see Appendix 6) classified into four dimensions: Intrinsic Motivation, Amotivation, External Motivation – Career, and External Motivation – Social. The EFL Learning Attitude Questionnaire contained 30 items (see Appendix 5) distributed across three categories: Cognitive Attitude, Behavioral Attitude, and Affective (Emotional) Attitude. For data interpretation, the mean score classification proposed by Latif (2015) was adopted. As presented in Table 4-2, the mean scores were divided into three levels to facilitate the analysis and interpretation of respondents' overall tendencies across the measured constructs.

**Table 4-2:
Interpretation of Mean Scores for Key Variables**

Level	Mean Value (Range)
Low	1.00 to 2.50
Moderate	2.51 to 3.50
High	3.51 to 5.00

Source: Latif, 2015

4.3 Descriptive Results ROI

4.3.1 Speaking Strategies—Social Affective Strategies

Table 4-3 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU students speaking strategy in social affective strategy. Within this category, Item 1 (“I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.72$), whereas Item 3 (“I try to enjoy the conversation”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.26$). Two items were rated at a high level, indicating that students actively manage their emotions and engage in social interaction to enhance their speaking performance. Only one item fell within the moderate range, suggesting a relatively less frequent use of that specific strategy.

Table 4-3:
Social Affective Strategies

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Use fillers when I cannot think of what to say	3.72	1.28	high
2	Give a good impression to the listener	3.66	1.29	high
3	Enjoy the conversation	3.26	1.28	moderate

4.3.2 Speaking Strategies—Fluency-Oriented Strategies

Table 4-4 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU’s speaking strategy in fluency-oriented strategy.

Table 4-4:
Fluency-Oriented Strategies

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Pay attention to the conversational flow	3.75	1.21	high
2	Try to speak clearly and loudly	3.74	1.26	high
3	Take my time to express what I want to say	3.70	1.30	high
4	Pay attention to pronunciation	3.27	1.20	moderate
5	Change my way of saying things according to the context	3.27	1.25	moderate

Within this category, Item 1 (“Pay attention to the conversational flow”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.75$), whereas Items 4 and 5 (“Pay attention to pronunciation” and “Change my way of saying things according to the context”) recorded the lowest mean

scores ($M = 3.27$). Three items were rated at a high level, reflecting students' strong awareness of maintaining fluency and naturalness in English communication. Two items fell within the moderate range, suggesting that a few students applied this particular strategy less frequently.

4.3.3 Speaking Strategies—Negotiation for Meaning While Speaking Strategies

Table 4-5 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU's speaking strategy in negotiation for meaning while speaking.

**Table 4-5:
Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Give examples	3.71	1.28	high
2	Pay attention to the listener's reaction	3.69	1.31	high
3	Encourage others to correct errors	3.67	1.31	high
4	Repeat until the listener understands	3.21	1.35	moderate

Based on Table 4-5, Item 1 ("I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying") recorded the highest mean score in this category ($M = 3.71$), whereas Item 4 ("Repeat until the listener understands") recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.21$). Items 2 and 3 ("Pay attention to the listener's reaction" and "Encourage others to correct errors") recorded similar mean scores ($M = 3.67$ – 3.69). Three items in this category were rated at a high level, indicating that students actively sought clarification and made efforts to ensure mutual understanding during communication. Only one item fell within the moderate range, suggesting that some students were less likely to use certain negotiation strategies when encountering communication difficulties.

4.3.4 Speaking Strategies—Accuracy-Oriented Strategies

Table 4-6 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU’s speaking strategy in accuracy-oriented strategies.

**Table 4-6:
Accuracy-Oriented Strategies**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	level
1	Pay attention to grammar	3.68	1.27	high
2	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake	3.68	1.28	high
3	Pay attention to word order	3.66	1.33	high
4	Try to talk like a native speaker	3.43	1.3	moderate
5	Notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned	3.29	1.35	moderate

According to Table 4-6, Items 1 (“Pay attention to grammar”) and 2 (“I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake”) recorded the highest mean scores in this category ($M = 3.68$), whereas Item 5 (“Notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.29$). Three items in the accuracy-oriented strategies category were rated at a high level, indicating that students paid close attention to grammatical correctness when speaking English. Two items fell within the moderate range, suggesting that some students were less consistent in maintaining linguistic accuracy during communication.

4.3.5 Speaking Strategies—Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies

Table 4-7 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU’s speaking strategy in message reduction and alteration strategies. Within this category, item 1 (“Replace the original message with another message”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.72$), whereas Item 5 (“Reduce the message”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.21$). Three items in this category were rated at a high level, indicating that students frequently simplified or adjusted their messages to enhance clarity and fluency. However, two items fell within the moderate range, suggesting that some students were less likely to alter their intended messages when encountering communication difficulties.

**Table 4-7:
Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	level
1	Replace the original message with another message	3.72	1.3	high
2	Use words which are familiar	3.71	1.29	high
3	Use simple expressions	3.65	1.29	high
4	I describe the characteristics of the object when I am not sure	3.39	1.12	moderate
5	Reduce the message	3.21	1.14	moderate

4.3.6 Speaking Strategies——Non-Verbal Strategies

Table 4-8 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU’s speaking strategy in non-verbal strategies.

**Table 4-8:
Non-Verbal Strategies**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Make eye contact	3.74	1.26	high
2	Show what I’m saying with videos	3.71	1.28	high
3	Use gestures	3.68	1.34	high
4	Use facial expressions	3.36	1.14	moderate
5	Show what I’m saying with pictures	3.29	1.04	moderate

Within this category, Item 1 (“Make eye contact”) recorded the highest mean score (M = 3.74), whereas Item 5 (“Show what I’m saying with pictures”) recorded the lowest mean score (M = 3.29). Three items in this category were rated at a high level, indicating that students frequently used gestures, facial expressions, and body language to support communication. However, two items fell within the moderate range, suggesting that some students relied less on non-verbal cues in certain speaking situations.

4.3.7 Speaking Strategies——Message Abandonment Strategies

Table 4-9 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU students’ speaking strategy in message abandonment strategies. Within this category, Items 1 (“Leave a message unfinished”) and 2 (“I give up when I can’t make myself understood”) recorded the highest mean score (M = 3.72). In contrast, Item 4 (“Ask other people to help”) recorded the lowest

mean score ($M = 3.34$). Three items in this category were rated at a high level, indicating that students often employed these strategies when encountering speaking difficulties. However, one item fell within the moderate range, suggesting that although students generally relied on message abandonment strategies, they were less likely to use them in certain situations.

**Table 4-9:
Message Abandonment Strategies**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Leave a message unfinished	3.72	1.27	high
2	Give up	3.72	1.24	high
3	Remain quiet to avoid embarrassing myself	3.70	1.28	high
4	Ask other people to help	3.34	1.22	moderate

4.3.8 Speaking Strategies—Attempt to Think in English Strategies

Table 4-10 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU students' speaking strategy in attempt to think in English.

**Table 4-10:
Attempt to Think in English**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.	3.74	1.26	high
2	I think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way.	3.67	1.26	high
3	I look for a different way to express the idea, like using a synonym.	3.65	1.32	high
4	I think of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.	3.35	1.22	moderate

Within this category, Item 1 (“I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.74$), whereas Item 4 (“I think of what I want to say in my native language”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.35$). Three items in this category were rated at a high level, indicating that students frequently employed message reduction and alteration strategies to facilitate communication in English. However, one item fell within the moderate range, suggesting

that some learners still relied on their native language or avoided unfamiliar vocabulary when encountering linguistic challenges.

4.3.9 Summary of Speaking Strategies

Table 4-11 summarizes various speaking strategies based on their mean scores and standard deviations. Among the eight speaking strategies used by NEMU students in China, message abandonment strategies recorded the highest mean score (M=3.62) in this category. However, negotiation for meaning while speaking (M=3.54) recorded the lowest response. All items across all eight speaking strategy categories indicated a high level of strategy use among NEMU students, reflecting their active efforts to enhance English-speaking performance.

**Table 4-11:
Summary of Speaking Strategies**

Speaking Strategies	Mean	Std. Deviation	level
Message Abandonment Strategies	3.62	1.05	high
Attempt to Think in English	3.61	1.03	high
Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies	3.57	0.98	high
Non-Verbal Strategies while Speaking	3.56	0.96	high
Social Affective Strategies	3.55	1.07	high
Fluency-Oriented Strategies	3.55	0.97	high
Accuracy-Oriented Strategies	3.55	1.06	high
Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking	3.54	1.05	high

4.3.10 Speaking Anxiety—Interaction Anxiety

Table 4-12 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU students' speaking anxiety in interaction anxiety. Within this category, Item 1 ("I'm embarrassed to speak in English class") recorded the highest mean score (M = 3.78), whereas Item 4 ("I'm self-conscious speaking English in front of others") recorded the lowest mean score (M = 3.26). Two items in this category reflected a high level of interaction anxiety, indicating that many students felt tense or uneasy when communicating in English. Nonetheless, two items fell within the moderate range, suggesting that some students experienced less discomfort during classroom interactions.

**Table 4-12:
Interaction Anxiety**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I'm embarrassed to volunteer answers orally in my English class.	3.78	1.22	high
2	I panic when I speak in English class.	3.72	1.21	high
3	I tremble when I speak in English class.	3.37	1.32	moderate
4	I'm self-conscious speaking English in front of others.	3.26	1.2	moderate

4.3.11 Speaking Anxiety—Audience Anxiety

Table 4-13 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU students' speaking anxiety in audience anxiety.

**Table 4-13:
Audience Anxiety**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I'm nervous speaking English with natives.	3.76	1.26	high
2	I'm afraid others will laugh at me.	3.75	1.24	high
3	I am nervous when I don't understand teacher says.	3.74	1.22	high
4	Other students are better than me.	3.41	1.34	moderate

Within this category, Item 1 (“I’m nervous speaking English with native speakers”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.76$), whereas Item 4 (“Other students are better than me”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.41$). Items 2 (“I’m afraid others will laugh at me”) and 3 (“I am nervous when I do not understand what the teacher says”) recorded similarly high mean scores ($M = 3.74$ – 3.75). Three items in the audience anxiety category reflected a high level of anxiety, indicating that students generally felt nervous or uneasy when speaking English in front of others. However, one item fell within the moderate range, suggesting that some students were gradually developing confidence when addressing an audience.

4.3.12 Speaking Anxiety—Confidence Anxiety

Table 4-14 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU students' speaking anxiety in confidence anxiety.

**Table 4-14:
Confidence Anxiety**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I do not feel confident when I speak in English class.	3.80	1.24	high
2	I feel anxious about my English class.	3.75	1.26	high
3	I don't feel comfortable around native speakers.	3.73	1.27	high
4	I worry about getting left behind.	3.18	1.11	moderate

Within this category, Item 1 (“I do not feel confident when I speak in English class”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.80$), whereas Item 4 (“I worry about getting left behind”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.18$). Items 2 (“I feel anxious about my English class”) and 3 (“I do not feel comfortable around native speakers”) recorded similarly high mean scores ($M = 3.73$ – 3.75). Three items in the confidence anxiety category reflected a high level of anxiety, indicating that many students lacked confidence when speaking English. However, one item fell within the moderate range, suggesting that some learners felt relatively more comfortable and self-assured in specific speaking situations.

4.3.13 Speaking Anxiety—Language Proficiency Anxiety

Table 4-15 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU students’ speaking anxiety in language proficiency anxiety. Within this category, Item 1 (“I am confused when I am speaking in my English class”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.76$), whereas Item 4 (“I worry about making mistakes and repeat until the listener understands”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.26$). Two items in language proficiency anxiety category reflected a high level of anxiety, indicating that many students generally experienced considerable anxiety when interacting in English. Two items fell within the moderate range, suggesting that some learners felt slightly more at ease during classroom communication.

**Table 4-15:
Language Proficiency Anxiety**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I am confused when I am speaking in my English class.	3.76	1.2	high
2	I am afraid when I don't understand what the teacher is saying.	3.75	1.21	high
3	I forget things I know when I am in the English class.	3.35	1.33	moderate
4	I worry about making mistakes.	3.26	1.2	moderate

4.3.14 Speaking Anxiety—Negative Evaluation Anxiety

Table 4-16 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU students' speaking anxiety in negative evaluation anxiety. Within this category, Item 1 ("I am upset when I do not understand what the teacher is correcting") recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.78$), whereas Item 4 ("I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make") recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.20$). Three items in the negative evaluation anxiety category were rated at a high level, indicating that students generally felt anxious about being judged or corrected when speaking English. One item fell within the moderate range, suggesting that although some learners were less affected, concern over negative evaluation remained common.

**Table 4-16:
Negative Evaluation Anxiety**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I am upset when I don't understand what teacher is correcting.	3.78	1.21	high
2	I am afraid of making mistakes and being noticed.	3.67	1.30	high
3	I fear making mistakes when I speak.	3.56	1.22	high
4	I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	3.20	1.21	moderate

4.3.15 Speaking Anxiety—Test Anxiety

Table 4-17 indicates the results of Chinese NEMU's speaking anxiety in test anxiety. Within this category, Item 1 ("I am nervous during my oral English test") recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.75$), whereas Item 3 ("I worry a great deal about my performance tests") recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.45$). Two items in the test anxiety dimension

were rated at a high level, indicating that students generally experienced strong nervousness and concern related to English-speaking tests. One item fell within the moderate range, suggesting that while some students managed their test-related emotions relatively well, the majority still experienced considerable tension during oral examinations.

**Table 4-17:
Test Anxiety**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I am nervous during my oral English test.	3.75	1.23	high
2	I worry about the consequences of failing my oral English test.	3.72	1.19	high
3	I worry a great deal with my performance tests.	3.45	1.32	moderate

4.3.16 Summary of Speaking Anxiety

Table 4.18 summarizes various speaking anxiety based on their mean scores and standard deviations. Among the six-speaking anxiety used by NEMU students in China, test anxiety (M=3.67) and audience anxiety (M=3.64) recorded the highest response. However, language proficiency anxiety (M=3.52) recorded the lowest response. The mean scores for interaction anxiety, audience anxiety, confidence anxiety and negative evaluation anxiety are relatively similar, ranging from 3.53 to 3.61. These results indicate that the majority of students experience considerable levels of anxiety when speaking English, regardless of the situational context. The consistently high scores across all dimensions suggest that speaking anxiety is a pervasive challenge among Chinese undergraduates, likely influenced by both performance-related and affective factors such as fear of evaluation, linguistic insecurity, and test pressure.

**Table 4-18:
Summary of Speaking Anxiety**

Speaking Anxiety	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
Test Anxiety	3.67	1.03	high
Audience Anxiety	3.64	1.04	high
Confidence Anxiety	3.61	1.00	high
Negative evaluation Anxiety	3.55	1.01	high
Interaction Anxiety	3.53	0.98	high
Language proficiency Anxiety	3.53	0.98	high

4.3.17 Learning Motivation—Intrinsic Motivation

Table 4. 19 showed the undergraduates' intrinsic motivation to learn English. Within this category, Item 1 ("Enjoy sharing new things") recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.75$), whereas Item 3 ("Enjoy reading texts in English") recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.20$). Two items under intrinsic motivation were rated at a high level, reflecting students' genuine interest and enjoyment in learning English through interaction and sharing. One item fell within the moderate range, suggesting that while students found learning English engaging, their intrinsic enjoyment of specific activities, such as reading English texts or course materials, was not equally strong.

**Table 4-19:
Intrinsic Motivation**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Enjoy sharing the new things.	3.75	1.27	high
2	Enjoy learning new things.	3.51	1.18	high
3	Enjoy reading texts in English.	3.2	1.12	moderate

4.3.18 Learning Motivation—Amotivation

In Table 4-20, showed the undergraduates' amotivation to learn English. Within this category, Items 1 and 2 recorded the highest mean scores ($M = 3.52$), corresponding to "I understand how useful the English I learn will be" and "I like participating in activities in English," respectively. Item 3 recorded a moderate mean score ($M = 3.43$), which is "English will be useful for me in the future." Two items in this category were rated at a high level, reflecting students' positive perceptions of the practical and enjoyable aspects of English learning. One item fell within the moderate range, suggesting that while students recognized the usefulness of English, some were less intrinsically motivated by personal growth or self-development factors.

**Table 4-20:
Undergraduates' Amotivation**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I understand how useful the English I learn will be.	3.52	1.26	high
2	I like participating the activities in English.	3.52	1.26	high
3	English will be useful for me in the future.	3.43	1.21	moderate

4.3.19 Learning Motivation—Extrinsic Motivation- Career

Table 4-21 showed the undergraduates' extrinsic motivation-career to learn English. Within this category, Item 1 (“Learning English will help me enter a better university”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.66$), whereas Item 3 (“I think learning English will give me a job advantage”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.51$). All items in the extrinsic motivation-career category were rated at a high motivational level, indicating that students generally perceived English learning as valuable for their academic and career development.

Table 4-21:
Undergraduate’s Extrinsic Motivation-career

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Learning English will help me enter a better university.	3.66	1.24	high
2	Learning English will benefit me in my career.	3.54	1.25	high
3	I think learning English will give me a job advantage.	3.51	1.23	high

4.3.20 Learning Motivation— Extrinsic Motivation-Social

Table 4-22 showed the undergraduates' extrinsic motivation-social to learn English. Within this category, Item 1 (“Show my family that I’m successful in English”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.74$), whereas Item 3 (“Improve my ability to work with other cultures”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.45$). Two items in the extrinsic motivation-social subscale were rated at a moderate level, suggesting that students were generally motivated by positive external reinforcement, such as family recognition and social approval. One item reflecting intercultural aspects of motivation received relatively lower mean scores, indicating that these dimensions were less strongly emphasized among the respondents.

Table 4-22:
Undergraduates’ Extrinsic Motivation-Social

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Show my family that I'm successful in English.	3.74	1.20	high
2	Praised by the people.	3.63	1.31	high
3	Improve my ability to work with other cultures.	3.45	1.18	moderate

4.3.21 Summary of Learning Motivation

Table 4-23 presents a summary of undergraduates' motivation to learn English. Among the four types of learning motivation reported by NEMU students in China, extrinsic motivation (social) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.61$), whereas intrinsic motivation recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.48$). These findings suggest that a considerable portion of students may experience high levels of extrinsic motivation - social and extrinsic motivation - career, whereas amotivation and intrinsic motivation exert relatively little influence on their learning behaviors.

Table 4-23:
Summary of Undergraduates' Motivation

Learning Motivation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
Extrinsic Motivation - Social	3.61	1.02	high
Extrinsic Motivation - Career	3.57	1.06	high
Amotivation	3.49	1.07	moderate
Intrinsic Motivation	3.48	1.00	moderate

4.3.22 Learning Attitudes—Cognitive Attitude

Table 4-24 showed the cognitive attitude level of EFL Non-English-Major Chinese undergraduates towards learning English language. Within this category, Item 1 (“I am able to think in English”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.78$), whereas Item 9 (“English subject covers many fields of knowledge”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.42$). Items 2 (“Studying English will make me more educated”) and 3 (“I get new information and link it to my previous knowledge”) recorded the same mean score ($M = 3.75$). Seven items in the cognitive attitude category were rated at a high level, demonstrating that students generally held positive cognitive beliefs toward English learning. Two items fell within the moderate range, suggesting that some students may still experience uncertainty or anxiety in their perceptions of learning English.

**Table 4-24:
Cognitive Attitude**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I am able to think in English language.	3.78	1.23	high
2	I have more understanding when studying English.	3.75	1.27	high
3	I can summarize the important points.	3.75	1.24	high
4	Studying English will make me more educated.	3.73	1.25	high
5	I get new information and link to my previous knowledge.	3.73	1.25	high
6	I can apply the knowledge in my real life.	3.70	1.27	high
7	I study English just to pass the exams.	3.55	1.27	high
8	I am good at English and other subjects.	3.43	1.29	moderate
9	English subject covers many fields of knowledge.	3.42	1.19	moderate

4.3.23 Learning Attitudes—Behavioural Attitude

Table 4-25 showed the behavioural attitude level of EFL Non-English-Major Chinese undergraduates towards learning English language.

**Table 4-25:
Behavioral Attitude**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I can pay attention during studying English.	3.78	1.22	high
2	I feel comfortable to speak English in front of others.	3.73	1.25	high
3	Study English helps me to have good relationships with friends.	3.70	1.27	high
4	I wish I could have many English-speaking friends.	3.70	1.23	high
5	I feel enthusiastic to come to English class.	3.70	1.26	high
6	I have more confidence in expressing myself by learning English.	3.67	1.25	high
7	I improve my personality by learning English.	3.65	1.26	high
8	I like to practice English the way native speakers do.	3.43	1.32	moderate
9	I like to practice speaking with student.	3.28	1.12	moderate

Within this category, Item 1 (“I can pay attention during studying English”) recorded the highest mean score ($M = 3.78$), whereas Item 9 (“I like to practice speaking with students”) recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.28$). Items 3 (“Studying English helps me to have good relationships with friends”), 4 (“I wish I could have many English-speaking

friends”), and 5 (“I feel enthusiastic to come to English class”) recorded the same mean score (M = 3.70). Seven items in this dimension were rated at a high level, reflecting that students generally demonstrated strong behavioural engagement in English learning. Two items fell within the moderate range, suggesting that certain behavioural aspects, such as speaking English confidently in public, may still require further encouragement.

4.3.24 Learning Attitudes—Affective Attitude

Table 4.26 showed the affective (emotional) attitude level of EFL Non-English-Major Chinese undergraduates towards learning English language.

**Table 4-26:
Affective (Emotional) Attitude**

S/N	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I feel proud when studying English language.	3.75	1.27	high
2	I feel relax when I answer the question in my class.	3.72	1.28	high
3	I like studying English.	3.73	1.23	high
4	I look forward to the time I spend in English class.	3.70	1.28	high
5	I enjoy doing activities in English.	3.69	1.35	high
6	I prefer to study in English rather than Mandarin.	3.50	1.22	moderate
7	I set knowing English as an important goal in my life.	3.24	1.07	moderate
8	I feel more confident when studying English.	3.19	1.10	moderate
9	I wish I could speak English fluently.	3.17	1.08	moderate

Within this category, Item 1 (“I feel proud when studying English”) recorded the highest mean score (M = 3.75), whereas Item 9 (“I wish I could speak English fluently”) recorded the lowest mean score (M = 3.17). Items 2 (“I feel relaxed when I answer questions in class,” M = 3.72) and 3 (“I like studying English,” M = 3.73) recorded similar mean scores. Five items in this dimension were rated at a high level, indicating that students generally held positive emotional attitudes toward English learning. Four items fell within the moderate range, suggesting that while learners were emotionally engaged, their enthusiasm and affection toward English learning varied slightly among individuals.

4.3.25 Summary of Learning Attitudes

Table 4-27 showed the summary of undergraduates' attitudes to learn English. The results indicated that students demonstrated a high level of attitude towards English learning across all three dimensions—cognitive, behavioral, and affective. The relatively high mean scores suggest that Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates generally hold positive perceptions and engagement tendencies toward learning English. Among the learning motivation used by NEMU students in China, Cognitive Attitude recorded the highest response (M=3.65). However, Affective (Emotional) Attitude (Mean=3.52) recorded the lowest response. Additionally, Behavioural Attitude recorded the mean value of 3.57.

Table 4-27:
Summary of Attitude Towards English Learning

Learning Attitude	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
Cognitive	3.65	0.99	high
Behavioral	3.63	0.97	high
Affective (Emotional)	3.52	0.93	high

4.4 Correlation Analyses for RO2

This study uses Pearson correlation coefficient to test the relationships between speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitude in the context of EFL. Ahmed et al. (2023) classified the Pearson coefficient intensity.

Table 4-28:
Meaning of Pearson Correlation Coefficient Value

Range of r	Degree of Relationship
$-1.0 \leq r \leq -0.7$	A strong negative linear relationship
$-0.7 \leq r \leq -0.3$	A distinct negative linear relationship
$-0.3 \leq r \leq -0.1$	A weak negative linear relationship
$-0.1 \leq r \leq +0.1$	Not a linear relationship
$+0.1 \leq r \leq +0.3$	A weak positive linear relationship
$+0.3 \leq r \leq +0.7$	A distinct positive linear relationship
$+0.7 \leq r \leq +1.0$	A strong positive linear relationship

Table 4-28 categorizes Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) based on the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two continuous variables. A strong negative (-1.0

$\leq r \leq -0.7$) or positive ($+0.7 \leq r \leq +1.0$) correlation indicates a significant association, while a distinct correlation ($-0.7 \leq r \leq -0.3$ or $+0.3 \leq r \leq +0.7$) reflects a moderate relationship. A weak correlation ($-0.3 \leq r \leq -0.1$ or $+0.1 \leq r \leq +0.3$) suggests minimal association, whereas values between -0.1 and $+0.1$ indicate no linear relationship.

The analysis of Pearson correlation coefficients between speaking strategy, speaking anxiety, learning attitude and learning motivation in Table 4-29 reveals statistically significant relationships among these variables within a sample of 415 respondents ($p < 0.01$). Specifically, speaking strategy is positively correlated with learning attitude ($r = 0.27$) and learning motivation ($r = 0.39$), indicating that effective speaking strategies are associated with higher learning engagement. Speaking anxiety is positively correlated with learning attitude ($r = 0.47$) and learning motivation ($r = 0.41$), suggesting that students with higher anxiety levels also exhibit stronger learning attitudes and motivation. Additionally, learning attitude and learning motivation show a positive correlation ($r = 0.46$).

**Table 4-29:
Pearson Correlation Coefficients Among Variables**

Variables		Speaking Strategy	Speaking Anxiety	Learning Attitude	Learning Motivation
Speaking Strategy	Pearson Correlation	1	.13**	.27**	.39**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		0.01	< .001	< .001
Speaking Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	.13**	1	.47**	.41**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	0.01		< .001	< .001
Learning Attitude	Pearson Correlation	.27**	.47**	1	.46**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	< .001	< .001		< .001
Learning Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.39**	.41**	.46**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	< .001	< .001	< .001	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Overall, the findings highlight interdependence among the variables and offer practical implications for instructional approaches aimed at promoting both speaking proficiency and motivation in EFL contexts.

4.5 Regression Analyses for RO3

4.5.1 Test for Hypothesis 1: Speaking Strategies→Learning Motivation

Table 4-30 presents the regression analysis results examining the influence of speaking strategies (SS) on learning motivation (LM). The model yielded an R^2 value of 0.151, indicating that speaking strategy explains approximately 15.1% of the variance in learning motivation. The overall model was statistically significant ($F = 73.51, p < 0.05$), suggesting that the regression model provides a good fit to the data. The regression coefficient for speaking strategy was $B = 0.42$, with a standard error of 0.05 and a standardized beta coefficient (β) of 0.39, indicating a moderate positive predictive relationship of speaking strategies on learning motivation. The result was statistically significant ($t = 8.57, p < 0.05$), implying that students who frequently employ speaking strategies tend to have higher learning motivation. In addition, the VIF value for speaking strategy was 1.00, indicating no multicollinearity concerns.

Table 4-30:
Regression Analysis of Speaking Strategies and Learning Motivation

Variables	R ²	F	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	VIF
(Constant)			2.10	0.18	-	11.9	<0.001	
SS	0.15	73.51	0.42	0.05	0.39	8.57	<0.001	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: LM

4.5.2 Test for Hypothesis 2: Speaking Anxiety→Learning Motivation

Table 4-31 shows the regression analysis results examining the effect of speaking anxiety on learning motivation. The model reported an R^2 value of 0.17, indicating that speaking anxiety explains approximately 16.9% of the variance in learning motivation. The overall regression model was statistically significant ($F = 83.86, p < 0.001$), suggesting a good model fit. The regression coefficient for speaking anxiety was $B = 0.45$, with a standard error of 0.05 and a standardized beta coefficient (β) of 0.41. The t-value of 9.16 ($p < 0.05$) indicates that the effect is statistically significant.

This result demonstrates a significant positive predictive relationship of speaking anxiety on learning motivation, suggesting that students experiencing higher levels of speaking-related tension or awareness tend to exhibit stronger motivation to improve their

English-speaking performance. Moreover, the VIF value for speaking anxiety was 1.00, indicating no multicollinearity issues.

Table 4-31:
Regression Analysis of Speaking Anxiety and Learning Motivation

Variables	R ²	F	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	VIF
(Constant)			1.99	0.18	-	11.14	<0.001	
SA	0.17	83.86	0.45	0.05	0.41	9.16	<0.001	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: LM

4.5.3 Test for Hypothesis 3: Learning Motivation→Learning Attitudes

The regression analysis in Table 4-32 examined the effect of learning motivation on learning attitudes. The model yielded an R² of 0.21, indicating that learning motivation explains 21.1% of the variance in learning attitude. The overall model was statistically significant (F = 110.22, p < 0.05). The regression coefficient for learning motivation was B = 0.44 with a standardized beta of 0.46, suggesting a moderately strong positive predictor. The t-value (t = 10.50, p < 0.05) confirmed that the effect was highly significant. These results suggest that higher levels of learning motivation are associated with more positive learning attitudes among students. Additionally, the VIF value for learning motivation was 1.00, indicating no concern regarding multicollinearity.

Table 4-32:
Regression Analysis of Learning Motivation and Learning Attitudes

Variables	R ²	F	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	VIF
(Constant)			2.03	0.15	-	13.20	<0.001	
LM	0.21	110.22	0.44	0.04	0.46	10.50	<0.001	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: LA

4.5.4 Hypotheses Summary

The results in Table 4-33 indicated that all three hypotheses were supported. Speaking strategies were found to have a significant positive on learning motivation among Non-English-Major students, suggesting that the use of appropriate strategies enhances students' engagement and willingness to learn. Speaking anxiety also showed a positive relationship with learning motivation, indicating that a certain level of anxiety may associated with increased motivational engagement encouraging students to invest more

effort in improving their speaking performance. Furthermore, learning motivation significantly predicted learning attitudes, highlighting its central role in shaping students' overall perceptions and dispositions toward English learning. Together, these findings underscore the importance of both cognitive–behavioral strategies and affective factors in fostering motivation and positive learning attitudes among Non-English-Major students.

**Table 4-33:
Hypotheses Summary**

Hypotheses	Result
H1: Speaking strategies are expected to be associated with learning motivation among Non-English-Major students.	Supported
H2: Speaking anxiety is expected to be associated with learning motivation among Non-English-Major students.	Supported
H3: Learning motivation is expected to be associated with learning attitudes among Non-English-Major students.	Supported

4.6 Summary of the Relationship

These correlations highlight the complex relationships among speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning attitudes, and learning motivation in the EFL context. The findings indicate that higher levels of speaking anxiety are positively associated with more positive learning attitudes and greater learning motivation, suggesting that speaking-related tension or awareness may coexist with increased engagement in English learning. In addition, the use of effective speaking strategies was found to be positively associated with both learning attitudes and learning motivation, indicating that students who employ a wider range of speaking strategies tend to report more favorable attitudes and stronger motivation toward English learning.

Furthermore, the positive association between learning motivation and learning attitudes underscores the close linkage between motivational and attitudinal factors in the EFL learning process. Students with higher levels of learning motivation tend to demonstrate more positive attitudes toward English learning, reflecting the interconnected nature of affective variables in language education.

4.7 Discussion

4.7.1 Speaking Strategies

In this study, the fact that “I give up when I can’t make myself understood” scored the highest among message abandonment strategies indicates that students tend to abandon their utterances when communication breaks down, rather than trying to clarify or repair. This may reflect deep-seated communicative anxiety and a lack of confidence: faced with misunderstanding, learners prefer to withdraw and avoid further risk. Such behavior aligns with findings that foreign language anxiety negatively affects students’ willingness to communicate, especially in classroom contexts where error correction and evaluation are salient (Salbaş & Ekmekci, 2025).

Moreover, the reliance on abandonment rather than more adaptive strategies (such as negotiation of meaning or paraphrasing) suggests a risk-averse interaction style. This style may be reinforced by a learning environment that does not sufficiently encourage communicative resilience: if teachers or peers emphasize accuracy over understanding, learners may feel that continuing after a breakdown exposes their linguistic inadequacy. Indeed, prior research shows that teachers’ and students’ roles in reducing FLA are critical, and that supportive classroom environments can mitigate anxiety by valuing communicative attempts over “perfect” language (Alnefaie, 2024).

A further implication of students’ frequent use of message abandonment is its potential impact on long-term communicative competence. When learners routinely choose to withdraw from communication rather than engage in meaning negotiation, they miss opportunities to develop essential interactional skills such as self-repair, circumlocution, and clarification requests, skills shown to be central to communicative proficiency in second language learning (Beshir & Yigzaw, 2022). Recent studies highlight that students who persist through communication breakdowns demonstrate higher levels of speaking confidence and improved oral fluency over time (Halali et al., 2023). Conversely, consistent avoidance may reinforce learned helplessness, where learners come to believe they lack the ability to manage communication difficulties. This pattern suggests that classroom instruction should place greater emphasis not only on teaching specific communication strategies but also on cultivating a mindset that views breakdowns as natural and productive opportunities for learning rather than as failures to be avoided.

'Use of fillers' is an important aspect of social affective strategies as reported in the findings. Previous studies have demonstrated that non-native speakers commonly employ fillers such as "um" and "uh" to preserve the rhythm of conversations, thereby alleviating language anxiety and enhancing self-confidence (Gherbi & Allouti, 2020; Soumia & Chaima, 2024; Williams, 2022). Additionally, Purba et al. (2021) observed that using fillers during conversation allows students to gather their thoughts and select appropriate words, supporting their verbal expression. However, Gandeza (2023) also noted that while using fillers may contribute to increased language fluency, it does not necessarily improve language accuracy. Language accuracy emphasizes the correct use of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, emphasizing the precision and standardization of language (Zakirovich, 2023). In contrast, fluency in language emphasizes smooth and natural communication and the ability to consistently express ideas even with occasional errors (Seals & Coppock, 2022). Zakirovich (2023) believes that fluency and accuracy in language learning have their own emphasis and need to be balanced in development.

The use of fillers may be valuable in alleviating speaking anxiety, as it can allow students to feel more at ease while searching for the right words. Furthermore, it might give them extra time to process their thoughts, which could enhance their ability to engage in complex conversations without feeling rushed. The process of using fillers can demonstrate students' confidence and mastery of language in communication, thereby reducing their learning anxiety. To overcome difficulties in real time, students are less likely to experience the frustration or embarrassment often associated with speaking.

The strategy of using fillers fosters a positive speaking experience and can encourage students to participate actively in discussions. As they become confident in their ability to navigate challenging speaking situations, their overall anxiety may decrease. This, in turn, can lead to improved language proficiency and greater willingness to engage in speaking activities, ultimately contributing to their language learning success and comfort in communicating. However, while this strategy improves fluency and aids communication, Crouch (2020) suggests that teachers should also encourage students to balance fluency with accuracy by progressively reducing their reliance on fillers as their language proficiency improves.

One of the key findings from the study is the importance of 'making eye contact' in English speaking. Making eye contact is an important aspect of non-verbal strategies as

reported in the findings. Likewise, research indicate that making eye contact is significant in cross-cultural communication, where it aids non-native speakers in interpreting each other's reactions and emotions through visual cues (Tsunemoto et al., 2022). Furthermore, Khuman (2024) asserts that making eye contact strengthens the non-verbal aspects of language, thereby improving the clarity and effectiveness of communication. Moreover, Sihotang et al. (2021) and Tsunemoto et al. (2022) emphasize the importance of maintaining make eye contact, suggesting that it plays a vital role in enhancing communication skills and overall efficiency. However, Hussein and Mahmood (2020) warn that the overuse or misinterpretation of eye contact in certain cultural contexts can lead to discomfort.

Research has confirmed that students who frequently use eye contact strategies tend to do so more consistently in classroom interactions. This visual connection allows students to gauge their conversation partners' emotions and engagement, facilitating mutual understanding. Rzayeva (2025) believed that maintaining eye contact not only fosters a sense of interpersonal connection but also encourages active participation and attentiveness. According to Young, Hynes, and Hynes (2021), acknowledging and valuing students through the use of eye contact can contribute to the creation of a more inclusive and engaging learning environment, thereby fostering positive attitudes and enhancing students' active participation in learning activities. Nonetheless, it remains important for educators to address cultural variations in non-verbal communication to ensure that eye contact enhances, rather than hinders, effective interaction.

A key finding of the study is the practice of 'using synonyms' in attempt to think in English strategies, which entails substituting a word with one of similar meaning to effectively communicate the intended message. Kruawong and Phoocharoensil (2022) argue that the authentic use of synonyms is helpful for EFL students, especially in improving their vocabulary comprehension and application abilities. The study by Hang and Du (2021) also supports this conclusion. Furthermore, Alamri and Hakami (2022) study also found that using synonyms can help EFL students improve their language skills.

Research has also demonstrated that the strategic use of synonyms plays a crucial role in fostering learners' linguistic flexibility and creativity. By experimenting with alternative lexical choices to convey meaning, students actively engage in meaning-making processes that extend beyond rote vocabulary learning (Lee et al., 2021). This approach not only broadens their lexical repertoire but also promotes fluid and contextually appropriate

communication. Moreover, as learners become more aware of subtle semantic nuances among synonyms, they develop heightened sensitivity to context, which contributes to improved accuracy and fluency in both spoken and written expression (Barakayevich, 2025). Empirical studies have further indicated that synonym use enhances learner autonomy and self-regulation, as students take greater responsibility for selecting and adapting language to meet communicative needs (Aghajani, Nikou & Ghafoori, 2024). In contrast to traditional memorization-based approaches, applying synonyms in authentic communicative contexts encourages critical language awareness and intercultural understanding, leading to more confident, natural, and effective communication. Thus, synonym use can be viewed as both a cognitively and culturally enriching strategy that significantly contributes to the development of communicative competence in language learning.

The analysis of students' use of speaking strategies revealed that message abandonment strategies recorded the highest mean score, indicating that learners often chose to stop or abandon an utterance when encountering linguistic difficulties rather than attempting to repair or clarify meaning. This suggests that students may prioritize maintaining communication flow and avoiding errors or embarrassment over sustaining interaction, reflecting a cautious and performance-oriented approach to speaking. In contrast, negotiation for meaning while speaking strategies scored the lowest, implying that students were less likely to seek clarification, confirm understanding, or request repetition during communication. Such a pattern indicates limited engagement in interactive meaning-making and a tendency to avoid communicative risks. The findings highlight the need for pedagogical interventions that encourage learners to move beyond avoidance behaviors and develop confidence in negotiating meaning, an essential skill for enhancing both fluency and communicative competence in EFL contexts.

In conclusion, the strategies highlighted—including the use of fillers, attention to rhythm and intonation, making eye contact and using synonyms—are integral to enhancing the speaking proficiency of EFL students. These approaches not only serve to mitigate speaking anxiety and foster self-confidence but also promote effective communication practices. By integrating these techniques, students may improve their fluency and engage actively in conversations, potentially leading to a successful language learning experience. As learners cultivate a deeper understanding of these strategies, they might enhance their

overall communicative competence and comfort in English-speaking contexts, thus facilitating positive interactions and experiences.

In China, English language education has traditionally placed greater emphasis on reading, writing, and grammar, while oral communication has often been neglected in both classroom instruction and assessment. As a result, many Chinese EFL learners struggle to develop effective speaking strategies that facilitate interaction, fluency, and confidence in real-life communication. The exam-oriented education system further reinforces a focus on written performance, leaving limited opportunities for students to practice communicative competence. In recent years, however, the growing demand for international communication and professional mobility has highlighted the importance of improving oral English proficiency. Speaking strategies, such as paraphrasing, message reduction, self-correction, and the use of fillers, are therefore becoming increasingly recognized as essential tools for overcoming communication barriers and enhancing speaking performance. Understanding how Chinese Non-English-Major students apply these strategies, and how they relate to learning motivation and anxiety, is vital for developing more effective pedagogical approaches in English language instruction.

4.7.2 Speaking Anxiety

The findings from the survey indicate that "speaking in English class" in interaction anxiety constitutes the source of confidence anxiety among students. Speaking in English class refers to the act of using spoken English for communication during classroom activities, discussions, presentations, or other interactive tasks (Guebba, 2021). Notably, research by Damayanti and Listyani (2020) corroborates this, revealing that classroom speaking engagements can amplify students' anxiety levels. Furthermore, Dana and Aminatun (2022) support this conclusion, reinforcing the notion that the act of speaking in English classrooms can lead to heightened feelings of apprehension. Liu and Yuan (2021) further substantiate this perspective through their research on Chinese undergraduate students, indicating that the act of speaking in English class can evoke anxiety.

This anxiety may stem from students' perceived inadequacies regarding their English proficiency, leading to concerns about their ability to express themselves accurately and fluently (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021). Consequently, many students harbor fears regarding potential mistakes during classroom discussions, fearing these errors could negatively

impact their self-image and the evaluations they receive from peers and instructors (Suparlan, 2021). Moreover, the dynamics of an open classroom environment, where students face direct scrutiny from both classmates and teachers, can exacerbate their feelings of self-doubt. As Damayanti and Listyani (2020) argue, this anxiety can be attributed to students' uncertainties regarding their capabilities when speaking in a foreign language context. Dana and Aminatun (2022) further highlight that inadequate speaking skills contribute to the anxiety experienced by students in speaking communication settings.

The anxiety associated with speaking English in class can undermine students' confidence, potentially negatively affecting their motivation to engage and their overall learning outcomes. When students experience anxiety, they may withdraw from speaking opportunities, possibly missing valuable chances to practice and refine their language skills. This avoidance might not only hamper their linguistic development but can also lead to a decline in their motivation to continue learning English. Anxiety could disrupt cognitive processes, making it difficult for students to express their ideas clearly, which may in turn impact their academic performance. To counter this, educators might focus on fostering motivation by creating a supportive and low-pressure learning environment. Incorporating interactive strategies such as group activities and role-playing could help students practice speaking in a relaxed setting, potentially increasing their confidence and reinforcing their motivation to improve their language abilities.

A notable finding from this study is that the majority of participants reported feelings of embarrassment and discomfort related to the "voluntary answering of questions," which ties directly to interaction anxiety. Research conducted by Amoah and Yeboah (2021) reveals that students often struggle to actively respond to questions during English classes. This phenomenon can be attributed to students' low self-confidence, fear of negative evaluations and apprehension regarding potential mistakes during verbal interactions, which leads to clear hesitation when it comes to voluntarily answering questions. Damayanti and Listyani (2020) found that strongly agreed that the act of voluntarily answering questions incited feelings of anxiety and embarrassment, particularly due to fears of falling behind and experiencing shame when communicating in English. Such embarrassment may stem from a lack of confidence in one's performance or concerns about linguistic abilities (Zhong & Zhu, 2023). Additionally, Hanh (2020) posits that teacher-centered pedagogical methods may also influence students' willingness to engage in voluntary responses.

The act of voluntarily answering questions often necessitates a heightened degree of openness, which can intensify the pressure students might feel when expressing themselves. The fear of making mistakes in front of peers and instructors may escalate anxiety levels, as students could worry about being judged or ridiculed for their errors. Furthermore, the desire to maintain a positive image within the classroom might exacerbate this hesitation; students may perceive that even minor mistakes could adversely affect their reputation among peers. Over time, such avoidance behaviours can culminate in a potentially detrimental cycle of reduced participation, possibly further eroding students' confidence and limiting their opportunities to practice and refine their language abilities.

A key finding from this study is the presence of test anxiety, particularly in relation to the fear of failure in English speaking assessments. El Shazly (2021) identifies that students frequently exhibit heightened anxiety concerning the repercussions of failing examinations. This assertion is echoed by Tuyet and Khang (2020), who document students' pervasive fears related to potential failure. Furthermore, Suparlan (2021) corroborates this sentiment, underscoring the anxiety associated with academic assessments. Ahmetovic et al. (2020) propose that this fear is linked to students' apprehensions about confronting failure, which can have detrimental implications for their academic performance and future career prospects (Abdullah et al., 2022).

The analysis of students' anxiety revealed that test anxiety scored the highest, while negative evaluation anxiety scored the lowest. This indicates that students are particularly worried about their performance in examinations, assignments, or graded activities, reflecting a strong concern for achieving favorable outcomes. In contrast, their anxiety about being judged or criticized by peers or teachers is relatively low, suggesting that social evaluation is less of a concern. This pattern highlights that learners' anxiety is primarily performance-driven rather than socially-driven, which may affect their preparation strategies, participation in class, and overall confidence during assessments. Addressing test-related anxiety through targeted support, such as practice exams or stress-management interventions, could therefore improve students' learning experiences and performance outcomes.

Many students often place high expectations on themselves, setting ambitious performance goals in their language learning, which can lead to increased anxiety when faced with the possibility of failure. This anxiety is particularly acute during speaking tests,

where students might worry not only about their own performance but also about how they may be perceived by peers and instructors. Such fears of failure and judgment could create a cycle of anxiety, potentially causing students to avoid speaking opportunities and further reinforcing their anxiety about speaking assessments. This avoidance can hinder both their motivation and their linguistic development, as the pressure to succeed might transform into a debilitating fear that undermines their confidence and overall progress in language learning.

In summary, the findings highlight that speaking in English classes contributes to students' confidence anxiety, largely arising from their perceived deficiencies in language proficiency and fears regarding negative assessments from peers and instructors. This anxiety can lead to reduced engagement in speaking activities, which ultimately impedes linguistic development and diminishes motivation for further learning. Additionally, concerns over failure in speaking assessments intensify these challenges, as students often become preoccupied with the implications of their performance on both academic outcomes and social perceptions. The discomfort linked to voluntarily answering questions further compounds interaction anxiety, as the fear of making mistakes can prompt avoidance behaviors that erode confidence and limit opportunities for practice. Addressing these challenges may necessitate the development of a supportive and encouraging learning environment, one that fosters interaction and enables students to gradually enhance their confidence and language skills.

4.7.3 Motivation

On a broader social level, recognition from family members emerges as a major external motivator for students. They may aspire not only to achieve academic success but also to demonstrate their capabilities to their families, thereby enhancing their self-worth. The emotional ties within families and the high expectations placed upon students can create a strong impetus for them to excel academically. As such, social recognition, particularly in the form of affirmation and support from family members, constitutes a critical factor in driving students' motivation to study diligently, highlighting the vital role of social dynamics in learning motivation (Šimunović & Babarović, 2020).

Furthermore, many students emphasize the importance of demonstrating their English proficiency to their families, reflecting a strong external motivation - social. Liu

and Dong (2023) confirm this trend, noting that heightened parental expectations influence students' English learning goals. Huang (2017) also suggests that the desire to meet parental expectations drives many students in their language studies. The substantial average value associated with this statement indicates that social recognition from family members serves as a robust external motivator. Yaqoob et al. (2023) contend that the close familial relationships play a pivotal role in shaping students' confidence and motivation, underscoring the importance of familial support and approval in their academic endeavours.

The desire to meet parental expectations and gain social approval may motivate students to strive for academic excellence, which could enhance their chances of admission to top-tier universities or securing desirable employment opportunities. Encouragement and approval from family members might foster a sense of accountability and drive, potentially motivating students to develop practical skills like English proficiency, which are highly valued in both academic and professional contexts. This motivation is likely reinforced by the importance placed on social recognition within families, where academic achievements may serve as a source of pride and validation. Such external motivators could enhance students' engagement and persistence, aligning familial support with educational goals and possibly contributing to higher academic performance, improved graduate employability and stronger career prospects.

In the context of Confucian culture, parents enjoy a high status and filial piety is regarded as one of the core virtues (Xie et al., 2023). Wang and Rao (2022) pointed out through a qualitative study that Chinese students often mentioned their parents as an important source of motivation for their hard work. In addition, Guo et al. (2021) explored the relationship between authoritarian filial piety and intrinsic motivation by conducting a questionnaire survey on 492 high school students from China and the results showed that authoritarian filial piety is positively related to intrinsic motivation. To (2023) study further found that there is a significant positive correlation between authoritarian filial piety and extrinsic motivation.

In terms of intrinsic motivation, students exhibit a degree of agreement with the statement "Enjoy sharing new things." Supporting this, Mansor and Jaharuddin (2020) highlight that intrinsic motivation positively influences participants' willingness to share knowledge, indicating that individuals with higher intrinsic motivation tend to engage in positive emotional exchanges during such interactions. Similarly, Meng and Li (2024) found

that those driven by intrinsic motivation are inclined to share the knowledge they have acquired, suggesting that this form of motivation enhances their willingness to actively communicate their experiences.

The act of sharing new knowledge not only satisfies students but can also amplify their interest in learning, reflecting the joy they may experience when disseminating what they have learned. This interaction often involves social engagement, which might further stimulate enthusiasm for learning as students receive feedback and recognition from their peers. Consequently, the ability to share knowledge can cultivate a sense of achievement and pride, potentially enhancing their intrinsic motivation for English learning (Shen & Chang, 2018).

According to Deci and Ryan (2012), amotivation is defined as a state of lacking intention to act. Wang and Littlewood (2021) argue that helping students better understand the utility of English is essential for stimulating their motivation to learn. Similarly, Nishida and Takagi (2023) suggest that difficulties encountered during the learning process can significantly weaken motivation, leading to disengagement. Supporting this perspective, a study conducted in Afghanistan found that although many undergraduate students recognize the potential of English proficiency to enhance their personal development (Orfan, 2020), this understanding alone may not be sufficient to inspire active engagement in their studies, especially when they face significant challenges. Furthermore, Adie et al. (2024) observed lower levels of amotivation among undergraduate students, suggesting other factors at play. The current study similarly reveals that despite encountering challenges related to speaking strategies and language learning anxiety, students continue to value English learning and demonstrate persistent efforts to attain language proficiency. Notably, B ark anyi (2021) argues that anxiety, while often seen as a barrier, can serve as a catalyst, enhancing learning motivation and encouraging deeper engagement in the learning process.

In the context of extrinsic motivation - career, a majority of students recognize the importance of gaining admission to reputable universities. Wang and Zheng (2021) note that the motivation for many students to learn a foreign language stems from the desire to secure a place in a prestigious institution. Furthermore, Zheng et al. (2019) highlight that students perceive strong English proficiency as instrumental in achieving this goal. Nevertheless, Zheng (2020) points out that in certain regions, many Non-English-Majors resort to early

admission strategies, leading some students to choose language studies reluctantly, which may undermine their intrinsic motivation for learning.

Students motivated by career aspirations may perceive language proficiency as a valuable asset for accessing competitive opportunities in both academia and the job market. Strong English skills could enhance their chances of admission to prestigious universities, which are often associated with higher graduate employability and career advancement. Additionally, aligning academic effort with potential career outcomes might support individual success and contribute to broader educational objectives, such as possibly improving university graduate employment rates and fostering a globally competitive workforce. This motivation might also encourage students to engage more actively in their studies, recognizing the long-term benefits of such skills in achieving their professional goals.

In recent years, the employment pressure faced by Chinese undergraduates has increased significantly and many students seek to enhance their competitiveness by improving their academic qualifications (Horta & Li, 2023; Y. Wu et al., 2020). In order to improve their employment prospects, more and more students choose to apply for overseas master's degrees by improving their English proficiency, thereby enhancing their career competitiveness (Tran et al., 2021). This trend reflects the critical role of English in career development. Especially in the context of increasing economic uncertainty, studying abroad is regarded as a strategic choice to enhance career development opportunities and employability (Huang & Curle, 2021). This extrinsic motivation related to career development further promotes students' investment in English learning (Darvin & Norton, 2023; Ramzan et al., 2023).

In terms of motivation, the findings indicate that students scored highest on extrinsic motivation – social and lowest on intrinsic motivation. This pattern suggests that students' language learning is primarily driven by external social factors, such as peer influence, teacher evaluation, or social recognition, rather than by personal interest or intrinsic satisfaction. The results imply a tendency among students to prioritize communicative and socially oriented outcomes over self-directed engagement or the inherent enjoyment of learning, highlighting the potential need for instructional strategies that foster intrinsic motivation and personal interest in language learning.

The investigation into students' motivations for learning English reveals a nuanced interplay between intrinsic and extrinsic factors, consistent with prior research emphasizing the dual role of internal interest and external pressures (Ahmetovic et al., 2020; Kwarikunda et al., 2022). While intrinsic motivation, such as the enjoyment derived from sharing knowledge, fosters engagement and a sense of achievement, the presence of amotivation in some students indicates a disconnect from the perceived value of English learning, leading to lower participation and enthusiasm. Interestingly, unlike several previous studies that reported higher levels of intrinsic motivation among university learners (e.g., John et al., 2023; Sun & Gao, 2020), this study found extrinsic factors, particularly career aspirations and family expectations, to be stronger motivators. This divergence may be attributed to cultural and contextual differences, as Chinese students often face significant societal and familial pressures regarding academic success. These findings suggest that motivation in this context is not solely determined by personal interest but is heavily shaped by social and cultural expectations, highlighting the importance of designing instructional strategies that address both intrinsic enjoyment and external motivational pressures to enhance engagement and language learning outcomes.

In conclusion, the investigation into students' motivations for learning English reveals a complex interplay between intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic motivation is associated with the enjoyment students derive from sharing knowledge, fostering a sense of achievement and engagement in the learning process. However, many students also experience amotivation, which undermines their connection to the value of English learning, leading to disengagement. On the extrinsic side, career aspirations and social pressures, particularly from family expectations, serve as powerful motivators. Balancing these motivational dynamics is essential for creating a supportive learning environment that enhances student engagement and success in language acquisition.

4.7.4 Attitudes

The analysis of learning attitudes indicates that the cognitive attitude dimension recognized by students is the belief that "Studying English makes me more educated." Recent studies highlight that students increasingly view English proficiency as integral to their education, with the mastery of English seen as a catalyst for enhanced cognitive growth and overall educational success (Yuliani et al., 2023). Zulfikar et al. (2019) also emphasize

the perceived importance of English for academic achievement and personal development, further reinforcing the connection between cognitive attitudes and educational experiences. Mou (2024) adds that learning English can enhance not only language skills but also cognitive capabilities, enabling students to engage critically with complex ideas across disciplines, which can improve their problem-solving abilities and overall academic performance.

Positive cognitive attitudes are essential because they foster motivation, engagement and a willingness to overcome challenges in the learning process. When students perceive language learning as valuable for their personal and intellectual growth, they are likely to invest effort and persist in their studies. These attitudes also influence their academic performance, as students with strong cognitive beliefs about language learning tend to achieve better results (Senad et al., 2021). Consequently, nurturing positive cognitive attitudes can lead to improved language proficiency and enhanced educational outcomes, making it a vital focus in language education.

In contrast, within the behavioral attitude dimension, the ability to "speak English in a relaxed manner in class" receives relatively low score, suggesting that some students feel anxious and unable to communicate comfortably in English. Behavioral attitude refers to the attitude exhibited by an individual towards a specific object or concept in their actual behavior (Bentler & Speckart, 1979). This finding is consistent with previous research; for instance, Putri et al. (2020) observed that students often experience shyness and discomfort when required to speak in front of their peers. Similarly, Damayanti and Listyani (2020) found that classroom anxiety impacts students' willingness to participate in English-speaking activities, while Liu and Hong (2021) noted that excessive concern about peer judgment can lead to nervousness and frustration. Such anxiety can stem from a lack of confidence and the pressure to perform well in a formal academic setting, exacerbated by a classroom environment where speaking English publicly may not be common practice.

Regarding the affective attitude dimension, several studies indicate that some students exhibit low interest in learning English. Yusriyah (2020) research revealed that students often lack enthusiasm for English classes and demonstrate low empathy toward the subject. Lei (2023) attributes this disinterest to poor academic outcomes and a weak sense of achievement, which can diminish motivation and enthusiasm over time. Li (2023) corroborates this, noting that many law students struggle with English despite their efforts,

largely due to a lack of interest, confidence and effective study habits. However, contrasting findings exist; for instance, Pranawengtias (2022) reported that students at Technocrat University in India maintain high enthusiasm for English learning and Hao et al. (2023) found similar enthusiasm among students who recognize the importance of English.

Moreover, some students may exhibit low interest in English learning, primarily attributed to several interconnected factors. First, poor learning outcomes can lead to a diminished sense of achievement, subsequently reducing their motivation and enthusiasm for learning. When students' efforts fail to produce the expected results, they might gradually lose their eagerness to engage with the language. Second, ineffective learning methods and habits can contribute to perceptions of English as a difficult and tedious subject, further undermining students' confidence. Additionally, personal interests and goals play a crucial role, as some students may perceive English as unrelated to their academic or career aspirations, leading to a lack of emotional investment in the learning process. Nonetheless, in varying educational contexts, students who recognize the importance of learning English might maintain high levels of enthusiasm and initiative, demonstrating the potential for positive engagement when contextual factors align favorably.

The analysis of students' attitudes towards English learning revealed that cognitive attitudes scored the highest, whereas affective (emotional) attitudes scored the lowest. This indicates that students are highly aware of the intellectual and educational value of learning English, recognizing its role in enhancing knowledge, academic performance, and future career opportunities. Despite this strong cognitive recognition, their relatively low affective scores suggest limited emotional engagement, such as enjoyment, interest, or enthusiasm for the learning process itself. This discrepancy implies that students' motivation to learn English is largely utilitarian and goal-oriented rather than intrinsically enjoyable or emotionally rewarding. Several factors could contribute to this pattern, including a heavy focus on examinations, curriculum pressure, or insufficient exposure to engaging and interactive learning activities. The findings highlight a potential area for pedagogical intervention: incorporating more emotionally engaging teaching methods, such as collaborative tasks, gamified learning, or culturally relevant materials, could foster positive emotional experiences, enhance learners' intrinsic motivation, and ultimately improve both engagement and language proficiency outcomes.

In conclusion, students' learning attitudes toward English reflect a complex interplay of cognitive, behavioral and affective dimensions. Many students hold positive cognitive beliefs, recognizing that studying English enhances their education and cognitive skills, which fosters motivation and academic success. However, anxiety about speaking in class often hinders their behavioral engagement, linked to a lack of confidence and fear of peer judgment. Additionally, while some students display low interest in English, this disinterest can stem from poor academic experiences and a perceived disconnect between English and their personal goals. Nonetheless, when students acknowledge the value of English, they can remain enthusiastic and engaged, highlighting the importance of creating supportive educational environments to nurture positive attitudes and enhance learning outcomes.

4.7.5 Speaking Strategies, Speaking Anxiety, Learning Motivation and Learning Attitudes: The Relationships

The results of this study indicate a positive correlation between speaking strategies and learning motivation. Muhayyang et al. (2023) found that students perceive eye contact from lecturers as essential because it enhances their learning motivation and fosters greater engagement in the learning process. Similarly, Yang et al. (2024) observed that while students often struggle with learning synonyms, providing them with the autonomy to choose targeted synonyms greatly boosts their motivation, promotes self-regulated learning and fosters independent learning skills. Additionally, Quadir (2014) found that motivation factors positively correlated with various speaking strategy factors, further emphasizing the integral role of motivation in the effective use of speaking strategies.

These findings suggest that motivation is associated with students' willingness to engage in and benefit from speaking strategies. When students are provided with the autonomy to make choices, such as selecting specific language tools like synonyms, they tend to feel empowered and invested in their learning journey. This sense of autonomy not only enhances motivation but also builds confidence and encourages a proactive approach to mastering language skills. As motivation strengthens, students are likely to experiment with diverse speaking strategies, leading to a personalized and effective learning experience. Consequently, fostering motivation through supportive teaching practices and student autonomy may lead to long-term improvements in communication skills and overall language proficiency.

The results of this study indicate a positive correlation between speaking anxiety and learning motivation. However, some research suggests that the relationship between speaking anxiety and learning motivation is complex. While high motivation may not completely eliminate language anxiety, it helps learners manage their anxiety and encourages them to continue pursuing language learning (Almurshed & Aljuaythin, 2019). Additionally, motivation can mitigate the negative effects of exam anxiety on academic performance and in certain contexts, anxiety may even stimulate learning motivation (Balogun et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2020). However, the relationship between intrinsic motivation and language anxiety remains controversial. Some studies have found a negative correlation between foreign language classroom anxiety and intrinsic motivation, while anxiety is positively correlated with extrinsic motivation (Ahmetovic et al., 2020). Luo et al. (2020) found a positive correlation between anxiety and both extrinsic motivation and amotivation, suggesting that highly anxious students often lack motivation, possibly due to fear of failure or overwhelming pressure. Nonetheless, in some cases, speaking anxiety can act as a catalyst for enhancing learning attitudes and motivation, driving students to engage deeply in the learning process (Bárkányi, 2021).

While anxiety could often be perceived as a barrier, in certain cases it may act as a motivator, prompting students to prepare thoroughly and engage actively in language practice. This dual role of anxiety suggests that a moderate level of stress might fuel students' drive to excel, particularly when coupled with support strategies that help manage fear of failure. Educators can harness this dynamic by creating a balanced learning environment where anxiety is acknowledged and managed through constructive feedback, practice opportunities and encouragement. By doing so, they may help students transform anxiety into a motivating force, enhancing their resilience and persistence in language learning. This approach not only aids in reducing debilitating anxiety but also cultivates a growth mindset, empowering students to embrace challenges as part of their language development journey.

The relationship between learning motivation and learning attitude is crucial in foreign language acquisition. Positive attitudes are associated with higher levels of motivation to engage in language learning. While external motivations, such as academic rewards, can drive engagement, Idris et al. (2021) caution that an overemphasis on these factors may undermine intrinsic motivation. Ahmad et al. (2020) highlights the interconnection between anxiety and motivation, while Rochmawati et al. (2021) identify

learning attitude as a key predictor of educational motivation. Furthermore, a strong positive correlation exists between learning attitude and motivation, indicating that favorable attitudes lead to higher motivation (Chen et al., 2022). This reciprocal relationship is supported by Senad et al. (2021) and Chou et al. (2021) suggesting that nurturing both cognitive attitudes and motivation is essential for enhancing language proficiency. Collectively, these studies underscore the importance of fostering positive attitudes to improve motivation and, ultimately, learning outcomes.

These varying findings highlight the complexity of the relationship between speaking anxiety and learning attitudes, suggesting that the associations between anxiety and students' attitudes may not be uniform across learners or contexts. The presence of cultural and contextual factors could play an impotent role in shaping how anxiety associated with students' learning experiences. This might involve creating a supportive classroom environment that reduces the pressure of speaking, providing opportunities for students to build confidence through low-stakes practice. By recognizing the diverse ways anxiety affects learning attitudes, educators can tailor their strategies to not only alleviate anxiety but also promote a constructive and engaging learning experience that encourages positive attitudes towards language acquisition.

In summary, the relationships among speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes reveal a complex interplay. Positive correlations exist between speaking strategies and motivation, indicating that engaged students are likely to adopt effective speaking strategies. Anxiety can hinder engagement; it may also drive some students to improve their learning attitudes and motivation. Additionally, learning attitudes are associated with motivation, with more positive attitudes corresponding to greater engagement. Overall, educators should consider these dynamics to develop strategies that support students in managing anxiety, enhancing motivation and fostering positive learning attitudes, ultimately improving language learning outcomes.

4.7.6 Addressing Research Gaps

The survey data of this study show that Non-English-Majors spend less time on extracurricular English learning overall, further supporting Huang (2021) view that Non-English-Majors find it difficult to devote sufficient time to English learning under academic pressure. Specifically, more than half of the students (54.69%) study English for no more

than 2 hours per week, while only 4.82% of the students' study for more than 7 hours per week, indicating that most students find it difficult to devote enough time to English learning under the heavy professional course schedule, which may have an adverse impact on their language ability development. In addition, in terms of professional distribution, science and engineering students account for the highest proportion (47.95%) and these students usually face a high professional course load, which may further affect their investment in English learning.

This finding echoes Li et al. (2021) view that Non-English-Majors need more attention to English learning and emphasizes the differences in English learning among students from different disciplinary backgrounds. This study not only reveals this phenomenon, but also further explores how insufficient extracurricular learning time affects learning confidence, language proficiency and the use of learning strategies, supplementing the existing quantitative research in this area. In addition, combined with data analysis, the study puts forward targeted suggestions such as optimizing course arrangements, providing additional language support resources and improving learning motivation, providing empirical evidence for colleges and universities to improve the English learning environment for Non-English-Majors, which helps to make up for the problem of insufficient attention to this group in higher education pointed out by Fu and Zheng (2021).

This study examines the challenges faced by NEMU students in oral English learning, addressing research gaps with empirical data. Findings show that while most participants actively use oral learning strategies, "thinking in English" is the most common, whereas "social-emotional strategies" are the least used, indicating a lack of improvement through social interaction (Puspita Sari et al., 2021). Participants also experience varying levels of oral anxiety, with "language ability anxiety" being the highest, supporting Huang et al. (2021) view that students struggle with effective oral communication. This aligns with Vattøy (2020) claim that classroom teaching overemphasizes written expression while neglecting oral training. To address these issues, this study suggests optimizing teaching methods, increasing classroom interaction, strengthening social-context oral training and enhancing emotional engagement. These strategies can reduce anxiety, boost motivation and improve oral communication skills.

This study addresses research gaps by demonstrating that Non-English-Majors maintain strong learning motivation despite limited resources and instructional support (Fu

& Zheng, 2021; Huang, 2021; Li et al., 2021). While prior studies suggest that Non-English-Majors lack motivation due to limited career incentives (Chen et al., 2021; Vonkova et al., 2021), this study challenges that view, showing that students remain motivated, driven by social aspirations, personal interests and an internationalized environment. These findings highlight their learning potential and emphasize the need to optimize instructional strategies to further support and sustain their enthusiasm for English learning.

Moreover, the study's findings challenge the assumption that Non-English-Majors generally possess negative learning attitudes (Getie, 2020; Pan et al., 2021; Sriwichai, 2020). Instead, the results suggest that students may acknowledge the importance of English proficiency or be associated with by the learning environment and personal growth needs. Despite potential deficiencies in the teaching system, students exhibit a degree of self-motivation and take the initiative in English learning. These findings offer valuable insights for pedagogical improvement, suggesting that educators should refine curriculum content to better align with students' interests and career aspirations.

Furthermore, although previous research (e.g., (Huang et al., 2021; Puspita Sari et al., 2021; Vattøy, 2020) has emphasized that Non-English-Majors often experience oral communication anxiety due to difficulties with pronunciation and intonation, leading to avoidance behaviors, the present study reveals that students, despite experiencing high levels of anxiety, actively employ various oral learning strategies. This finding suggests that rather than completely abandoning oral language learning, students attempt to enhance their speaking skills through self-directed strategies within the existing instructional framework. Such findings underscore the agency and adaptability of Non-English-Majors in overcoming oral communication challenges, while also indicating that their anxiety may be closely linked to limitations in current teaching methodologies and classroom practices.

Finally, this study highlights the interplay between learning strategies, learning anxiety and learning motivation, with motivation playing a crucial role in shaping learning attitudes. While the relationship between motivation, attitude and anxiety remains a topic of academic debate (Amoah & Yeboah, 2021; Bárkányi, 2021; Öztürk, 2012; Zarei et al., 2020), the findings suggest that strategic learning approaches and moderate levels of anxiety may associates with motivation. For instance, social interaction and contextual practice strategies may enhance students' linguistic confidence, while a manageable level of anxiety can foster autonomous learning, aligning with the perspective that "moderate anxiety facilitates

learning" (Luo et al., 2020). Furthermore, heightened motivation encourages greater engagement in learning activities, such as increased oral practice and a willingness to tackle challenges, ultimately improving language learning outcomes (Vonkova et al., 2021).

4.8 Chapter Summary

From demographic data, it can be seen that there is not much gender difference among the 415 participants collected in this study, with most of them majoring in Science and Engineering. In addition, research on their extracurricular English learning time has found that participants have relatively less time for extracurricular learning.

From the results of frequency analysis, it can be seen that the majority of participants actively use different English-speaking strategies for English learning. The most commonly used strategy among them is "Message Abandonment Strategies" and the least commonly used strategy is "Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking". In addition, participants experienced varying degrees of speaking anxiety, with "Test Anxiety" having the highest level of anxiety and "Negative Evaluation Anxiety" having the lowest level of anxiety. However, all participants developed strong motivation for English learning, with "External Motivation - Social" scoring the highest and "Intrinsic" scoring the lowest. Analysis of learning attitudes among participants shows that. Among the attitudes towards English learning, "Cognitive Attention" is the most obvious, while "Effective Attention" is slightly insufficient.

Studies have indicated that there are complex interactions among speaking strategies, anxiety, motivation and attitudes. Effective speaking strategies have been found to alleviate anxiety and enhance motivation, with a positive correlation between the two. While anxiety may impede participation, it can also serve as a motivator, prompting students to improve both their attitudes and motivation. Moreover, positive attitudes are associated with increased participation. Therefore, educators should design strategies that assist students in managing anxiety, fostering motivation and cultivating positive attitudes to enhance language learning outcomes.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter delves into the implications, limitations and conclusions of the research. Firstly, the implications of the research findings were explored, emphasizing their importance in academic research and practical applications, including contributions to theoretical knowledge, advances in methodology and practical guidance for practitioners. Secondly, the limitations of the research were analyzed in detail, pointing out the shortcomings in the research process and areas for future improvement and proposing strategies to overcome these limitations. Finally, the main findings of the study were summarized, calling for further in-depth research and cooperation in this field to promote further innovation and development.

5.2 Key Findings

The findings indicate that the levels of speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, motivation, and learning attitudes among Non-English-Major undergraduates in Chinese universities were generally high, reflecting strong engagement in English learning. However, such engagement appears to be largely performance-oriented and externally driven rather than stemming from intrinsic enjoyment. This pattern aligns with previous studies highlighting the exam-oriented and achievement-focused characteristics of China's EFL context (Yue & Saad, 2025; Zhao, 2023). The predominance of Message Abandonment Strategies over Negotiation for Meaning suggests that students are more inclined to avoid communication breakdowns by giving up their intended messages instead of actively seeking clarification or meaning through interaction, reflecting limited strategic competence and communication confidence (Hong, 2024; Huang, 2025). This orientation toward maintaining interpersonal comfort, rather than linguistic risk-taking, may contribute to fluency but constrain deeper interactional competence.

Similarly, the higher level of test anxiety compared with negative evaluation anxiety underscores learners' concern with performance outcomes rather than peer judgment, echoing findings from Amoah and Yeboah (2021) and Shen (2022), who reported that test-related pressure remains a central source of anxiety among Chinese EFL students. These results reinforce the view that anxiety in EFL settings is not uniformly detrimental; rather, its impact depends on intensity and context. Moderate anxiety, as suggested by Almurshed and Aljuaythin (2019), can function as a motivational stimulus, enhancing preparation and persistence, which aligns with the present study's finding that speaking anxiety associated with motivation.

The motivational pattern observed, where Extrinsic Motivation–Social scored the highest and intrinsic motivation the lowest, further reflects a culturally embedded reliance on external expectations such as family approval, peer influence, and career aspirations (Chen, Allen & Hesketh, 2023). The dominance of Cognitive Attitudes over Affective Attitudes likewise suggests that learners value English for its instrumental and intellectual benefits rather than emotional satisfaction, consistent with prior findings in East Asian EFL contexts (Sun & Wang, 2024). Such a pattern implies that while students intellectually acknowledge the importance of English proficiency, their emotional detachment may limit sustained engagement and intrinsic enjoyment in the learning process. The absence of significant differences across gender, year of study, and major supports the notion that these motivational and attitudinal profiles are systemic and culturally pervasive rather than situational, reflecting the shared socio-educational norms that shape English learning in the Chinese higher education context.

Crucially, the study established that both speaking strategies and speaking anxiety exerted associated with learning motivation, and that learning motivation was also positively related to learning attitudes. Collectively, these results depict a context-dependent motivational system: different speaking strategies and moderate pressure can simultaneously drive engagement and constrain intrinsic growth (Almurshed & Aljuaythin, 2019; Muhayyang et al., 2023). In line with Merdiaty and Sulistiasih (2024), this underscores the pedagogical need to design learning environments that balance extrinsic incentives with intrinsic cultivation, encouraging learners to transform social obligation into personal commitment and emotional investment in English learning.

5.3 Implications of the Study

Explaining the implications of the study is crucial as it clarifies the practical significance and application value of the research, guides practitioners on how to apply research findings and provides direction for future research and policymaking. By exploring the actual impact of research findings, one can fully understand their importance in both academia and reality and stimulate further research and interdisciplinary cooperation. The inspiration of this study focuses on theoretical implications, practical implication and pedagogical implications.

5.3.1 Theoretical Implications

The present study is grounded in the Socio-Educational Model (SEM) (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), which provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how social, cognitive, and motivational factors collectively shape language learning among Non-English-Major undergraduates in China. SEM emphasizes that learners' attitudes toward the target language, their perceived social value of English, and their engagement in strategic behaviors are interrelated within specific socio-cultural and educational contexts.

The study found that the overall levels of speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes were generally high, indicating active engagement among learners. From the SEM perspective, these findings suggest that learners' use of speaking strategies and their cognitive and behavioral attitudes are associated with sustained motivation, reflecting the influence of social and cultural contexts on language learning.

The positive association between speaking strategies and learning motivation aligns with SEM's proposition that learners' strategic behaviors are associated with their motivation to participate in socially and communicatively meaningful activities. Students who actively employed speaking strategies tended to report higher motivation, indicating that socially mediated strategic engagement is closely associated with learners' motivational orientation.

Speaking anxiety was found to be associated with lower levels of motivation and less positive learning attitudes. SEM explains this association as arising from the interplay between social context and individual affective experience: learners' perceptions of social evaluation, classroom dynamics, and cultural expectations can influence both their anxiety

and motivation, highlighting that affective factors are socially situated and context dependent.

The significant positive association between learning motivation and learning attitudes supports SEM's assumption that learners' attitudes toward the target language community are linked with their motivation and subsequent engagement. Students with stronger motivation, particularly socially oriented, demonstrated more favorable and goal-directed learning attitudes, illustrating the close relationship between socialized motivation and attitudinal development in EFL contexts.

Overall, these findings demonstrate that SEM provides a coherent theoretical lens for interpreting the associations among speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes. By emphasizing the social, motivational, and strategic dimensions of language learning, SEM explains how learners' engagement, affective experiences, and attitudes are interconnected within the socio-cultural and educational context of Chinese higher education. This application of SEM advances a culturally grounded understanding of second language acquisition processes and the social factors that shape learners' language learning behaviors and attitudes.

5.3.2 Practical Implications

The practical implications of this study are directly grounded in its empirical findings and aligned with the research objectives. These implications extend to EFL educators, institutions and policymakers, and learners, aiming to enhance English language learning outcomes through targeted pedagogical, emotional, and motivational interventions.

The findings revealed generally high levels of speaking strategy use, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes among Non-English-Major undergraduates in Chinese universities. This suggests that students are actively engaged in English learning; however, their engagement appears to be primarily motivated by extrinsic factors such as exam requirements, career ambitions, and societal expectations. Instructional designs that incorporate project-based learning, intercultural communication activities, and reflective learning journals can encourage internalization of external goals, leading to more self-determined and sustainable motivation (Namaziandost & Rezai, 2024).

The study established that the use of speaking strategies had a positive association with learning motivation, underscoring the need for explicit strategy instruction in EFL classrooms. Teachers can integrate training on communicative and compensatory strategies, such as maintaining eye contact, adjusting rhythm and intonation, employing paraphrasing, and using synonyms, to build students' confidence and communicative competence (Bárkányi, 2021). Peer modeling, group discussions, and collaborative speaking tasks, consistent with Social Cognitive Theory (Schneider-Thoma et al., 2022), can also enhance self-efficacy through observation and feedback. These pedagogical practices not only mitigate speaking anxiety but also reinforce learners' sense of mastery and persistence in language learning.

The findings indicated that moderate levels of speaking anxiety positively affected learning motivation, suggesting that anxiety should be managed constructively rather than eliminated entirely. Manageable anxiety can act as a motivational stimulus that drives engagement and effort (Ahmetovic et al., 2020). Educators can design structured speaking tasks, such as class discussions, debates, or role-plays, paired with constructive feedback and progressive exposure to speaking situations (Zondag, 2023).

The study confirmed that learning motivation positively associated with learning attitudes, particularly by reinforcing cognitive engagement and positive perceptions toward English learning. Teachers and institutions can create motivation–attitude reinforcement cycles by aligning learning experiences with students' personal aspirations, career goals, and social contexts (Ramzan et al., 2023). For instance, incorporating career-oriented language modules, cultural projects, or service-learning initiatives can strengthen both motivation and emotional connection to learning. As highlighted in the findings, while cognitive attitudes were stronger than affective attitudes, integrating more engaging, emotionally resonant activities can help balance these two dimensions and cultivate sustained learning interest.

At the policy level, the findings emphasize the need for educational policies that transcend the exam-oriented focus of EFL learning in China. Policymakers should promote curricula that value communicative competence, emotional engagement, and motivational development alongside linguistic accuracy. Teacher training programs should include modules on affective pedagogy, anxiety management, and strategy-based instruction to ensure that teachers are equipped to support diverse learner needs and psychological well-being.

For individual learners, the findings suggest the importance of developing self-regulated learning practices. Students should be encouraged to reflect on their motivational drivers, monitor their anxiety levels, and actively apply speaking strategies in authentic contexts. Self-monitoring and goal-setting can enhance self-awareness and foster resilience, enabling learners to sustain motivation and cultivate positive attitudes toward English learning.

Overall, this study demonstrates that effective EFL instruction requires an integrated pedagogical approach that balances cognitive, affective, and motivational dimensions. By explicitly addressing the interrelationships among speaking strategies, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes, educators and policymakers can foster more holistic and human-centered learning environments. Such environments not only promote language proficiency but also nurture confident, motivated, and emotionally resilient learners, aligning with the broader educational goal of lifelong learning and global competence.

5.3.3 Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study offer several pedagogical insights for improving English language education among Chinese Non-English-Major undergraduates. The overall high levels of speaking strategy use, speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitudes suggest that students are generally active and willing to engage in English learning, but require more structured support to sustain motivation and positive attitudes.

First, since speaking strategy use positively associated with learning motivation, teachers should provide explicit instruction and guided practice in the use of communicative and compensatory strategies, such as paraphrasing, self-correction, and using synonyms (Yuan et al., 2022). Classroom activities like role-plays, peer discussions, and task-based speaking projects can encourage strategic thinking and confidence building, which in turn enhance motivation.

Second, the finding that speaking anxiety had a associated with motivation implies that anxiety should not be eliminated entirely but managed to remain at a facilitative level (Ahmetovic et al., 2020). Teachers can design low-stakes speaking activities—such as small-group interactions and peer feedback sessions—to help students experience manageable

pressure while developing resilience. Encouraging reflection on progress and normalizing errors as part of learning can further reduce debilitating anxiety and promote persistence (Zondag, 2023).

Third, as learning motivation associated with learning attitudes, teachers should focus on fostering both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. For example, aligning learning tasks with students' career goals and social aspirations can strengthen extrinsic motivation (Jin, 2024; John et al., 2023), while incorporating engaging, interest-based projects can promote intrinsic enjoyment. This balance helps sustain learners' cognitive and affective engagement with English.

Additionally, since cognitive attitudes were found to be more prominent than affective ones, educators should place greater emphasis on developing emotional engagement in the classroom. Activities that integrate personal reflection, storytelling, and culturally relevant materials can make learning more meaningful and emotionally rewarding (Sharma et al., 2023).

Finally, schools and policymakers should support teachers in implementing holistic, learner-centered pedagogies that address the interconnectedness of speaking strategy use, anxiety, motivation, and attitude. Professional development programs can equip teachers with the tools to recognize emotional factors in learning and design classrooms that are psychologically supportive and communicatively rich (Huang, 2023; Seo, 2025).

By integrating these approaches, educators can enhance students' motivation, foster more positive learning attitudes, and ultimately improve communicative competence and engagement in English learning.

5.3.4 Contributions of the Current Study

This study makes meaningful contributions at the governmental, educational, and individual levels, advancing both theoretical understanding and practical improvement in EFL learning among Non-English-Major Chinese undergraduates.

At the governmental level, this study provides valuable empirical evidence for education authorities and policymakers. By revealing the relationships among speaking anxiety, learning motivation, speaking strategies, and learning attitudes, it highlights the

psychological and motivational challenges commonly faced by EFL learners. The findings offer a scientific foundation for formulating national and institutional policies aimed at reducing students' language learning anxiety, improving motivation, and fostering holistic English education reform. Policymakers can use these insights to design supportive programs that emphasize learner-centered approaches and emotional well-being in language education.

For educators and institutions, this study contributes practical implications for improving teaching quality and classroom engagement. By clarifying how speaking strategies and motivation associated with learning attitudes, the results encourage teachers to adopt communicative, supportive, and anxiety-reducing pedagogical strategies. Schools and universities can integrate these findings into curriculum design, teacher training, and assessment systems to create a more inclusive and motivating learning environment. The study also offers empirical data that can guide institutional decisions on resource allocation and language program enhancement.

At the individual level, the study contributes to learners' self-awareness and academic growth. It helps students recognize the relationship between speaking anxiety and their motivation and performance, encouraging them to develop more effective coping strategies and positive learning attitudes. Understanding the role of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation also empowers students to regulate their own learning goals and behaviors, fostering greater autonomy, resilience, and persistence in English learning.

Collectively, these contributions enrich the theoretical understanding of emotional, motivational, and attitudinal dynamics in EFL learning while offering actionable guidance for government policymakers, educators, and learners. The findings promote the alignment of educational policy, teaching practice, and learner development, thereby advancing the quality and sustainability of English education in China's higher education system.

5.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Study

The current study focused on 415 Non-English-Major Chinese undergraduates from specific universities, which may limit the generalizability of the findings to other populations or educational contexts. To enhance the representativeness and generalizability of future research, it is recommended to include a larger and more diverse sample, encompassing

students from different regions, academic disciplines and educational institutions. This broader sampling approach would ensure that the findings are applicable to a wider range of EFL learners.

This study utilized a quantitative cross-sectional design, collecting data at a single point in time to examine the relationships among speaking anxiety, learning motivation, and learning attitude. While this design allows for the identification of statistical associations between variables, it limits the ability to draw causal inferences. Moreover, relying solely on quantitative data constrains the depth of understanding, particularly for complex and affective constructs such as anxiety and attitude, which may be influenced by contextual and experiential factors that quantitative measures alone cannot fully capture. Future research is encouraged to adopt longitudinal or mixed methods designs to address these limitations. Longitudinal studies could trace changes in speaking anxiety, motivation, and attitudes over time, offering stronger evidence of causality and developmental patterns. Additionally, integrating qualitative approaches, such as interviews or focus groups, could provide richer, more nuanced insights into students' emotional experiences and learning perceptions, complementing quantitative findings and enhancing the interpretive depth of future studies.

This study relied heavily on self-reported questionnaires, which may introduce response biases, such as social desirability bias, where participants might overstate positive behaviors or understate negative ones. To reduce potential biases associated with self-reports, future research should incorporate multiple data collection methods, including interviews, observations and teacher assessments. Triangulating data from various sources would provide a more accurate and holistic understanding of students' experiences and perceptions.

This study primarily employed quantitative analysis, which may not fully capture the complexities and nuances of students' experiences and perceptions. Future research should include qualitative methods, such as in-depth interviews or focus groups, to provide a richer, more comprehensive understanding of the students' emotional and motivational dynamics in EFL learning. Combining quantitative and qualitative approaches would offer a more nuanced perspective on the factors influencing EFL learning outcomes.

5.5 Conclusion

This study provides a comprehensive examination of speaking strategy, speaking anxiety, learning motivation and learning attitudes among EFL Non-English-Major Chinese undergraduates. Through detailed analysis, the research highlights the significant prevalence of speaking anxiety and its intricate relationship with learning motivation and attitudes. The findings reveal that while speaking anxiety presents a notable challenge, it is also associated with heightened motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English. This suggests that addressing speaking anxiety could not only alleviate student discomfort but also enhance their overall engagement and success in language acquisition.

Furthermore, the study underscores the importance of understanding diverse motivational factors, including intrinsic motivation, amotivation and extrinsic motivations related to career and social aspects. These insights provide valuable guidance for educators and policymakers in designing targeted interventions and supportive environments that cater to the varied motivational needs of students. The positive correlations between learning attitudes and motivation emphasize the need for fostering a supportive and encouraging educational climate.

However, the study's limitations, such as the specific sample size, cross-sectional design, reliance on self-reported data and focus on quantitative analysis, call for future research with more diverse and longitudinal approaches. Incorporating qualitative methods and multiple data sources will enrich the understanding of the complex emotional and motivational dynamics in EFL learning.

Overall, this research contributes significantly to the theoretical and practical knowledge in the field of EFL education, offering actionable insights for improving teaching practices and educational policies to better support language learners. By addressing both cognitive and affective aspects of learning, educators can optimize student outcomes and foster more effective and enjoyable language learning experiences.

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Appendix 1: Consent Form for Undergraduates

附录1: 本科生知情同意书

Dear Participant,
尊敬的各位参与者,

I am currently doing Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at the Faculty of Education, Language and Communication (FELC), University Malaysia Sarawak (UNIMAS). My Ph.D. research focuses on the Chinese undergraduates' Speaking Anxiety in EFL, in the classroom, in relation to their motivation and attitudes to learning.

我目前在马来西亚沙捞越大学 (UNIMAS) 的教育, 语言和沟通学院攻读应用语言学博士学位, 我的博士研究重点关注中国本科生在英语课堂上的口语焦虑, 以及他们对学习的动机和态度。

I would like to invite you to kindly participate in this study by completing the enclosed questionnaires. There are five questionnaires stapled together including demographic profile, EFL (English as a foreign Language) speaking strategy, EFL speaking anxiety, EFL Learning motivation, EFL learning attitude.

我想邀请您通过填写所附的问卷来参与这项研究。问卷由五个部分组成, 包括基本信息、EFL (英语作为外语) 口语策略、EFL口语焦虑、EFL学习动机、EFL学习态度。

The questionnaires should take approximately 1 hour to complete. Please note that this is not a test, there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Your participation in this study is voluntary and you are free to withdraw your participation from this study at any time. There is no risk associated with participating in this study. Therefore, you are requested to answer frankly and honestly. Please, attempt all items and do not leave any items blank. Only your honest information can guarantee the success of this research study. It is assured that all information provided by you will remain anonymous, confidential and be used for research purposes only.

填写问卷大约需要1小时。请注意，这不是一个测试，没有“正确”或“错误”的答案。您参与这项研究是自愿的，您可以随时退出这项研究。参与这项研究没有相关风险。因此，请您诚实地回答每一个问题。请尝试填写所有项目，不要将任何项目留空。只有您真实的回答才能保证这项研究的成功。我们也保证您提供的所有信息将保持匿名、保密，并仅用于研究目的。

If you have any questions regarding the survey or the research in general, please feel free to contact me.

如果您对调查问卷或这项研究有任何疑问，请随时致电或发邮件致与我联系。

Thank you very much for your help and support.

非常感谢您的帮助和支持。

Sincerely,
Wenxin Lu

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I agree with the above statement.

我同意上述声明。

Signature:

签名

Date :

日期

Appendix 2: Demographic Profile

附录2: 基本信息

Please tick (√) the appropriate box.

This section collects participants' demographic information. Your information will have us understand your background and will be kept confidential.

请勾选 (√) 出最能代表您意见的选项。

本节收集参与者的基本信息。您的信息有助于我们了解您的背景，我们会对信息保密。

1. Gender 性别:

- Male 男性
- Female 女性

2. Grade 年级:

- Freshman year 大一
- Sophomore year 大二

3. Major 专业:

- Humanities majors 人文专业
- Science and engineering majors 科学和工程专业
- Business and Social Sciences 商业和社会科学

4. How much time in a week do you spend learning English outside the English language classroom?

你一周花多少时间在英语课堂外学习英语?

- Less than 1 hour per week 每周少于一个小时
- 1-2 hours per week 每周 1-2 个小时
- 3-4 hours per week 每周 3-4 个小时
- 5-6 hours per week 每周 5-6 个小时
- More than 7 hours per week 每周多于 7 个小时

5. What type of language test did you pass?

你通过了哪种类型的语言测试?

- Passed CET-4 大学英语四级
- Passed CET-6 大学英语六级
- Not a single one passed 还没有通过任何一项考试

Appendix 3:
Questionnaire on EFL Speaking Strategies

附录3：关于EFL口语策略的问卷

Please tick from SD to SA that best expresses how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please do not leave any item empty.

请从非常不同意到非常同意之间勾选出最能代表您意见的选项，以最好地表达您对以下陈述的同意或不同意程度。请不要将任何题目留空。

SD= Strongly Disagree A= Agree
 D= Disagree SA= Strongly agree
 N= Neutral
 SD= 非常不同意 D= 不同意 N= 一般 A= 同意 SA= 非常同意

When I am speaking in English.... 当我说英语时，						
1	I try to relax when I feel anxious. 当我感到焦虑时，我会试着放松。	SD	D	N	A	SA
2	I try to enjoy the conversation. 我试着享受这次对话。	SD	D	N	A	SA
3	I try to give a good impression to the listener. 我试着给听众留下好印象。	SD	D	N	A	SA
4	I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say. 我想不出该说什么，我会试着补充话题。	SD	D	N	A	SA
5	I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say. 我积极鼓励自己，并表达我想说的话。	SD	D	N	A	SA

6	I pay attention to my pronunciation. 我会注意我的发音。	SD	D	N	A	SA
7	I pay attention to the conversational flow. 我会关注对话的流畅度。	SD	D	N	A	SA
8	I change my way of saying things according to the context. 我会根据环境改变我的说话方式。	SD	D	N	A	SA
9	I take my time to express what I want to say. 我会花时间表达我想说的话。	SD	D	N	A	SA
10	I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard. 为了能够让别人听到，讲话时我会尽量声音洪亮、吐字清晰。	SD	D	N	A	SA
11	I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands. 我会重复我想说的话，直到听众理解。	SD	D	N	A	SA
12	I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech, while I am speaking. 当我讲话时，我会注意听众的反应。	SD	D	N	A	SA
13	I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying. 如果听众不明白我在说什么，我会举例说明。	SD	D	N	A	SA
14	I encourage others to correct errors in my speaking. 我鼓励其他人纠正我口语中的错误。	SD	D	N	A	SA
15	I pay attention to grammar during conversation.	SD	D	N	A	SA

	我会注意对话中的语法。					
16	I pay attention to word order during conversation. 我会注意对话中的单词顺序。	SD	D	N	A	SA
17	I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned. 我会注意到自己使用了一个学过的,符合表达规范的表达。	SD	D	N	A	SA
18	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake. 我注意到自己犯了口语错误时,我会纠正自己。	SD	D	N	A	SA
19	I try to talk like a native speaker. 我试着像母语人士一样说话。	SD	D	N	A	SA
20	I reduce the message. 我减少了句子里的信息。	SD	D	N	A	SA
21	I use simple expressions. 我使用简单的表达方式。	SD	D	N	A	SA
22	I use words which are familiar to me. 我使用我熟悉的单词。	SD	D	N	A	SA
23	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent. 我用新句子替换了最初的句子,因为我覺得最初的句子无法表达我原本的意图。	SD	D	N	A	SA
24	I describe the characteristics of the object instead of using the exact word when I am not	SD	D	N	A	SA

	<p>sure.</p> <p>如果我不确定使用哪个单词，我会描述主体的特征，而不是使用确切的单词。</p>					
25	<p>I try to make eye contact when I am talking.</p> <p>在交谈中我会试着进行眼神交流。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
26	<p>I use gestures if I can't communicate how to express myself.</p> <p>如果不知如何表达自己，我会使用手势。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
27	<p>I use facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.</p> <p>如果不知如何表达自己，我会使用面部表情。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
28	<p>I try to show what I'm saying with pictures.</p> <p>我试着用图片来表达我在说什么。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
29	<p>I try to show what I'm saying with videos.</p> <p>我试着用视频来展示我在说什么。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
30	<p>I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.</p> <p>由于一些语言困难，我会说出不完整的句子。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
31	<p>I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.</p> <p>如果我不能很好地沟通，我会请其他人帮忙。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
32	<p>I give up when I can't make myself understood.</p> <p>当别人无法理解我时，我就会放弃表达。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA

33	I prefer to remain quiet if I don't know what to say to avoid embarrassing myself. 如果我不知道该说什么，我宁愿保持安静，以免让自己难堪。	SD	D	N	A	SA
34	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation. 我首先想到一个我已经知道的英语句子，然后尝试改变它以适应当下情境。	SD	D	N	A	SA
35	I think of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence. 我想用我的母语去构造英语句子。	SD	D	N	A	SA
36	I think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way. 我会模仿英语母语人士的表达习惯，并进行练习。	SD	D	N	A	SA
37	I look for a different way to express the idea, like using a synonym. 我寻找一种不同的方式来表达自己的想法，比如使用同义词。	SD	D	N	A	SA

Appendix 4: Questionnaire on EFL Speaking Anxiety

附录3：关于EFL口语焦虑的问卷

Please tick from SD to SA that best expresses how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please do not leave any item empty.

请从非常不同意到非常同意之间勾选出最能代表您意见的选项，以最好地表达您对以下陈述的同意或不同意程度。请不要将任何题目留空。

SD= Strongly Disagree	A= Agree
D= Disagree	SA= Strongly agree
N= Neutral	
SD= 非常不同意 D= 不同意 N= 一般 A= 同意 SA= 非常同意	

1	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on to speak in English class. 当我知道我要在英语课上发言时，我会紧张地颤抖。	SD	D	N	A	SA
2	I panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class. 当我需要在没有准备的情况下在英语课上发言时，我会惊慌失措。	SD	D	N	A	SA
3	I am embarrassed to volunteer answers orally in my English class. 在英语课上自愿口头回答问题，让我觉得很尴尬。	SD	D	N	A	SA
4	I am self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students. 我感觉在其他学生面前说英语很不自在。	SD	D	N	A	SA
5	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English. 当我说英语时，我担心其他学生会嘲笑	SD	D	N	A	SA

	我。					
6	I am nervous speaking English with native speakers. 我和英语母语人士说英语会很紧张。	SD	D	N	A	SA
7	I am nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says. 当我听不懂英语老师说的每个单词时，我会紧张。	SD	D	N	A	SA
8	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am. 我一直认为其他学生的英语比我好。	SD	D	N	A	SA
9	I do not feel confident when I speak in English class. 当我在英语课上讲英语时，我没有信心。	SD	D	N	A	SA
10	I do not feel comfortable around native speakers of the English. 我和英语母语人士相处时感觉不舒服。	SD	D	N	A	SA
11	I feel anxious about my English class, even if I am well prepared for it. 我对我的英语课感到焦虑，即使我已经做好了充分的准备。	SD	D	N	A	SA
12	I worry about getting left behind as the English class moves so quickly. 英语课讲的很快，我担心会落后。	SD	D	N	A	SA
13	I worry about making mistakes in English class. 我担心在英语课上犯错。	SD	D	N	A	SA
14	I am afraid when I don't understand what the	SD	D	N	A	SA

	<p>teacher is saying in English. 当我听不懂老师讲的英语时，我很害怕。</p>					
15	<p>I am confused when I am speaking in my English class. 当我在英语课上讲英语时，我很困惑。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
16	<p>I forget things I know when I am in the English class. 当我上英语课时，我忘记了我所知道的事情。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
17	<p>I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make. 我害怕英语老师会纠正我犯的每一个错误。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
18	<p>I am afraid of making mistakes in spoken language and being noticed by others. 我害怕在口语上犯错误，担心别人注意到我的错误。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
19	<p>I am upset when I don't understand what the English teacher is correcting. 当我不明白英语老师在纠正什么时，我很难过。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
20	<p>I fear making mistakes when I speak. 我害怕讲英语时犯错。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
21	<p>I am nervous during my oral English test. 我在英语口语考试时很紧张。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA
22	<p>I worry about the consequences of failing my oral English test. 我担心英语口语考试不及格。</p>	SD	D	N	A	SA

23	I worry a great deal before an oral English test. 在英语口语考试之前，我非常担心。	SD	D	N	A	SA
24	I worry a great deal with my performance after an oral English tests. 英语口语测试后，我非常担心我的成绩。	SD	D	N	A	SA

Appendix 5:
Questionnaire on EFL Learning Attitudes

附录5: 关于EFL学习态度的问卷

Please tick from SD to SA that best expresses how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please do not leave any item empty.

请从非常不同意到非常同意之间勾选出最能代表您意见的选项，以最好地表达您对以下陈述的同意或不同意程度。请不要将任何题目留空。

SD= Strongly Disagree	A= Agree
D= Disagree	SA= Strongly agree
N= Neutral	
SD= 非常不同意 D= 不同意 N= 一般 A= 同意 SA= 非常同意	

1	I think studying English is important because it will make me more educated. 我认为学习英语很重要，因为它会让我更有学识。	SD	D	N	A	SA
2	I can study other subjects well because I am good at English. 我可以很好地学习其他科目，因为我的英语很好。	SD	D	N	A	SA
3	I have more understanding when studying English. 学习英语时，我更有理解力。	SD	D	N	A	SA
4	I get new information by study English in which I can link to my previous knowledge. 我通过学习英语获得新信息，我也可以把这些新信息和我以前学过的知识关联到一起。	SD	D	N	A	SA
5	I can summarize the important points in the English subject content by myself.	SD	D	N	A	SA

	我可以自己总结英语主题内容中的要点。					
6	I study English just to pass the exams. 我学习英语只是为了通过考试。	SD	D	N	A	SA
7	I can apply the knowledge from English subject in my real life. 我可以将英语学科的知识应用到我的现实生活中。	SD	D	N	A	SA
8	I am able to think in English language. 我能够用英语思考。	SD	D	N	A	SA
9	I think English language is easy to learn. 我认为学习英语很容易。	SD	D	N	A	SA
10	I think English subject has the content that covers many fields of knowledge. 我认为英语科目的内容涵盖了许多知识领域。	SD	D	N	A	SA
11	I like to give opinions during English lessons. 我喜欢在英语课上发表意见。	SD	D	N	A	SA
12	I like to practice speaking with student in my class who I hear speaking English well. 我喜欢和班上英语说得好的学生一起练习英文。	SD	D	N	A	SA
13	I have more confidence in expressing myself by learning English. 我有很大的信心通过学习英语来表达自己的。	SD	D	N	A	SA
14	I improve my personality by learning English.	SD	D	N	A	SA

	我通过学习英语来改善我的性格。					
15	I finish my English homework as early as possible. 我尽早完成我的英语作业。	SD	D	N	A	SA
16	I like to practice English the way native speakers do. 我喜欢以英语母语人士的方式练习英语。	SD	D	N	A	SA
17	I wish I could have many English speaking friends. 我希望我能有很多讲英语的朋友。	SD	D	N	A	SA
18	I missed the class, I ask my friends or teachers for the homework on what has been taught. 我如果错过了课程，我会向我的朋友或者老师询问课程的内容和作业。	SD	D	N	A	SA
19	I feel enthusiastic to come to class when the English is being taught. 我很热衷于去上英语课。	SD	D	N	A	SA
20	I pay attention when my English teacher is explaining the lesson. 当我的英语老师在讲课时，我会保持专注。	SD	D	N	A	SA
21	I feel proud when studying English language. 当我学习英语时，我感到很自豪。	SD	D	N	A	SA
22	I feel relax when I have to answer a question in my English class. 当我必须在英语课上回答一个问题时，我感到很放松。	SD	D	N	A	SA

23	I feel enjoyable when studying English. 我觉得学习英语很愉快。	SD	D	N	A	SA
24	I prefer to study in English rather than Mandarin. 我更喜欢用英语而不是中文来学习。	SD	D	N	A	SA
25	I enjoy doing activities in English. 我喜欢用英语做活动。	SD	D	N	A	SA
26	I like studying English. 我喜欢学习英语。	SD	D	N	A	SA
27	I wish I could speak English fluently. 我希望我能流利地讲英语。	SD	D	N	A	SA
28	I feel more confident when studying English. 通过学习英语，我感到更自信。	SD	D	N	A	SA
29	I set knowing English as an important goal in my life. 我把懂英语作为我生活中的一个重要目标。	SD	D	N	A	SA
30	I look forward to the time I spend in English class. 我期待着上英语课。	SD	D	N	A	SA

Appendix 6:
Questionnaire on EFL Learning Motivation

附录6: 关于EFL学习动机的问卷

Please tick from SD to SA that best expresses how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please do not leave any item empty.

请从非常不同意到非常同意之间勾选出最能代表您意见的选项，以最好地表达您对以下陈述的同意或不同意程度。请不要将任何题目留空。

SD= Strongly Disagree	A= Agree
D= Disagree	SA= Strongly agree
N= Neutral	
SD= 非常不同意 D= 不同意 N= 一般 A= 同意 SA= 非常同意	

1	I enjoy making discussion in English. 我喜欢用英语进行讨论。	SD	D	N	A	SA
2	I enjoy sharing the new things that I learn in English. 我喜欢分享我用英语学到的新东西。	SD	D	N	A	SA
3	I enjoy reading texts in English. 我喜欢阅读英语文本。	SD	D	N	A	SA
4	I know why I should learn English. 我知道自己为什么要学英语。	SD	D	N	A	SA
5	I understand how useful the English I learn will be. 我明白我学的英语会有很大的用处。	SD	D	N	A	SA
6	I want to learn English because its good to my personality. 我想学英语，因为它对我的性格发展有好处。	SD	D	N	A	SA

7	I chose profession related to English for my future. 未来我会选择与英语相关的职业。	SD	D	N	A	SA
8	I think understand English will benefit me in my career. 我认为懂英语会对我的职业生涯有帮助。	SD	D	N	A	SA
9	I think learning English will help me enter a better university. 我认为学习英语会帮助我进入一所更好的大学。	SD	D	N	A	SA
10	I want to prove myself that I can be successful in English course. 我想证明我可以在英语课程上取得成功。	SD	D	N	A	SA
11	I want to show that I'm better than the other students in English. 我想证明我比其他学生英语更好。	SD	D	N	A	SA
12	I want to improve my ability to work with other cultures by learning English. 我想通过学习英语来提高我与其他文化背景的人合作的能力。	SD	D	N	A	SA

**Appendix 7:
Questionnaire Adaptation**

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
Questionnaire Adaptation of Speaking Strategy				
Social Affective Strategies	1	Nakatani (2006)	I try to relax when I feel anxious.	No changes
	2	Nakatani (2006)	I try to enjoy the conversation.	No changes
	3	Nakatani (2006)	I try to give a good impression to the listener.	No changes
	4	Nakatani (2006)	I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say.	No changes
	5	Nakatani (2006)	I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say.	No changes
	6	Nakatani (2006)	I don't mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 5.
Fluency Oriented Strategies	7	Nakatani (2006)	I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 8.
	8	Nakatani (2006)	I pay attention to my pronunciation.	No changes

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	9	Nakatani (2006)	I pay attention to the conversational flow.	No changes
	10	Nakatani (2006)	I change my way of saying things according to the context.	No changes
	11	Nakatani (2006)	I take my time to express what I want to say.	No changes
	12	Nakatani (2006)	I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard.	No changes
Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking	13	Nakatani (2006)	I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 14.
	14	Nakatani (2006)	I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands.	No changes
	15	Nakatani (2006)	While speaking, I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech.	I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech, while I am speaking.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	16	Nakatani (2006)	I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying.	No changes
	17	Sun et al. (2016)	Encourage others to correct errors in my speaking.	I encourage others to correct errors in my speaking.
Accuracy-Oriented Strategies	18	Nakatani (2006)	I pay attention to grammar and word order during conversation.	I pay attention to grammar during conversation.
	19			I pay attention to word order during conversation.
	20	Nakatani (2006)	I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned.	No changes
	21	Nakatani (2006)	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake.	No changes
	22	Nakatani (2006)	I try to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 18.
	23	Nakatani (2006)	I try to talk like a native speaker.	No changes

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
Message Reduction and Alteration Strategies	24	Nakatani (2006)	I reduce the message and use simple expressions.	I reduce the message.
	25			I use simple expressions.
	26	Nakatani (2006)	I use words which are familiar to me.	No changes
	27	Nakatani (2006)	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent.	No changes
	28	Metcalf & Noom-Ura (2013)	I change my sentence(s) when I feel I can't get the message across with the first/previous sentence I produced.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 27.
	29	Chuanchaisit & Prapphal (2009)	I describe the characteristics of the object instead of using the exact word when I am not sure.	No changes
Non-Verbal Strategies	30	Nakatani (2006)	I try to make eye contact when I am talking.	No changes

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
while Speaking	31	Nakatani (2006)	I use gestures and facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.	I use gestures if I can't communicate how to express myself.
	32			I use facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.
	33	Benattabou (2020)	When the other person can't understand me, I try to show what I'm trying to say with pictures or videos.	I try to show what I'm saying with pictures.
	34			I try to show what I'm saying with videos.
	35	Metcalfe & Noom-Ura (2013)	When I can't think of a word, I use mime to try and convey the meaning.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 31.
Message Abandonment Strategies	36	Nakatani (2006)	I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	No changes
	37	Nakatani (2006)	I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.	No changes

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	38	Nakatani (2006)	I give up when I can't make myself understood.	No changes
	39	Nakatani (2006)	I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 38.
	40	Metcalf & Noom-Ura (2013)	I prefer to remain quiet if I don't know what to say to avoid embarrassing myself.	No changes
Attempt to Think in English	41	Nakatani (2006)	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.	No changes
	42	Nakatani (2006)	I think of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.	No changes
	43	Sun et al. (2016)	Think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way.	I think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	44	Sun et al. (2016)	Look for a different way to express the idea, like using a synonym.	I look for a different way to express the idea, like using a synonym.
	45	Sun et al. (2016)	Make up new words or guess if I don't know the right ones to use.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 41.
Questionnaire Adaptation of Speaking Anxiety				
Interaction Anxiety	1	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on to speak in English class.
	2	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.	I panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.
	3	Horwitz et al. (1986)	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.	I am embarrassed to volunteer answers orally in my English class.
	4	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language	I am self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
			in front of other students.	
	5	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 1.
Audience Anxiety	6	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.
	7	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.	I am nervous speaking English with native speakers.
	8	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.	I am nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.
	9	Horwitz et al. (1986)	When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 8.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	10	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.
Confidence Anxiety	11	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 12.
	12	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.	I do not feel confident when I speak in English class.
	13	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.	I do not feel comfortable around native speakers of the English.
	14	Horwitz et al. (1986)	Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.	I feel anxious about my English class, even if I am well prepared for it.
	15	Horwitz et al. (1986)	Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	I worry about getting left behind as the

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
				language class moves so quickly.
Language proficiency Anxiety	16	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 31.
	17	Horwitz et al. (1986)	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	I am afraid when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.
	18	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 1.
	19			I am confused when I am speaking in my English class.
20	Horwitz et al. (1986)	In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	I forget things I know when I am in the English class.	
Negative evaluation Anxiety	21	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	22	Aydin (2008)	Fear of being noted the shortcomings by others	This item was deleted, similar to Question 21.
	23	Aydin (2008)	Fear of being found fault by others	I am afraid of making mistakes in spoken language and being noticed by others.
	24	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	I am upset when I don't understand what the English teacher is correcting.
	25	Aydin (2008)	Fear of making verbal or spelling mistakes	I fear making mistakes when I speak.
Test Anxiety	26	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.	I am nervous during my oral English test.
	27	Horwitz et al. (1986)	I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	I worry about the consequences of failing my oral English test.
	28	Horwitz et al. (1986)	The more I study for a language	The meaning is unclear.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
			test, the more confused I get.	
	29	Aydin (2013)	If I were to take an English test, I would worry a great deal before taking it.	I worry a great deal before an oral English test.
	30	Aydin (2013)	Thoughts of doing poorly interfere with my performance on tests.	I worry a great deal with my performance after an oral English tests.
Questionnaire Adaptation of Motivation Questionnaire				
Intrinsic	1	Aydin et al. (2014)	I enjoy making discussion on biology subjects.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 6.
	2	Aydin et al. (2014)	Learning new things on the biology subjects that I am interested in is enjoyable.	I enjoy learning new things on the English course that I am interested in.
	3	Aydin et al. (2014)	I enjoy sharing the new things that I learn in biology.	I enjoy sharing the new things that I learn in English.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	4	Aydın et al. (2014)	I enjoy reading magazines and texts related to biology.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 5.
	5			I enjoy reading texts in English.
Amotivation	6	Aydın et al. (2014)	Biology subjects interest me.	I am interested in the English language course.
	7	Aydın et al. (2014)	Actually, I don't think the subjects that I learn will be useful for me in the future.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 9.
	8	Aydın et al. (2014)	Honestly, I don't know why I should learn biology.	I know why I should learn English.
	9	Aydın et al. (2014)	I have no idea. I don't understand how useful the things I learn will be.	I understand how useful the English I learn will be.
	10	Aydın et al. (2014)	In fact, I don't like participating the activities in biology.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 6.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	11	Schreglmann (2018)	I keep away from it since it has a negative effect on social life.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 9.
	12	Schreglmann (2018)	I do not want to learn information technology because it hurts my personality.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 9.
Extrinsic Motivation - Career	13	Aydın et al. (2014)	Because it is related to the profession that I chose for my future.	I chose profession related to English for my future.
	14	Aydın et al. (2014)	Because it is important in my choice of profession.	I think understand English will benefit me in my career.
	15	Aydın et al. (2014)	To get a good job in the field of biology.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 14.
	16	Aydın et al. (2014)	To be able to make better choices for university.	I think learning English will help me enter a better university.
	17	Lim (2012)	To meet the demand by the workplace	This item was deleted, similar to Question 14.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
Extrinsic Motivation - Social	18	Aydın et al. (2014)	To show my family that I'm successful in biology.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 19.
	19	Aydın et al. (2014)	To prove myself that I can be successful in biology subjects.	I want to prove myself that I can be successful in English course.
	20	Aydın et al. (2014)	To show that I'm better than the other students.	I want to show that I'm better than the other students in English.
	21	Aydın et al. (2014)	I want to be praised by the people around me.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 20.
	22	Selvarajah et al., (2021)	To improve my ability to work with other cultures	I want to improve my ability to work with other cultures by learning English.
Questionnaire Adaptation of Attitude Questionnaire				
Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
Cognitive	1	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying English is important because it will make me more educated.	I think studying English is important because it will make me more educated.
	2	Abidin et al. (2012)	Being good at English will help me study other subjects well.	I can study other subjects well because I am good at English.
	3	Abidin et al. (2012)	I have more knowledge and more understanding when studying English.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 1.
	4			I have more understanding when studying English.
	5	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying English helps me getting new information in which I can link to my previous knowledge.	I get new information by study English in which I can link to my previous knowledge.
	6	Abidin et al. (2012)	I cannot summarize the important points in the English	I can summarize the important points in the English subject

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
			subject content by myself.	content by myself.
	7	Abidin et al. (2012)	Frankly, I study English just to pass the exams.	I study English just to pass the exams.
	8	Abidin et al. (2012)	In my opinion, people who speak more than one language are very knowledgeable.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 1.
	9	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying English helps me communicate in English effectively.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 10.
	10	Abidin et al. (2012)	I cannot apply the knowledge from English subject in my real life.	I can apply the knowledge from English subject in my real life.
	11	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying English makes me able to create new thoughts.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 12.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	12	Abidin et al. (2012)	I am able to think and analyze the content in English language.	I am able to think in English language.
	13		I am able to analyze the content in English language.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 12.
	14	Abidin et al. (2012)	I am not satisfied with my performance in the English subject. (cognitive evaluations of learning English)	This item was deleted, similar to Question 14.
	15	Abidin et al. (2012)	In my opinion, English language is difficult and complicated to learn.	I think English language is easy to learn.
	16	Abidin et al. (2012)	English subject has the content that covers many fields of knowledge.	I think English subject has the content that covers many fields of knowledge.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
Behavioural	17	Abidin et al. (2012)	Speaking English anywhere makes me feel worried	This item was deleted, similar to Question 35.
	18	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying English helps me to have good relationships with friends.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 28.
	19	Abidin et al. (2012)	I like to give opinions during English lessons.	No changes
	20	Abidin et al. (2012)	I am able to make myself pay attention during studying English.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 32.
	21	Abidin et al. (2012)	When I hear a student in my class speaking English well, I like to practice speaking with him/her.	I like to practice speaking with student in my class who I hear speaking English well.
	22	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying English makes me have more confidence in expressing myself.	I have more confidence in expressing myself by learning English.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	23	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying English helps me to improve my personality.	I improve my personality by learning English.
	24	Abidin et al. (2012)	I put off my English homework as much as possible.	I finish my English homework as early as possible.
	25	Abidin et al. (2012)	I am not relaxed whenever I have to speak in my English class.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 35.
	26	Abidin et al. (2012)	I feel embarrassed to speak English in front of other students.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 35.
	27	Abidin et al. (2012)	I like to practice English the way native speakers do.	No changes
	28	Abidin et al. (2012)	I wish I could have many English speaking friends.	No changes
	29	Abidin et al. (2012)	When I miss the class, I never ask my friends or	I missed the class, I ask my friends for the homework

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
			teachers for the homework on what has been taught.	on what has been taught.
	30		I missed the class, I ask teachers for the homework on what has been taught.	Combined with Question 29 into a single question.
	31	Abidin et al. (2012)	I do not feel enthusiastic to come to class when the English is being thought.	I feel enthusiastic to come to class when the English is being thought.
	32	Abidin et al. (2012)	I do not pay any attention when my English teacher is explaining the lesson.	I pay attention when my English teacher is explaining the lesson.
Affective (Emotional)	33	Abidin et al. (2012)	I feel proud when studying English language.	No changes
	34	Abidin et al. (2012)	I feel excited when I communicate in English with others.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 21.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	35	Abidin et al. (2012)	I don't get anxious when I have to answer a question in my English class.	I feel relax when I have to answer a question in my English class.
	36	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying foreign languages like English is enjoyable	I feel enjoyable when studying English.
	37	Abidin et al. (2012)	To be inquisitive makes me study English well.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 31.
	38	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying English makes me have good emotions (feelings).	This item was deleted, similar to Question 36.
	39	Abidin et al. (2012)	I prefer studying in my mother tongue rather than any other foreign language.	I prefer to study in English rather than Mandarin.
	40	Abidin et al. (2012)	I enjoy doing activities in English.	No changes

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	41	Abidin et al. (2012)	I do not like studying English.	I like studying English
	42	Abidin et al. (2012)	I wish I could speak English fluently.	No changes
	43	Abidin et al. (2012)	I am interested in studying English.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 36.
	44	Abidin et al. (2012)	Studying English subject makes me feel more confident.	I feel more confident when studying English.
	45	Abidin et al. (2012)	To be honest, I really have little interest in my English class.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 36.
	46	Abidin et al. (2012)	Knowing English is an important goal in my life.	I set knowing English as an important goal in my life.
	47	Abidin et al. (2012)	I look forward to the time I spend in English class.	I look forward to the time I spend in English class.

Category	No	Source (reference)	Original Item/Statement	Adapted Item/Statement
	48	Abidin et al. (2012)	I like my English class so much; I look forward to studying more English in the future.	This item was deleted, similar to Question 47.

Appendix 8: Translation Review—Expert 1

This table is designed for evaluating the translation quality of the scale items to ensure semantic and conceptual equivalence between the original and translated versions. Translation experts are requested to carefully review each pair of items and assess:

本表旨在评估量表条目的翻译质量，以确保译文在语义和概念上与原文保持一致。请各位翻译专家仔细对照英文原文和中文译文，重点考察以下三个方面：

Semantic Equivalence – whether the translation accurately conveys the meaning of the original item.

语义等值：译文是否准确传达了原文的意义。

Conceptual Consistency – whether the translation faithfully represents the intended concept.

概念一致性：译文是否忠实反映了原条目所测量的概念。

Cultural Appropriateness – whether the translation aligns with natural expressions in the target culture.

文化適切性：译文是否符合目标语言的文化表达习惯。

If any item is unclear, awkward, or culturally inappropriate, please provide your suggested revision and rationale in the “Expert Suggestions” column.

如发现译文存在歧义、用词不当或文化不符，请在“专家修改意见”一栏中提出具体修改建议，并说明理由。

Item No.	Original Item (English)	Translated Item (Chinese)	Expert Suggestion / Revision Rationale	Action Taken (Revise / Keep)
Demographic Profile				
1	Gender: ● Male ● Female	性别: ● 男性 ● 女性	无需修改。	Keep
2	Grade: ● Freshman year ● Sophomore year	年级: ● 大一 ● 大二	无需修改。	Keep
3	Major: ● Humanities majors ● Science and engineering majors ● Business and Social Sciences	专业: ● 人文专业 ● 科学和工程专业 ● 商业和社会科学	无需修改。	Keep
4	How much time in a week do you spend learning English outside the English language classroom? ● Less than 1 hour per week ● 1-2 hours per week ● 3-4 hours per week ● 5-6 hours per week ● More than 7 hours per week	你一周花多少时间在英语课堂外学习英语? ● 每周少于一个小时 ● 每周 1-2 个小时 ● 每周 3-4 个小时 ● 每周 5-6 个小时 ● 每周多于 7 个小时	无需修改。	Keep
5	What type of language test did you pass? ● Passed CET-4 ● Passed CET-6 ● Not a single one passed	你通过了哪种类型的语言测试? ● 大学英语四级 ● 大学英语六级 ● 还没有通过任何一项考试	无需修改。	Keep
Speaking Strategy				
1	I try to relax when I feel anxious.	当我感到焦虑时，我会试着放松。	无需修改。	Keep
2	I try to enjoy the conversation.	我试着享受这次谈话。	无需修改。	Keep
3	I try to give a good impression to the listener.	我试着给听众留下好印象。	无需修改。	Keep
4	I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say.	我想不出该说什么，我会试着补充话题。	无需修改。	Keep
5	I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say.	我积极鼓励自己，并表达我想说的话。	无需修改。	Keep
6	I do not mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes.	我不介意冒险，即使我可能会犯错。	我不介意 大胆开口 ，即使我可能会犯错。	Revise
7	I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation.	我会注意我的节奏和语调。	无需修改。	Keep

8	I pay attention to my pronunciation.	我会注意我的发音。	无需修改。	Keep
9	I pay attention to the conversational flow.	我会关注对话的流程。	我会关注对话的 流畅度 。	Revise
10	I change my way of saying things according to the context.	我会根据上下文改变我的说话方式。	我会根据 环境 改变我的说话方式。	Revise
11	I take my time to express what I want to say.	我会花时间表达我想说的话。	无需修改。	Keep
12	I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard.	为了能够让别人听到，讲话时我会尽量声音洪亮、吐字清晰。	无需修改。	Keep
13	I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.	我会确认听众是否理解我想说的话。	无需修改。	Keep
14	I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands.	我会重复我想说的话，直到听众理解。	无需修改。	Keep
15	I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech, while I am speaking.	当我说话时，我会注意听众对我说话的反应。	无需修改。	Keep
16	I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying.	如果听众不明白我在说什么，我会举例说明。	无需修改。	Keep
17	I encourage others to correct errors in my speaking.	我鼓励其他人纠正我说话中的错误。	无需修改。	Keep
18	I pay attention to grammar during conversation.	聊天时，我会注意语法。	我会注意对话中的语法。	Revise
19	I pay attention to word order during conversation.	在谈话中，我注意单词顺序。	我会注意对话中的单词顺序。	Revise
20	I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned.	我会注意到自己使用了一个学过的、符合表达规范的表达。	无需修改。	Keep
21	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake.	我注意到自己犯了口语错误时，我会纠正自己。	无需修改。	Keep
22	I try to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence.	我试着强调句子的主语和动词。	无需修改。	Keep
23	I try to talk like a native speaker.	我试着像母语人士一样说话。	无需修改。	Keep
24	I reduce the message.	我减少了信息。	无需修改。	Keep
25	I use simple expressions.	我使用简单的表达方式。	无需修改。	Keep
26	I use words which are familiar to me.	我使用我熟悉的单词。	无需修改。	Keep
27	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent.	我替换了原始消息，因为我觉得无法实现我的初衷。	我用新句子替换了最初的句子，因为我覺得最初的句子无法表达我原本的意图。	Revise

28	I change my sentence(s) when I feel I can't get the message across with the first/previous sentence I produced.	我觉得我无法用我原先的句子传达信息，我会更改我的句子。	无需修改。	Keep
29	I describe the characteristics of the object instead of using the exact word when I am not sure.	当我不确定时，我描述对象的特征，而不是使用确切的单词。	如果我不确定使用哪个单词，我会描述主体的特征，而不是使用确切的单词。	Revise
30	I try to make eye contact when I am talking.	在交谈中我会试着进行眼神交流。	无需修改。	Keep
31	I use gestures if I can't communicate how to express myself.	如果不知如何表达自己，我会使用手势。	无需修改。	Keep
32	I use facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.	如果不知如何表达自己，我会使用面部表情。	无需修改。	Keep
33	I try to show what I'm saying with pictures.	我试着用图片来表达我在说什么。	无需修改。	Keep
34	I try to show what I'm saying with videos.	我试着用视频来展示我在说什么。	无需修改。	Keep
35	I use mime to try and convey the meaning, when I can't think of a word.	当我想不出一个词时，我会用无声表演的方式来传达我的意思。	无需修改。	Keep
36	I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	由于一些语言困难，我会说出不完整的句子。	无需修改。	Keep
37	I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.	如果我不能很好地沟通，我会请其他人帮忙。	无需修改。	Keep
38	I give up when I can't make myself understood.	当别人无法理解我时，我就会放弃表达。	无需修改。	Keep
39	I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words.	我放弃了事先想好的句子，只说了几个单词。	无需修改。	Keep
40	I prefer to remain quiet if I don't know what to say to avoid embarrassing myself.	如果我不知道该说什么，我宁愿保持安静，以免让自己难堪。	无需修改。	Keep
41	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.	我首先想到一个我已经知道的英语句子，然后尝试改变它以适应当下情境。	无需修改。	Keep
42	I think of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.	我想用我的母语去构造英语句子。	无需修改。	Keep
43	I think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way.	我会模仿以英语为母语的人的表达习惯，并进行练习。	无需修改。	Keep

44	I look for a different way to express the idea, like using a synonym.	我寻找一种不同的方式来表达这个想法, 比如使用同义词。	无需修改。	Keep
45	I make up new words or guess if I don't know the right ones to use.	当我不知道该用什么词时, 我会编造新词。	无需修改。	Keep
Speaking Anxiety				
1	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on to speak in English class.	当我知道我将被要求在英语课上发言时, 我会颤抖。	无需修改。	Keep
2	I panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	当我在英语课上不得不在没有准备的情况下说话时, 我惊慌失措。	无需修改。	Keep
3	I am embarrassed to volunteer answers orally in my English class.	在英语课上自愿口头回答, 我感到很尴尬。	无需修改。	Keep
4	I am self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students	我感觉在其他学生面前说英语很不自在。	无需修改。	Keep
5	I am nervous in my English class than in my other classes.	比起其他课程, 英语课让我更紧张。	我上英语课比上其他课更紧张。	Keep
6	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	当我说英语时, 我担心其他学生会嘲笑我。	无需修改。	Keep
7	I am nervous speaking English with native speakers.	我和英语母语人士说英语会很紧张。	无需修改。	Keep
8	I am nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	当我听不懂英语老师说的每个单词时, 我会很紧张。	无需修改。	Keep
9	I am nervous, when I'm on my way to English class.	去上英语课的路上, 我很紧张。	无需修改。	Keep
10	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.	我一直认为其他学生的英语比我好。	无需修改。	Keep
11	I do not feel sure of myself when I am speaking in English class.	当我在英语课上讲英语时, 我对自己没有把握。	无需修改。	Keep
12	I do not feel confident when I speak in English class.	当我在英语课上讲英语时, 我没有信心。	无需修改。	Keep
13	I do not feel comfortable around native speakers of the English.	我和英语母语人士相处时感觉不舒服。	无需修改。	Keep
14	I feel anxious about my English class, even if I am well prepared for it.	我对我的英语课感到焦虑, 即使我已经做好了充分的准备。	无需修改。	Keep

15	I worry about getting left behind as the English class moves so quickly.	英语课讲的很快，我担心会落后。	无需修改。	Keep
16	I worry about making mistakes in English class.	我担心在英语课上犯错。	无需修改。	Keep
17	I am afraid when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	当我听不懂老师用英语说的话时，我很害怕。	无需修改。	Keep
18	I am nervous when I am speaking in my English class.	当我在英语课上说话时，我很紧张。	当我在英语课上讲英语时，我很紧张。	Revise
19	I am confused when I am speaking in my English class.	当我在英语课上说话时，我很困惑。	当我在英语课上讲英语时，我很困惑。	Revise
20	I forget things I know when I am in the English class.	当我上英语课时，我忘记了我所知道的事情。	无需修改。	Keep
21	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	我害怕英语老师即将纠正我犯的每一个错误。	无需修改。	Keep
22	I am afraid that the shortcomings of my spoken English will be pointed out to me by others.	我担心别人指出我英语口语中的缺点。	无需修改。	Keep
23	I am afraid of making mistakes in spoken language and being noticed by others.	我害怕在口语上犯错误，担心别人注意到我的错误。	无需修改。	Keep
24	I am upset when I don't understand what the English teacher is correcting.	当我不明白英语老师在纠正什么时，我很难过。	无需修改。	Keep
25	I fear making mistakes when I speak.	当我讲英语时，我害怕犯错	我害怕讲英语时犯错。	Revise
26	I am nervous during my oral English test.	我在英语口语考试时很紧张。	无需修改。	Keep
27	I worry about the consequences of failing my oral English test.	我担心英语口语考试不及格。	无需修改。	Keep
28	I get more confused, the more I study for an oral English test.	我越是为英语口语考试学习，我就越感到困惑。	无需修改。	Keep
29	I worry a great deal before an oral English test.	在英语口语考试之前，我非常担心。	无需修改。	Keep
30	I worry a great deal with my performance after an oral English tests.	英语口语测试后，我非常担心我的表现。	英语口语测试后，我非常担心我的成绩。	Revise

Learning Attitude				
1	I think studying English is important because it will make me more educated.	我认为学习英语很重要，因为它会让我受过更多的教育。	无需修改。	Keep
2	I can study other subjects well because I am good at English.	我可以很好地学习其他科目，因为我的英语很好。	无需修改。	Keep
3	I have more knowledge when studying English.	学习英语时，我会学到更多的知识。	无需修改。	Keep
4	I have more understanding when studying English.	学习英语时，我更有理解力。	无需修改。	Keep
5	I get new information by study English in which I can link to my previous knowledge.	我通过学习英语获得新信息，我可以在其中联系到我以前的知识。	我通过学习英语获得新信息，我也可以把这些新信息和我以前学过的知识关联到一起。	Revise
6	I can summarize the important points in the English subject content by myself.	我可以自己总结英语主题内容中的要点。	无需修改。	Keep
7	I study English just to pass the exams.	我学习英语只是为了通过考试。	无需修改。	Keep
8	I think people who can speak more than one language are very knowledgeable.	我认为会说一种以上语言的人知识都很渊博。	无需修改。	Keep
9	I think study English helps me communicate in English effectively.	我认为学习英语有助于我有效地用英语交流。	无需修改。	Keep
10	I can apply the knowledge from English subject in my real life.	我可以将英语学科的知识应用到我的现实生活中。	无需修改。	Keep
11	I think studying English helps me create new thoughts	我认为学习英语有助于我创造新的想法。	无需修改。	Keep
12	I am able to think in English language.	我能够用英语思考。	无需修改。	Keep
13	I am able to analyze the content in English language.	我能够分析英语内容。	无需修改。	Keep
14	I am satisfied with my performance in the English subject.	我对我在英语科目上的表现很满意。	无需修改。	Keep
15	I think English language is easy to learn.	我认为英语很容易学。	我认为学习英语很容易。	Revise
16	I think English subject has the content that covers many fields of knowledge.	我认为英语科目的内容涵盖了许多知识领域。	无需修改。	Keep

17	I feel comfortable to speak English anywhere.	在任何地方讲英语，我都感觉很舒服。	无需修改。	Keep
18	I think study English helps me to have good relationships with friends.	我认为学习英语有助于我与朋友建立良好的关系。	无需修改。	Keep
19	I like to give opinions during English lessons.	我喜欢在英语课上发表意见。	无需修改。	Keep
20	I am able to make myself pay attention during studying English.	在学习英语时，我能够让自己集中注意力。	无需修改。	Keep
21	I like to practice speaking with student in my class who I hear speaking English well.	我喜欢和班上英语说得好好的学生一起练习英文。	无需修改。	Keep
22	I have more confidence in expressing myself by learning English.	我有很大的信心通过学习英语来表达自己的。	无需修改。	Keep
23	I improve my personality by learning English.	我通过学习英语来提高我的个性。	无需修改。	Keep
24	I finish my English homework as early as possible.	我尽早完成我的英语作业。	无需修改。	Keep
25	I feel relaxed whenever I have to speak in my English class.	每当我在英语课上说话时，我都会感到放松。	无需修改。	Keep
26	I feel comfortable to speak English in front of other students.	我觉得在其他学生面前说英语很舒服。	无需修改。	Keep
27	I like to practice English the way native speakers do.	我喜欢以英语母语人士的方式练习英语。	无需修改。	Keep
28	I wish I could have many English speaking friends.	我希望我能有很多讲英语的朋友。	无需修改。	Keep
29	I missed the class, I ask my friends for the homework on what has been taught.	我如果错过了课程，我会向我的朋友询问课程的内容和作业。	无需修改。	Keep
30	I missed the class, I ask teachers for the homework on what has been taught.	我如果错过了课程，我会向老师询问关于课程的内容和作业。	无需修改。	Keep
31	I feel enthusiastic to come to class when the English is being thought.	在思考英语的时候，我很热情地来上课。	我很热衷于去上英语课。	Revise
32	I pay attention when my English teacher is explaining the lesson.	当我的英语老师在上课时，我会保持专注。	当我的英语老师在讲课时，我会保持专注。	Revise
33	I feel proud when studying English language.	当我学习英语时，我感到很自豪。	无需修改。	Keep
34	I feel excited when I communicate in English with others.	当我用英语与他人交流时，我感到很兴奋。	无需修改。	Keep

35	I feel relax when I have to answer a question in my English class.	当我必须在英语课上回答一个问题时，我感到很放松。	无需修改。	Keep
36	I feel enjoyable when studying English.	我觉得学习英语很愉快。	无需修改。	Keep
37	I am eager to learn,which makes me study English well.	我对学习的渴望，让我能够学好英语。	无需修改。	Keep
38	I have good emotions when studying English.	学习英语时，我的情绪很好。	无需修改。	Keep
39	I prefer to study in English rather than Mandarin.	我更喜欢用英语而不是中文来学习。	无需修改。	Keep
40	I enjoy doing activities in English.	我喜欢用英语做活动。	无需修改。	Keep
41	I like studying English.	我喜欢学习英语。	无需修改。	Keep
42	I wish I could speak English fluently.	我希望我能说流利的英语。	无需修改。	Keep
43	I am interested in studying English.	我对学习英语很感兴趣。	无需修改。	Keep
44	I feel more confident when studying English.	通过学习英语，我感到更有信心。	无需修改。	Keep
45	I have little interest in my English class.	我对我的英语课没什么兴趣。	无需修改。	Keep
46	I set knowing English as an important goal in my life.	我把懂英语作为我生活中的一个重要目标。	无需修改。	Keep
47	I look forward to the time I spend in English class.	我期待着上英语课。	无需修改。	Keep
48	I like my English class so much.	我非常喜欢我的英语课。	无需修改。	Keep
49	I look forward to studying more English in the future.	我期待着将来学习更多的英语。	无需修改。	Keep
Learning Motivation				
1	I enjoy making discussion in English.	我喜欢用英语进行讨论。	无需修改。	Keep
2	I enjoy learning new things on the English course that I am interested in.	我喜欢在我感兴趣的英语课程中学习新东西。	无需修改。	Keep
3	I enjoy sharing the new things that I learn in English.	我喜欢分享我用英语学到的新东西。	无需修改。	Keep
4	I enjoy reading magazines in English.	我喜欢用英语阅读杂志。	我喜欢阅读英语杂志。	Revise

5	I enjoy reading texts in English.	我喜欢读英语课文。	我喜欢阅读英语文本。	Revise
6	I am interested in the English language course.	我对英语课程感兴趣。	无需修改。	Keep
7	I think English will be useful for me in the future.	我认为英语会对我的未来有帮助。	我认为将来英语会对我有用。	Revise
8	I know why I should learn English.	我知道为什么学英语。	无需修改。	Keep
9	I understand how useful the English I learn will be.	我明白我学的英语会有很大的用处。	无需修改。	Keep
10	I like participating the activities in English.	我喜欢参加英语活动。	无需修改。	Keep
11	I like learning English since it has a positive effect on social life.	我喜欢学习英语，因为它对社交生活有积极的影响。	无需修改。	Keep
12	I want to learn English because its good to my personality.	我想学英语，因为它对我的性格发展有好处。	无需修改。	Keep
13	I chose profession related to English for my future.	我会选择选着与英语相关的职业。	未来我会选择与英语相关的职业。	Revise
14	I think understand English will benefit me in my career.	我认为懂英语会对我的职业生涯有好处。	无需修改。	Keep
15	I think learning English will give me a job advantage.	我认为学习英语会给我带来找工作的优势。	无需修改。	Keep
16	I think learning English will help me enter a better university.	我认为学习英语会帮助我进入一所更好的大学。	无需修改。	Keep
17	I believe that knowing English will meet the demand of the workplace.	我相信懂英语能满足工作场所的需求。	我认为懂英语能满足职场需求。	Revise
18	I want to show my family that I'm successful in English.	我想向我的家人展示我在英语方面很成功。	无需修改。	Keep
19	I want to prove myself that I can be successful in English course.	我想证明我可以在英语课程上取得成功。	无需修改。	Keep
20	I want to show that I'm better than the other students in English.	我想证明我比其他学生英语更好。	无需修改。	Keep
21	I want to be praised by the people around me that my English is good.	我想让大家都夸我的英语很好。	我想让大家都夸我的英语好。	Revise
22	I want to improve my ability to work with other cultures by learning English.	我想通过学习英语来提高我与其他文化合作的能力。	无需修改。	Keep

To ensure the accuracy and academic reliability of the translated instrument, we kindly ask each expert to provide the following certification information upon completing the translation review:

为确保本量表翻译的准确性与学术可靠性，敬请各位专家在完成审阅后，提供以下证明信息：

Full name/姓名: 李胜男 Shengnan Li

Academic title/ 职称: 副教授 Associate Professor

institutional affiliation/所属单位: Wei Fang Institute of Technology 潍坊理工学院

Your area of expertise/您的专业领域: Language Learning and Teaching 语言学习与教学

A brief confirmation statement indicating that you have reviewed all items and verified the semantic and conceptual equivalence between the original and translated versions, confirming that the translation is appropriate for use in the Chinese context;

请提供一份简要确认声明，说明您已审阅全部条目，并确认译文在语义和概念上与原文一致，且适用于中文语境；

This certification will be used solely for academic purposes as supporting evidence of translation validity and expert involvement. Your professional contribution is sincerely appreciated.

此证明信息仅用于学术研究，以佐证量表翻译的科学性与专家参与的真实性。非常感谢您的专业支持与宝贵时间。

Date and signature



日期与签名:

2024 年 3 月 5 日

Appendix 9: Translation Review—Expert 2

This table is designed for evaluating the translation quality of the scale items to ensure semantic and conceptual equivalence between the original and translated versions. Translation experts are requested to carefully review each pair of items and assess:

本表旨在评估量表条目的翻译质量，以确保译文在语义和概念上与原文保持一致。请各位翻译专家仔细对照英文原文和中文译文，重点考察以下三个方面：

Semantic Equivalence – whether the translation accurately conveys the meaning of the original item.

语义等值：译文是否准确传达了原文的意义。

Conceptual Consistency – whether the translation faithfully represents the intended concept.

概念一致性：译文是否忠实反映了原条目所测量的概念。

Cultural Appropriateness – whether the translation aligns with natural expressions in the target culture.

文化適切性：译文是否符合目标语言的文化表达习惯。

If any item is unclear, awkward, or culturally inappropriate, please provide your suggested revision and rationale in the “Expert Suggestions” column.

如发现译文存在歧义、用词不当或文化不符，请在“专家修改意见”一栏中提出具体修改建议，并说明理由。

Item No.	Original Item (English)	Translated Item (Chinese)	Expert Suggestion / Revision Rationale	Action Taken (Revise / Keep)
Demographic Profile				
1	Gender: ● Male ● Female	性别: ● 男性 ● 女性		Keep
2	Grade: ● Freshman year ● Sophomore year	年级: ● 大一 ● 大二		Keep
3	Major: ● Humanities majors ● Science and engineering majors ● Business and Social Sciences	专业: ● 人文专业 ● 科学和工程专业 ● 商业和社会科学		Keep
4	How much time in a week do you spend learning English outside the English language classroom? ● Less than 1 hour per week ● 1-2 hours per week ● 3-4 hours per week ● 5-6 hours per week ● More than 7 hours per week	你一周花多少时间在英语课堂外学习英语? ● 每周少于一个小时 ● 每周 1-2 个小时 ● 每周 3-4 个小时 ● 每周 5-6 个小时 ● 每周多于 7 个小时		Keep
5	What type of language test did you pass? ● Passed CET-4 ● Passed CET-6 ● Not a single one passed	你通过了哪种类型的语言测试? ● 大学英语四级 ● 大学英语六级 ● 还没有通过任何一项考试		Keep
Speaking Strategy				
1	I try to relax when I feel anxious.	当我感到焦虑时，我会试着放松。		Keep
2	I try to enjoy the conversation.	我试着享受这次谈话。	我试着享受这次 对话 。	Revise
3	I try to give a good impression to the listener.	我试着给听众留下好印象。		Keep
4	I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say.	我想不出该说什么，我会试着补充话题。		Keep
5	I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say.	我积极鼓励自己，并表达我想说的话。		Keep
6	I do not mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes.	我不介意冒险，即使我可能会犯错。		Keep
7	I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation.	我会注意我的节奏和语调。		Keep

8	I pay attention to my pronunciation.	我会注意我的发音。		Keep
9	I pay attention to the conversational flow.	我会关注对话的流程。		Keep
10	I change my way of saying things according to the context.	我会根据上下文改变我的说话方式。		Keep
11	I take my time to express what I want to say.	我会花时间表达我想说的话。		Keep
12	I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard.	为了能够让别人听到，讲话时我会尽量声音洪亮、吐字清晰。		Keep
13	I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.	我会确认听众是否理解我想说的话。		Keep
14	I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands.	我会重复我想说的话，直到听众理解。		Keep
15	I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech, while I am speaking.	当我说话时，我会注意听众对我说话的反应。	当我 讲话 时，我会注意 听众的反应 。	Revise
16	I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying.	如果听众不明白我在说什么，我会举例说明。		Keep
17	I encourage others to correct errors in my speaking.	我鼓励其他人纠正我说话中的错误。	我鼓励其他人纠正我 口语 中的错误。	Revise
18	I pay attention to grammar during conversation.	聊天时，我会注意语法。		Keep
19	I pay attention to word order during conversation.	在谈话中，我注意单词顺序。		Keep
20	I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned.	我会注意到自己使用了一个学过的、符合表达规范的表达。		Keep
21	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake.	我注意到自己犯了口语错误时，我会纠正自己。		Keep
22	I try to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence.	我试着强调句子的主语和动词。		Keep
23	I try to talk like a native speaker.	我试着像母语人士一样说话。		Keep
24	I reduce the message.	我减少了信息。	我减少了 句子 里的信息。	Revise
25	I use simple expressions.	我使用简单的表达方式。		Keep
26	I use words which are familiar to me.	我使用我熟悉的单词。		Keep
27	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent.	我替换了原始消息，因为我觉得无法实现我的初衷。		Keep

28	I change my sentence(s) when I feel I can't get the message across with the first/previous sentence I produced.	我觉得我无法用我原先的句子传达信息，我会更改我的句子。		Keep
29	I describe the characteristics of the object instead of using the exact word when I am not sure.	当我不确定时，我描述对象的特征，而不是使用确切的单词。		Keep
30	I try to make eye contact when I am talking.	在交谈中我会试着进行眼神交流。		Keep
31	I use gestures if I can't communicate how to express myself.	如果不知如何表达自己，我会使用手势。		Keep
32	I use facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.	如果不知如何表达自己，我会使用面部表情。		Keep
33	I try to show what I'm saying with pictures.	我试着用图片来表达我在说什么。		Keep
34	I try to show what I'm saying with videos.	我试着用视频来展示我在说什么。		Keep
35	I use mime to try and convey the meaning, when I can't think of a word.	当我想不出一个词时，我会用无声表演的方式来传达我的意思。		Keep
36	I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	由于一些语言困难，我会说出不完整的句子。		Keep
37	I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.	如果我不能很好地沟通，我会请其他人帮忙。		Keep
38	I give up when I can't make myself understood.	当别人无法理解我时，我就会放弃表达。		Keep
39	I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words.	我放弃了事先想好的句子，只说了几个单词。		Keep
40	I prefer to remain quiet if I don't know what to say to avoid embarrassing myself.	如果我不知道该说什么，我宁愿保持安静，以免让自己难堪。		Keep
41	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.	我首先想到一个我已经知道的英语句子，然后尝试改变它以适应当下情境。		Keep
42	I think of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.	我想用我的母语去构造英语句子。		Keep
43	I think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way.	我会模仿以英语为母语的人的表达习惯，并进行练习。	我会模仿 英语母语人士 的表达习惯，并进行练习。	Revise

44	I look for a different way to express the idea, like using a synonym.	我寻找一种不同的方式来表达这个想法，比如使用同义词。	我寻找一种不同的方式来表达自己的想法，比如使用同义词。	Revise
45	I make up new words or guess if I don't know the right ones to use.	当我不知道该用什么词时，我会编造新词。	当我不知道该用什么词时，我会编造新词或猜词。	Revise
Speaking Anxiety				
1	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on to speak in English class.	当我知道我将被要求在英语课上发言时，我会颤抖。	当我知道我要在英语课上发言时，我会紧张地颤抖。	Revise
2	I panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	当我在英语课上不得不在没有准备的情况下说话时，我惊慌失措。	当我需要在没有准备的情况下在英语课上发言时，我会惊慌失措。	Revise
3	I am embarrassed to volunteer answers orally in my English class.	在英语课上自愿口头回答，我感到很尴尬。	在英语课上自愿口头回答问题，让我觉得很尴尬。	Revise
4	I am self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students	我感觉在其他学生面前说英语很不自在。		Keep
5	I am nervous in my English class than in my other classes.	比起其他课程，英语课让我更紧张。		Keep
6	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	当我说英语时，我担心其他学生会嘲笑我。		Keep
7	I am nervous speaking English with native speakers.	我和英语母语人士说英语会很紧张。		Keep
8	I am nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	当我听不懂英语老师说的每个单词时，我会很紧张。		Keep
9	I am nervous, when I'm on my way to English class.	去上英语课的路上，我很紧张。		Keep
10	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.	我一直认为其他学生的英语比我好。		Keep
11	I do not feel sure of myself when I am speaking in English class.	当我在英语课上讲英语时，我对自己没有把握。		Keep
12	I do not feel confident when I speak in English class.	当我在英语课上讲英语时，我没有信心。		Keep
13	I do not feel comfortable around native speakers of the English.	我和英语母语人士相处时感觉不舒服。		Keep

14	I feel anxious about my English class, even if I am well prepared for it.	我对我的英语课感到焦虑, 即使我已经做好了充分的准备。		Keep
15	I worry about getting left behind as the English class moves so quickly.	英语课讲的很快, 我担心会落后。		Keep
16	I worry about making mistakes in English class.	我担心在英语课上犯错。		Keep
17	I am afraid when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	当我听不懂老师用英语说的话时, 我很害怕。	当我听不懂老师讲的英语时, 我很害怕。	Revise
18	I am nervous when I am speaking in my English class.	当我在英语课上说话时, 我很紧张。		Keep
19	I am confused when I am speaking in my English class.	当我在英语课上说话时, 我很困惑。		Keep
20	I forget things I know when I am in the English class.	当我上英语课时, 我忘记了我所知道的事情。		Keep
21	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	我害怕英语老师即将纠正我犯的每一个错误。	我害怕英语老师会纠正我犯的每一个错误。	Revise
22	I am afraid that the shortcomings of my spoken English will be pointed out to me by others.	我担心别人指出我英语口语中的缺点。		Keep
23	I am afraid of making mistakes in spoken language and being noticed by others.	我害怕在口语上犯错误, 担心别人注意到我的错误。		Keep
24	I am upset when I don't understand what the English teacher is correcting.	当我不明白英语老师在纠正什么时, 我很难过。		Keep
25	I fear making mistakes when I speak.	当我讲英语时, 我害怕犯错		Keep
26	I am nervous during my oral English test.	我在英语口语考试时很紧张。		Keep
27	I worry about the consequences of failing my oral English test.	我担心英语口语考试不及格。		Keep
28	I get more confused, the more I study for an oral English test.	我越是为英语口语考试学习, 我就越感到困惑。		Keep
29	I worry a great deal before an oral English test.	在英语口语考试之前, 我非常担心。		Keep
30	I worry a great deal with my performance after an oral English tests.	英语口语测试后, 我非常担心我的表现。		Keep

Learning Attitude				
1	I think studying English is important because it will make me more educated.	我认为学习英语很重要，因为它会让我受过更多的教育。	我认为学习英语很重要，因为它会让我更有学识。	Revise
2	I can study other subjects well because I am good at English.	我可以很好地学习其他科目，因为我的英语很好。		Keep
3	I have more knowledge when studying English.	学习英语时，我会学到更多的知识。		Keep
4	I have more understanding when studying English.	学习英语时，我更有理解力。		Keep
5	I get new information by study English in which I can link to my previous knowledge.	我通过学习英语获得新信息，我可以在其中联系到我以前的知识。		Keep
6	I can summarize the important points in the English subject content by myself.	我可以自己总结英语主题内容中的要点。		Keep
7	I study English just to pass the exams.	我学习英语只是为了通过考试。		Keep
8	I think people who can speak more than one language are very knowledgeable.	我认为会说一种以上语言的人知识都很渊博。		Keep
9	I think study English helps me communicate in English effectively.	我认为学习英语有助于我有效地用英语交流。		Keep
10	I can apply the knowledge from English subject in my real life.	我可以将英语学科的知识应用到我的现实生活中。		Keep
11	I think studying English helps me create new thoughts	我认为学习英语有助于我创造新的想法。		Keep
12	I am able to think in English language.	我能够用英语思考。		Keep
13	I am able to analyze the content in English language.	我能够分析英语内容。		Keep
14	I am satisfied with my performance in the English subject.	我对我在英语科目上的表现很满意。		Keep
15	I think English language is easy to learn.	我认为英语很容易学。		Keep
16	I think English subject has the content that covers many fields of knowledge.	我认为英语科目的内容涵盖了许多知识领域。		Keep
17	I feel comfortable to speak English anywhere.	在任何地方讲英语，我都感觉很舒服。		Keep

18	I think study English helps me to have good relationships with friends.	我认为学习英语有助于我与朋友建立良好的关系。		Keep
19	I like to give opinions during English lessons.	我喜欢在英语课上发表意见。		Keep
20	I am able to make myself pay attention during studying English.	在学习英语时，我能够让自己集中注意力。		Keep
21	I like to practice speaking with student in my class who I hear speaking English well.	我喜欢和班上英语说得好好的学生一起练习英文。		Keep
22	I have more confidence in expressing myself by learning English.	我有很大的信心通过学习英语来表达自己的。		Keep
23	I improve my personality by learning English.	我通过学习英语来提高我的个性。	我通过学习英语来 改善我的性格 。	Revise
24	I finish my English homework as early as possible.	我尽早完成我的英语作业。		Keep
25	I feel relaxed whenever I have to speak in my English class.	每当我在英语课上说话时，我都会感到放松。	每当我在英语课上 发言时 ，我都会感到放松。	Revise
26	I feel comfortable to speak English in front of other students.	我觉得在其他学生面前说英语很舒服。	我觉得在其他学生面前说英语 很自在 。	Revise
27	I like to practice English the way native speakers do.	我喜欢以英语母语人士的方式练习英语。		Keep
28	I wish I could have many English speaking friends.	我希望我能有很多讲英语的朋友。		Keep
29	I missed the class, I ask my friends for the homework on what has been taught.	我如果错过了课程，我会向我的朋友询问课程的内容和作业。		Keep
30	I missed the class, I ask teachers for the homework on what has been taught.	我如果错过了课程，我会向老师询问关于课程的内容和作业。		Keep
31	I feel enthusiastic to come to class when the English is being thought.	在思考英语的时候，我很热情地来上课。		Keep
32	I pay attention when my English teacher is explaining the lesson.	当我的英语老师在上课时，我会保持专注。		Keep
33	I feel proud when studying English language.	当我学习英语时，我感到很自豪。		Keep
34	I feel excited when I communicate in English with others.	当我用英语与他人交流时，我感到很兴奋。		Keep

35	I feel relax when I have to answer a question in my English class.	当我必须在英语课上回答一个问题时，我感到很放松。		Keep
36	I feel enjoyable when studying English.	我觉得学习英语很愉快。		Keep
37	I am eager to learn,which makes me study English well.	我对学习的渴望，让我能够学好英语。		Keep
38	I have good emotions when studying English.	学习英语时，我的情绪很好。		Keep
39	I prefer to study in English rather than Mandarin.	我更喜欢用英语而不是中文来学习。		Keep
40	I enjoy doing activities in English.	我喜欢用英语做活动。		Keep
41	I like studying English.	我喜欢学习英语。		Keep
42	I wish I could speak English fluently.	我希望我能说流利的英语。	我希望我能流利地讲英语。	Revise
43	I am interested in studying English.	我对学习英语很感兴趣。		Keep
44	I feel more confident when studying English.	通过学习英语，我感到更有信心。		Keep
45	I have little interest in my English class.	我对我的英语课没什么兴趣。		Keep
46	I set knowing English as an important goal in my life.	我把懂英语作为我生活中的一个重要目标。		Keep
47	I look forward to the time I spend in English class.	我期待着上英语课。		Keep
48	I like my English class so much.	我非常喜欢我的英语课。		Keep
49	I look forward to studying more English in the future.	我期待着将来学习更多的英语。		Keep
Learning Motivation				
1	I enjoy making discussion in English.	我喜欢用英语进行讨论。		Keep
2	I enjoy learning new things on the English course that I am interested in.	我喜欢在我感兴趣的英语课程中学习新东西。		Keep
3	I enjoy sharing the new things that I learn in English.	我喜欢分享我用英语学到的新东西。		Keep
4	I enjoy reading magazines in English.	我喜欢用英语阅读杂志。		Keep
5	I enjoy reading texts in English.	我喜欢读英语课文。		Keep
6	I am interested in the English language course.	我对英语课程感兴趣。		Keep
7	I think English will be useful for me in the future.	我认为英语将来会对我有用。		Keep

8	I know why I should learn English.	我知道为什么学英语。	我知道自己为什么要学英语。	Revise
9	I understand how useful the English I learn will be.	我明白我学的英语会有很大的用处。		Keep
10	I like participating the activities in English.	我喜欢参加英语活动。		Keep
11	I like learning English since it has a positive effect on social life.	我喜欢学习英语，因为它对社交生活有积极的影响。		Keep
12	I want to learn English because its good to my personality.	我想学英语，因为它对我的性格发展有好处。		Keep
13	I chose profession related to English for my future.	考虑到未来，我选择了与英语相关的职业。		Keep
14	I think understand English will benefit me in my career.	我认为懂英语会对我的职业生涯有好处。	我认为懂英语会对我的职业生涯 有帮助 。	Revise
15	I think learning English will give me a job advantage.	我认为学习英语会给我带来找工作的优势。		Keep
16	I think learning English will help me enter a better university.	我认为学习英语会帮助我进入一所更好的大学。		Keep
17	I believe that knowing English will meet the demand of the workplace.	我认为学习英语能够满足满足工作的要求。		Keep
18	I want to show my family that I'm successful in English.	我想向我的家人展示我在英语方面很成功。		Keep
19	I want to prove myself that I can be successful in English course.	我想证明我可以在英语课程上取得成功。		Keep
20	I want to show that I'm better than the other students in English.	我想证明我比其他学生英语更好。		Keep
21	I want to be praised by the people around me that my English is good.	我想让大家都夸我的英语很好。		Keep
22	I want to improve my ability to work with other cultures by learning English.	我想通过学习英语来提高我与其他文化合作的能力。	我想通过学习英语来提高我与 其他文化背景的人 合作的能力。	Revise

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为确保本量表翻译的准确性与学术可靠性，敬请各位专家在完成审阅后，提供以下证明信息：

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Your area of expertise/您的专业领域: Language Learning and Teaching 语言学习与教学

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Date and signature

Pan Huanting
潘焕婷

日期与签名:

2024 年 3 月 1 日