

Language Anxiety in Chinese Learners of English in the U.K.:
Conceptualisation of Language Anxiety in Second Language
Learning and Its Relationship with Other Learner Variables

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Dedication

To My Mother Ms. Qu Zou

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Abstract

This study focuses on the conceptualisation of language anxiety in foreign language learning and on its relationship with other learner variables in Chinese learners of English in the U.K. It documents Chinese learners' English anxiety experience in the U.K., proposes a model of language anxiety, and examines the relationship between language anxiety and the following learner variables: English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences when learning and using English out of class, second language motivation, attitude towards learning English, self-confidence, and selected demographic variables (e.g. gender, age, educational level).

Data were collected through the administration of a detailed questionnaire (including 120 questions), to most of which participants responded on a 1-5 Likert scale. A total of 177 Chinese students who enrolled on English programs at Newcastle University participated in this study. The data was analysed using a range of statistical methods (e.g. correlation and factor analysis).

This study found that participants experienced low or moderate anxiety both in and out of class. Compared with Liu (2006), Chinese learners in the U.K. generally possess lower levels of anxiety than those in China in most aspects of classroom-based English learning. However, the learners in the U.K. feel more anxious when not understanding something in class than those in China.

Factor analyses suggest six components for the construct of classroom-based anxiety: speaking-related anxiety; English-classes related anxiety; negative comparative self-evaluation; comprehension-related anxiety; fear of negative evaluation from the teacher; and fear of learning English grammars, and three components for anxiety out of class: anxiety experienced in handling difficult conversations; in routine conversations; and in the conversations with friends or foreigners. A positive relationship is also found between these two anxiety scales.

The results show a negative relationship between language anxiety and exposure to English and language preferences, suggesting that the more English the learners choose to use or are exposed to, the less anxiety they feel in and out of class.

Language anxiety is negatively linked with proficiency, intrinsic motivation, and self-confidence, but positively related to ought-to self. It is not correlated with demographic variables, integrative and instrumental motivation, and ideal self. Furthermore, ought-to self and IELTS scores were more strongly related to classroom-based anxiety than anxiety out of class; whereas self-confidence and perceived proficiency were more strongly related to anxiety out of class than classroom-based anxiety.

This study extends the current language anxiety research in several ways. It explores the dual model of language anxiety by firstly identifying the components of classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class, secondly looking at their relationship with demographic, academic and psychological variables, and finally comparing the strength of these correlations in order to reveal whether they are affected by the same variables. These relationships, e.g. between language anxiety and exposure to English, language preference, exposure to ideal and ought-to self, and the different effects these variables have on classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class, have been under researched to-date.

This study provides some new insights into language anxiety research. The findings suggest that the role of context outside the classroom may be responsible for some of the Chinese learners' anxiety experience in an English-dominated environment. Particularly, it can be used to explain some of the differences related to learners' English language anxiety experienced in China and in the U.K.

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Chapter One

Chapter One

Introduction

Many learners often experience apprehension and discomfort in L2 classes, particularly in communicative situations. Therefore, anxiety has been considered to be one of the most important individual variables in SLA (Scovel, 1978; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Horwitz, 1986; Dörnyei, 2005), and have been investigated by a large number of studies over the past two decades. They have consistently found that classroom-based anxiety impedes learning progress (e.g., Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Phillips, 1992; Aida, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Liu, 2006). The present study aims to contribute to this body of knowledge by exploring the conceptualisation and role of language anxiety among Chinese learners of English in the U.K.

1 Statement of the Problems

Most empirical studies have focused on anxiety in classrooms-based learning without taking into account the context outside the classroom (e.g., Aida, 1994; Young, 1986; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Rodríguez & Abreu, 2003; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Liu, 2006; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). However, Woodrow (2006a) argues that ‘...living in an environment where the target language is also the language of everyday communication may influence anxiety’ (p. 309), and ‘[i]t is possible that classroom communication could be considered less anxiety provoking than many communicative events faced in everyday life by students living in a second language environment’ (p. 311). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the language anxiety which learners experience in a L2-dominated living environment may be different from the anxiety experienced in a L1-dominated environment. The present study investigates this further, by documenting and analysing Chinese learners’ English language anxiety experience (both within and outside the classroom) in the U.K.

Some studies have evaluated the construct of classroom-based anxiety (e.g., Tóth, 2008), whereas little research has focused on the construct of language anxiety out of class. The present study attempts to fill this gap, and also examines the relationship between classroom and out-of-class anxiety.

The relationship between language anxiety (i.e., classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class) and other learner variables also requires further exploration, as (a) few studies have focused on the relationship between language anxiety and exposure to a L2 (e.g., Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008; Liu & Jackson, 2008); (b) no research has yet examined the relationship between language anxiety and language preferences; (c) findings with regard to the association between anxiety and some variables (e.g., gender and age) have been inconsistent: for example, some studies have found a significant gender difference in classroom-based anxiety (e.g., Kitano, 2001; Cheng, 2002; Abu-Rabia, 2004), while others have not (e.g., Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Aida, 1994; Rodríguez & Abreu, 2003; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004); (d) the relationship between language anxiety and motivation (e.g., ideal self and ought-to self) has been under researched to-date. Therefore, the present study also examines the relationship between language anxiety and these variables.

Additionally, no research has yet determined whether specific learner variables affect classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class differently, and if so, what those differences are. The present study attempts to fill this void.

2 Necessity for the Study

The present study focuses on Chinese learners of English learning English for academic purposes in the U.K. This is necessary, because (a) most language anxiety studies with regard to Chinese learners has been conducted in China, and only few have actually been undertaken in the U.K; (b) each year a large number of Chinese students come to the UK in order to study English, and the numbers have dramatically increased in the past few years; (c) English learning is crucial to most Chinese students in the U.K. In order to enrol on degree courses, they have to reach the high

English proficiency levels required by British universities; (d) in order to help Chinese students improve their English proficiency more effectively, it is vital to understand their psychological needs, particularly their language anxiety experience, and how it may affect their English learning and use both in and out of class.

Additionally, there has been little research on anxiety out of class, and it seems important to identify its role, and the specific ways in which it contributes to the theoretical construct of anxiety overall. In particular, examining the relationship between anxiety and exposure outside the classroom will enable us to better understand this complex construct and its role in SLA theorising.

3 Objectives of the Study

The present study documents Chinese learners' experience of English language anxiety in the U.K., and also focuses on the conceptualisation of language anxiety and its relationship with selected learner variables. Each research objective is presented briefly below, followed by the relevant research questions:

- (1) To document Chinese learners' experience of English language anxiety in the U.K as well as other learner variables:
 - RQ1: What are the learner variables: demographic variables, English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences and psychological variables?
 - RQ2: What is the nature of these learners' experience of English language anxiety?

- (2) To develop a language anxiety measure, and to build a model of language anxiety:
 - RQ3: What is the validity of the measure of language anxiety used in this study?

RQ4: What is the model of language anxiety?

(3) To examine the relationship between language anxiety and selected learner variables:

RQ5: What is the relationship between language anxiety and actual and perceived English proficiency?

RQ6: What is the relationship between language anxiety and English exposure out of classes?

RQ7: What is the relationship between language anxiety and language preference when learning English?

RQ8: What is the relationship between language anxiety and personal variables?

4 Significance of the Study

The present study makes the following contribution to the existing literature on language anxiety in SLA: (a) it proposes a dual model of language anxiety; (b) it explores the role of anxiety in learning and using a L2 both in and out of class; (c) it reveals the differences and similarities between classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class; (d) it analyses the role of L2 contexts by comparing the anxiety experience of Chinese learners in the U.K. with that of learners in China; (e) it shows the relationship between language anxiety and a range of psychological variables; (f) it also shows the relationship between language anxiety and exposure to English and language preferences.

5 Overview of the Thesis

The outline of this thesis is as follows:

Introduction (Chapter 1)

Part I: Language anxiety in second language learning and use: a review of literature

- (1) Anxiety in SLA: theoretical background (Chapter 2)
- (2) Conceptualisation and measures of language anxiety (Chapter 3)
- (3) Relationship between language anxiety and other learner variables (Chapter 4)
- (4) Summary

Part II: An empirical study of Chinese learners' English language anxiety in the U.K.: methodology and findings

Methodology (Chapter 5)

- Findings:
- (1) Learner variables (Chapter 6)
 - (2) Language anxiety experience (Chapter 7)
 - (3) A revised model of language anxiety (Chapter 8)
 - (4) Relationship between language anxiety and selected learner variables (Chapter 9)

Conclusion (Chapter 10)

6 Definitions of the Terms Used in the Present Study

The key terms used in the present study are explained below:

Classroom-based anxiety refers to the anxiety which learner experience in classroom-based L2 learning.

Anxiety out of class (also as *out-of-class anxiety*) refers to the anxiety which learners experience when using the L2 out of class.

In the present study, *language anxiety* is deemed to be a combination of both classroom-based and out of class anxiety (i.e., Chapters 1, 5-10). However, in some parts of literature review (i.e., Chapters 3 Sections 2 and 4), the terms *language anxiety* or *anxiety* may have used as synonyms for both *second language anxiety* and *foreign language anxiety* in order to help referencing some specific studies.

The following Part I (Chapters 2-4) reviews the literature on language anxiety in L2 learning and use.

Part I

Language Anxiety in Second Language Learning and Use: A Review of Literature

Part I is divided into four sections: it firstly provides a theoretical background for anxiety in SLA, secondly focuses on the conceptualisation and measures of language anxiety, thirdly examines the relationship between language anxiety and other learner variables, and finally summarises the characteristics of language anxiety and anxiety research in SLA.

Since the aim of this research is to explore the construct of language anxiety and its importance in SLA, there is little focus on how to prevent difficulties in L2 learning and use related to high levels of anxiety, although some suggestions on this are provided in Chapter 9 Sections 6 and 7.

Chapter Two

Chapter Two

Anxiety in SLA: Theoretical Background

1 Introduction

1.1 Anxiety in Psychology

Anxiety was initially studied in Psychology. It is defined as ‘...a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object’ (Hilgard, Atkinson, & Atkinson, 1971, cited in Scovel, 1978, p. 18), and as ‘...a subjective feeling of tension, state of apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system caused by a vague fear that is indirectly associated with an object’ (Spielberger, 1983, p.1). The fact that the sources of anxiety are vague and indirect suggests that the nature of anxiety can be complex.

The manifestations of anxiety often include increased blood pressure, dryness of the mouth, a feeling of weakness (Spielberger & Rickman, 1990). Anxiety is also commonly noticeable by its negative effects on memory and comprehension.

1.2 Early research findings on anxiety in L2 learning

From the 1960s to 1970s, conflicting results had been obtained in the studies which investigated the relationship between anxiety and performance in L2 learning (Scovel, 1978). For example, Chastain (1975) found that test anxiety was negatively correlated with final grades in an audio-lingual French (L2) course among the English (L1) learners. By contrast, Kleinmann (1977) found that anxiety had positive effects on Spanish and Arabic students’ English (L2) oral production.

Some studies have pointed out possible reasons behind this contradiction: Scovel (1978) argues that this might have resulted in the lack of a reliable and valid anxiety measure which was particularly suitable for L2 learning and contexts. Similarly, Price

(1991) argues that it was a result of the difficulties of measuring anxiety as well as of the fact that the anxiety had been measured using a variety of instruments. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) suggests that different conceptualisations of anxiety might affect anxiety research findings in L2 learning. According to Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), '[the researchers] neither adequately defined foreign language anxiety nor described its specific effects on foreign language learning' (p. 125).

2 Types of anxiety

The section discusses the anxiety categorised from two different angles:

- (1) Facilitating and debilitating anxiety
- (2) Trait, state and situation-specific anxiety

2.1 Facilitating and debilitating anxiety

In early studies, the findings regarding the effects of anxiety had been mixed (see Section 1.2 above). One of the reasons for this could be that some of these studies did not distinguish between debilitating and facilitating anxiety (Scovel, 1978).

Facilitating anxiety reactions are positive, including interest and excitement, whereas debilitating anxiety reactions are negative, involving fear, distress and shame (Izard, 1972). Therefore, facilitating anxiety 'motivates the learner to "fight" the new learning task', while debilitating anxiety 'motivates the learners to "flee" the new learning task' (Scovel, 1978, p. 23). In brief, facilitating anxiety improves performance, while debilitating anxiety hinders it (Scovel, 1978).

Anxiety is deemed to be debilitating in L2 learning, and this is supported by empirical evidence. For example, Levine (2003) hypothesised a positive correlation between anxiety and L2 use in a survey involving 600 foreign language students and 163 language instructors; however, the results indicate a significant negative relationship between anxiety and performance.

Although the theories (e.g., Alpert & Haber, 1960, cited in Scovel, 1978) clearly distinguished between the facilitating and debilitating effects of anxiety, they fail to demonstrate in what circumstances anxiety is facilitative/debilitative and how much it can actually help/impede L2 learning (Oxford, 1999, cited in Dörnyei, 2005). Nonetheless, it is generally agreed that low levels of anxiety may sometimes facilitate L2 learning, whereas high levels of anxiety always debilitate L2 learning (Williams, 1991). In fact, research has focused more on debilitating anxiety than facilitating anxiety in L2 learning.

2.2 Trait and state anxiety

Trait anxiety is a personality trait, and refers to a tendency to be anxious in a variety of situations. Spielberger (1972) defines trait anxiety as ‘relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness, that is, to differences in the disposition to perceive a wide range of stimulus situations as threatening’ (p.39). Individuals with trait anxiety feel nervous more easily than others, and they may often appear to be apprehensive and always run the risk of emotional instability (Goldberg, 1993, cited in MacIntyre, 1999). The negative effects of trait anxiety are revealed in short-term memory loss and avoidance behaviour (Eysenck, 1979).

State anxiety refers to the momentary apprehension, which individuals experience in certain situations, since some situations (e.g., attending a job interview) could be more anxiety-provoking than other situations. Spielberger (1972) defines state anxiety as ‘a transitory emotional state or condition of the human organism’ (p.39).

Some empirical evidence suggests a negative relationship between state anxiety and L2 proficiency (e.g., Young, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Young (1986) found a negative correlation between the scores of a state anxiety inventory (Spielberger, 1983) and the scores of an oral proficiency interview ($r = 0.32, p = 0.01$) in 60 American university students majoring in French, German and Spanish.

Trait and state anxiety are linked with each other. On the one hand, trait anxiety can only function when interacting with situations (Endler, 1980); on the other hand, the

levels of state anxiety are determined by both personality trait and anxiety-provoking situations (e.g., sitting in an exam) (Eysenck, 1979; Endler & Kocovski, 2001). These two claims are also supported by empirical evidence. For example, Spielberger (1983) found a strong correlation ($r \approx 0.60$, $p < .01$) between state and trait anxiety.

In summary, ‘trait anxiety is conceptualized as a relatively stable personality characteristic while state anxiety is seen as a response to a particular anxiety-provoking stimulus such as an important test’ (Horwitz, 2001, p. 113). Since state anxiety is dependent more on contexts than on individuals’ personality, it is easier to predict than trait anxiety in reality (Eysenck, 1979).

2.3 Situation-specific anxiety

Situation-specific anxiety is conceptualised based on both trait and state anxiety. It is defined as ‘trait anxiety measures limited to a well-defined situation’ (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991a, p. 91). In other words, situation-specific anxiety is a specific type of anxiety which occurs consistently in a specific given situation, such as public communication apprehension – it is possible that some individuals may feel anxious when speaking in public.

The differences between situation-specific, trait and state anxiety is that each perspective emphasises a different facet of anxiety. Situation-specific anxiety focuses on individuals’ anxious feeling as well as anxiety-producing situations (e.g., delivering a presentation in front of the class). In trait anxiety, the emphasis is on an individual’s personality. This type of anxiety refers to a stable predisposition in a variety of situations. However, in state anxiety, the focus is on situations. This type of anxiety refers to a transitory propensity in particular contexts.

Therefore, situation-specific anxiety is a combination of both trait and state anxiety, with more similarity to state anxiety than to trait anxiety. In other words, it is viewed as trait anxiety restricted to a single context or situation (MacIntyre, 1999).

Hence, anxiety in L2 learning should be classified as situation-specific (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Furthermore, Horwitz (2001) states that ‘...with the development of distinct situation-specific measures of foreign language anxiety, the issue of appropriate anxiety measurement seemed to be resolved...’ (p. 115) (see Section 1.2 above).

3 Effects of Anxiety

Anxiety is an important variable in L2 learning, since (a) it impacts upon L2 acquisition, retention and production (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, p. 86); (b) it has cognitive, affective and behavioural effects (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a); (c) its effects are pervasive and subtle (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a, p. 283).

In this section, the effects of anxiety in L2 learning are explained from two perspectives:

- (1) Cognitive and motivational effects of anxiety
- (2) Academic cognitive, social and personal effects of anxiety

3.1 Cognitive and motivational effects

The effects of anxiety can be cognitive, physiological, behavioural and affective. A conceptual distinction has been made between cognitive and motivational components in anxiety (Liebert & Morris, 1967, cited in Eysenck, 1979). The cognitive component (e.g., worry) includes L2 learners’ self-concern, task-irrelevant thoughts and negative self-evaluations (Eysenck, 1979). The motivational component includes physiological effects (e.g., pounding heart), behavioural effects (e.g., avoidance), and affective effects (e.g., nervousness) (Eysenck, 1979; Woodrow, 2006a).

It seems that the cognitive component is more debilitating, having a negative impact on performance (Dörnyei, 2005). There are several reasons for this: first, negative cognitive reactions can occupy the capacity (for attention) or space (for working memory) which should have been used for L2 performance; this would consequently

result in an impairment of performance quality (Tobias, 1985, cited in Woodrow, 2006a; Eysenck, 1979). Second, because of the impairment, anxious learners try to meet the increased cognitive requirement by increasing their efforts (Eysenck, 1979); however making too many demands on themselves in this regard could eventually lead to more frustration. Therefore, having negative cognitive reactions may prevent anxious learners from processing L2 input as effectively as others.

3.2 Academic, cognitive, social and personal effects

The effects of language anxiety have been found to include four aspects: academic, cognitive, social and personal (MacIntyre, 1999; 2002). In the academic aspect, numerous studies have reported the negative effects of anxiety on course grades (e.g., Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Aida, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Liu, 2006) (see Chapter 4 Section 1.1). Language anxiety also impedes learners' cognitive processing in learning a L2 (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a; 1994b; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000a). In the social aspect, '...the most dramatic social effect of anxiety is a reluctance to communicate' (MacIntyre, 2002, p. 66), that is, a negative relationship exists between anxiety and willingness to communicate (e.g., MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Yashima, 2002). Anxiety is also closely linked with L2 learners' personal feelings. According to Noels, Pon, and Clement (1996, cited in MacIntyre, 2002), '[t]o some extent language learning itself is prone to creating intense emotion because of the close connection between language, culture, and identity' (p. 67).

4 Role of Anxiety in SLA

Gardner (1985) proposed a socio-educational model, which explains the role of learner variables in SLA, including language anxiety. This model is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

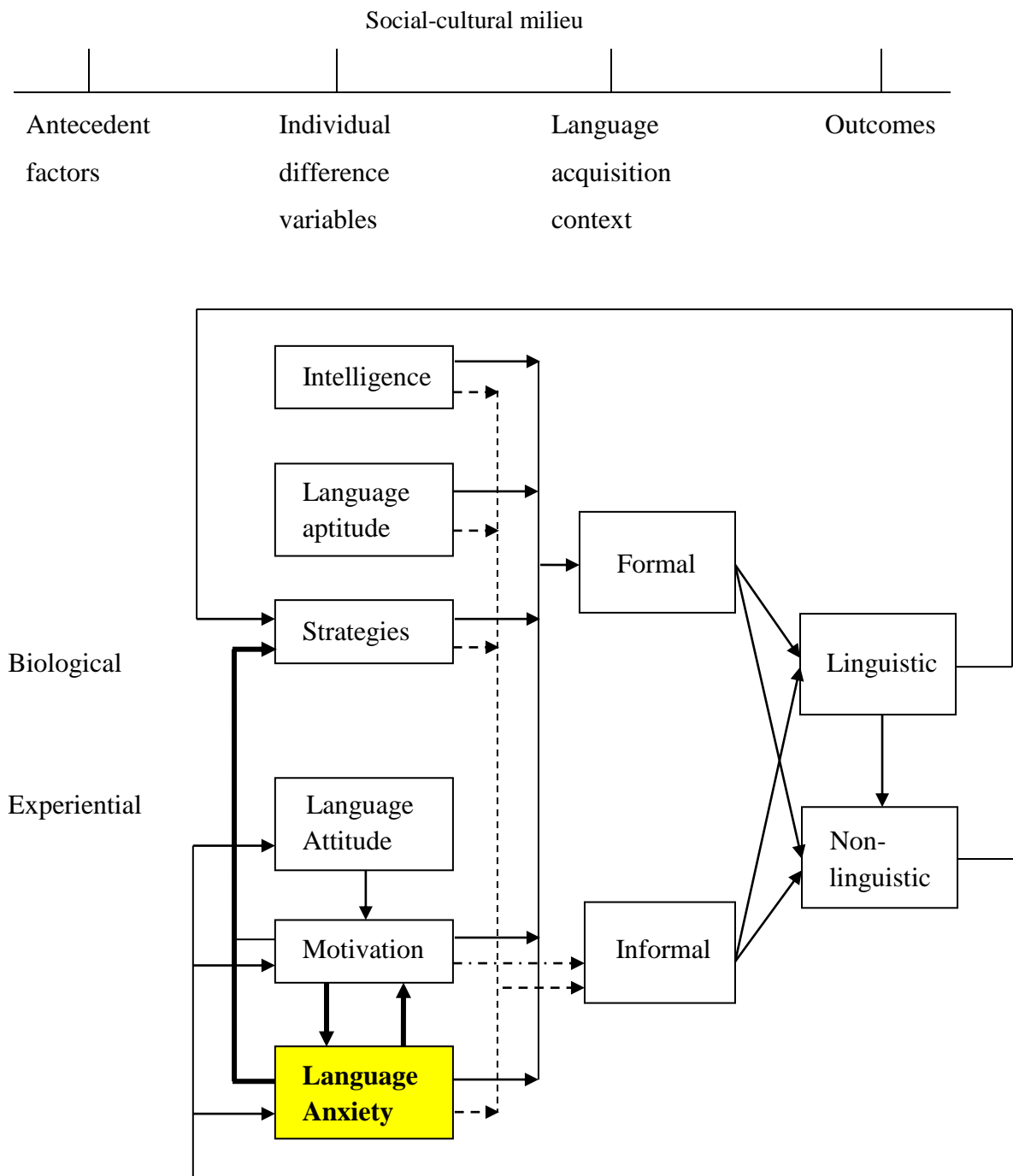


Figure 2.1 Gardner's socio-educational model (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b, p. 8)

Six of the most important learner variables are shown in this model. They can be divided into two types: cognitive variables (i.e., intelligence, language aptitude and strategies), and affective variables (i.e., language attitude, motivation and anxiety).

As highlighted in Figure 2.1, language anxiety is interrelated with motivation, suggesting that high levels of anxiety can lead to low levels of motivation, and vice versa. Furthermore, language anxiety taken together with motivation can also affect strategies.

In order to measure motivation, attitude and language anxiety in SLA, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) has been developed (Gardner & Smythe, 1975; 1981, cited in Gardner, 2001). The construct of the AMTB is illustrated as follows:

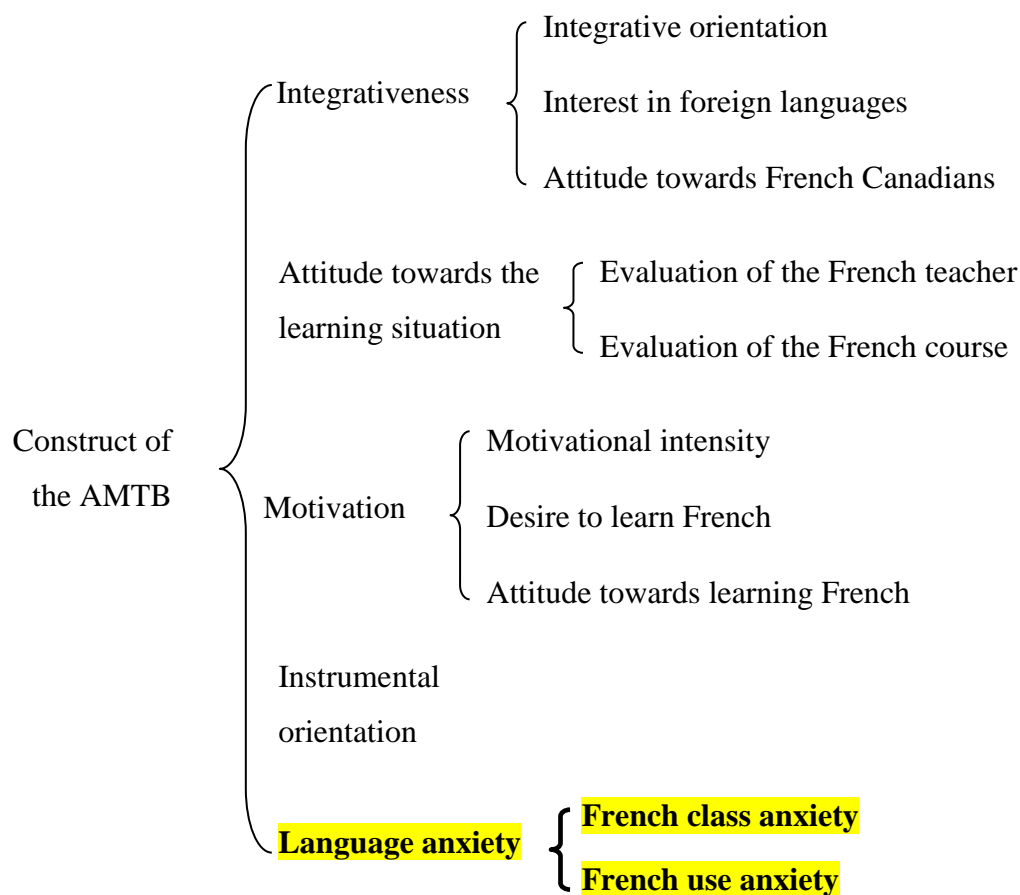


Figure 2.2 Construct of the AMTB (Gardner, 2001, p. 8-9)

Note. The AMTB has been developed based on the studies of English-speaking Canadian students learning French.

As shown in Figure 2.2., language anxiety as a part of the AMTB construct is measured in two contexts: within and outside the classroom.

5 Summary

This chapter has described the theoretical background used for the present anxiety study by reviewing relevant theoretical studies of anxiety.

Language anxiety as ‘a complex made up of constituents that have different characteristics’ (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 198) is deemed to be debilitating and situation-specific. Its effects can be cognitive, physiological, behavioural and affective in academic, cognitive, social and personal areas.

The following chapter focuses on the definition and measures of language anxiety in L2 learning and use.

Chapter Three

Chapter Three

Language Anxiety: Conceptualisation and Measures

1 Definition and Characteristics of Language Anxiety

Language anxiety refers to the apprehension which learners experienced in L2 learning and use, particularly in communication. Its characteristics are described below.

It is a ‘feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning’ (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b, p. 284).

It is a complicated construct with multiple dimensions, as described as ‘... a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to classroom learning...’ (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986, p. 128). (See Section 2 below for further explanation)

Language anxiety is situation-specific and is different from general types of anxiety (Scovel, 1978; Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991c; Dörnyei, 2005). Dörnyei (2005) argues that it is ‘relatively independent ... not merely a transfer of anxiety from another domain such as test anxiety or communication apprehension but a uniquely L2-related variable’ (p. 199). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) found that language anxiety was specifically related to L2 contexts, different from general anxiety (e.g., trait or state anxiety).

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) argues that the distinctions between classroom-based anxiety and other types of academic anxiety (e.g., mathematics anxiety) may relate to the difference between the ‘true self’ and ‘the more limited self’ in L2 learners (p. 31). They believe that since L2 learners are limited to express their thoughts using a L2 because of the inadequacies in their L2 knowledge, learning a L2

may relate more to self-concept and self-expression than learning other academic subjects. This seems to imply a close relationship between classroom-based anxiety and self-perception or self-evaluation (e.g., fear of negative evaluation).

Language anxiety only occurs in L2 contexts, and this is supported by empirical evidence (e.g., Gardner, 1985; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; 1991b; 1991c; 1994b). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) found that anxiety was associated with French (L2) vocabulary learning, whereas it did not appear in English (L1) classes. Similarly, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991c) found that language anxiety was significantly negatively correlated with short-term memory and vocabulary production in French (L2) but not in English (L1).

In brief, language anxiety as a unique and distinct complex with multiple dimensions only occurs in L2 contexts, rather than being a transfer of general anxiety.

The present study proposes language anxiety to be a combination of classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class by adapting the dual conceptualisation of second language speaking anxiety (i.e., in-class anxiety and out-of-class anxiety) introduced in Woodrow (2006a). This study also found a significant positive relationship between in-class and out-of-class speaking anxiety (e.g., $r = .58, p = < .01$) (p. 320), indicating that these two anxiety variables were distinctive from each other, although they shared similarity.

The following two sections explain classroom-based anxiety and out of class anxiety respectively.

2 Classroom-based Anxiety

2.1 Construct of the foreign language anxiety¹

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's tripartite explanation of anxiety (1986) is one of the most influential theories in language anxiety research. Horwitz and her colleagues (1986) conceptualise the anxiety in class as a combination of communication apprehension, fear of negative social evaluation, and test anxiety, as follows:

2.1.1 *Communication apprehension*

Communication apprehension is defined as 'an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons' (McCroskey, 1984, p. 192). It is also referred to 'a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people' (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 127), or 'the fear or anxiety an individual feels about orally communicating' (Daly, 1991, p. 3).

Types of behaviour typically related to communication apprehension are communication avoidance and withdrawal (McCroskey, 1978). Communication apprehension can also manifest itself in the fear of speaking in public (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). In L2 classrooms, communication apprehension may lead to difficulties in speaking with others and in listening and processing the received input (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986).

The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension developed by McCroskey (1978) is the most commonly used scale in measuring communication apprehension. It assesses communication apprehension in four types of situations: 'public speaking, meetings, groups and dyadic exchanges' (Daly, 1991, p. 4).

¹ When Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) offered their anxiety conceptualisation, they used the term foreign language anxiety, although it only refers to the anxiety which the L2 learners experienced in class. In order to help referencing in this study, the terms classroom-based anxiety and language anxiety are used interchangeably ONLY in Section 2 in this chapter.

A large proportion of anxiety is formed by communication apprehension. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) argue that ‘communication apprehension or some similar reaction obviously plays a large role in foreign language anxiety’ (p. 127).²

2.1.2 *Fear of negative evaluation*

Fear of negative evaluation is defined as ‘an apprehension about others’ evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively’ (Watson & Friend, 1969, p. 449, cited in Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128). In L2 classrooms, the fear of negative evaluation refers to learners’ fear regarding potential negative comments on their language skills or abilities made by the teacher or other students. The Negative Evaluation Scale (NES) developed by Watson and Friend (1969) is one of the main scales used to measure this variable.

Fear of negative evaluation has been found to be positively related to classroom-based anxiety (Horwitz, 1986; Kitano, 2001). Kitano (2001) found a significant positive correlation ($r = .316, p < .001$) between the scores of the FLCAS and revised NES (Leary, 1983) in 212 American university students learning Japanese.

2.1.3 *Test anxiety*

‘Test anxiety refers to a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure’ (Gordon & Sarason, 1955, and Sarason, 1980, cited in Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 127). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) describe test anxiety as ‘an apprehension over academic evaluation’ (p. 42).

Ambiguous findings with regard to test anxiety have been reported in various studies (e.g., Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Horwitz, 1986; Young, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Aida, 1994; In’nami, 2006). Specifically:

² In this quotation, the *language anxiety* refers to anxiety in class.

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) argue that test anxiety is a component of language anxiety, since tests are commonly used to evaluate the outcome of classroom-based L2 learning. This is supported by Horwitz (1986), who found a significant positive correlation ($r = .53, p < .001$) between the scores of the FLCAS (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986) and test anxiety scale (Sarason, 1978) in 60 L2 learners in an American university.

However, some studies have argued that test anxiety may not be a component of language anxiety. For example, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) found that test anxiety measured by the test anxiety scale (Sarason & Mandler, 1965) was a component of general anxiety rather than of language anxiety. Therefore, they suggest that ‘test anxiety is an anxiety problem in general, not specific to the foreign language learning context’ (p. 268).

Some studies have found an insignificant correlation between test anxiety and performance in L2 classes (Young, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; In’nami, 2006). In’nami (2006) found no significant correlations between three aspects of test anxiety (i.e., general test worry, test-irrelevant thinking, and emotion) and listening test performance ($r = .07, -.09, \text{ and } -.14, p > .01$) among 79 Japanese university students with English (L2), and therefore In’nami concludes that ‘test anxiety is independent of communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation in terms of its relationship with listening test performance’ (p. 330). Young (1986) also reported an insignificant correlation between test anxiety measured by cognitive interference questionnaires and L2 oral proficiency measured by oral proficiency interview scores ($r = .15, p > .01$) in 60 American university students.

Therefore, there is insufficient evidence to suggest that test anxiety in L2 learning can clearly be differentiated from test anxiety in learning other subjects (e.g., mathematics). It is possible that some students may experience high levels of anxiety when sitting examinations regardless of academic subject. Therefore, viewing test anxiety as a component of language anxiety seems debatable. It may be more appropriate to classify test anxiety as general anxiety rather than language anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Test anxiety may not be L2-context specific, but may

rather be a transfer from a general domain (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Aida, 1994; In'nami, 2006).

2.1.4 Links between communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety

Language anxiety may not consist of equal amounts of communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and text anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). This is because: (a) Communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation seem to be related. For example, when learners experience apprehension during group discussions, they may also feel anxious when being negatively evaluated by group members. (b) They are both underlying components of language anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Aida, 1994; Tóth, 2008). Aida (1994) found a combination of speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation to be the most important component in language anxiety (see Section 2.2.1.3 below). (c) There could be similarity between test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), test anxiety only occurred when learners sat for exams, whereas fear of negative evaluation could exist to a much wider variety of situations. In summary, these three components do not function in the same way, with communication apprehension being the most important component in classroom-based anxiety.

2.1.5 Construct of classroom-based anxiety in the present study

In the present study, the construct of classroom-based anxiety consists of two parts: the anxiety which the participants might experience in class, and the anxious feeling which they might have with regard to English classes.

As previously discussed (see Sections 2.1.1-2.1.4 above), anxiety in class is constructed by communication apprehension and negative evaluation. Communication apprehension includes anxiety in both speaking and comprehension. According to Horwitz (2000) 'this disparity between how we see ourselves and how we think others see us has been my consistent explanation for language learners' anxieties' (p. 258), fear of negative evaluation can be formed from two aspects: negative self-evaluation

and fear of negative evaluation from others. The construct of classroom-based anxiety is illustrated in Figure 3.1:

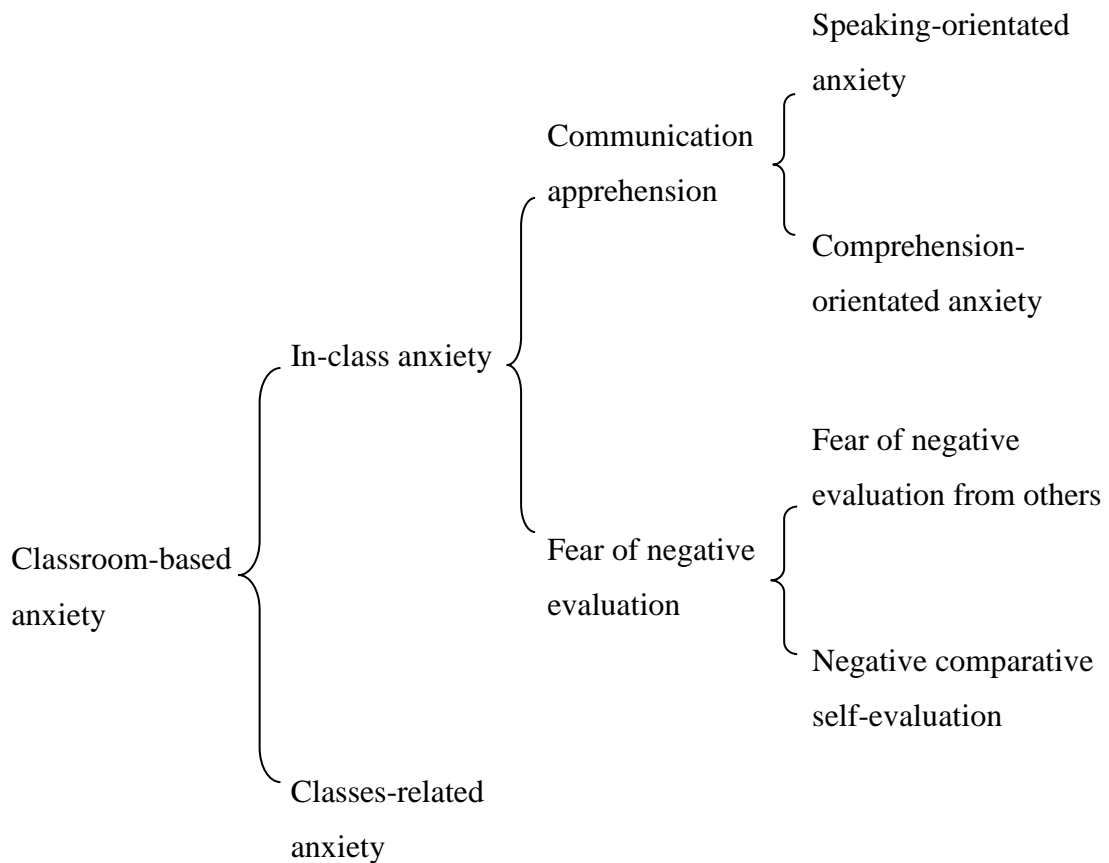


Figure 3.1 Construct of classroom-based anxiety

2.2 Measures

Generally speaking, anxiety can be measured in three ways: by behavioural observation, physiological assessment (e.g., testing blood pressure or heart-beat rate), and self-report (Daly, 1991). According to Spielberger and Rickman (1990) ‘rating scales and psychometric self-report inventories and questionnaires are by far the most popular procedures for assessing anxiety...’ (p. 77): the most commonly used measure is the self-report, usually generated from questionnaires employing Likert scales.

Language anxiety needs to be measured in L2 contexts, and therefore it requires a specifically designed scale rather than a general anxiety measure (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Horwitz, 2001): for instance, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), described below.

2.2.1 The FLCAS

In this section, the FLCAS is explained in detail, because (a) it is one of the most widely used scales in language anxiety research (Horwitz, 2001); (b) it is reliable (Horwitz, 2001) (see Section 2.2.1.2 below); (c) it was used as one of the main sources for developing the anxiety scale utilised in the present research (see Chapter 5 Section 2.2.2).

2.2.1.1 Description

The FLCAS was initially created in Horwitz (1983), and was further developed in Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). It was also evaluated in Horwitz (1986). It is a questionnaire, including 33 items designed using 5-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly disagree*). As a self-report scale, it measures respondents' levels of anxiety based on their agreement or disagreement with specific statements used to describe anxiety in classroom-based L2 learning. For example,

Statement: 'I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.' (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, p. 129-130)

Option: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree,
4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree

The item statements in this scale were developed from several main sources (Horwitz, 1986):

- The researchers' teaching experience in L2 classrooms; for example, 'the author's experience with anxious students in her own foreign language classes also served as a basis for [the foreign language classroom anxiety] scale items' (p. 38);

- Student self-reports;

- A review of various anxiety scales, such as the scale of test anxiety (Sarason, 1978), the scale of speech anxiety (Paul, 1966), the communication apprehension scale (McCroskey, 1970), and the French class anxiety scale (Gardner et al., 1979).

The FLCAS was not developed based on a precise conceptualisation of classroom-based anxiety. According to Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), the FLCAS measures the three components of classroom-based anxiety as well as other aspects of this anxiety variable. They are presented in Table 3.1, together with some examples.

Table 3.1 *Aspects of anxiety assessed in the FLCAS*

Aspect of anxiety assessed	Example (as an item statement)
Communication apprehension	‘I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.’
Fear of negative evaluation	‘I keep thinking that other students are better at languages than I am.’
Test anxiety	‘I worry about the consequences of failing my language class.’
Fear of error-making	‘I don’t worry about making mistakes in language classes.’
Anxiety with regard to L2-classes in general	‘I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.’
Anxiety with regard to comprehending L2 input	‘I get nervous when I don’t understand every word the language teacher says.’
Fear of being less competent than peers	‘I keep thinking that other students are better at languages than I am.’

(p. 129-130)

2.2.1.2 Reliability

The reliability of the FLCAS was initially assessed by Horwitz (1986), who reported a Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient of .93 ($N = 108$) in the initial test and a coefficient of .83 ($N = 78$) in the re-test launched eight weeks later.

The FLCAS has also been reported to be reliable in numerous studies (e.g., Aida, 1994; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999; Zhang,

2001; Rodríguez & Abreu, 2003; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Tóth, 2008). Saito, Horwitz and Garza (1999) reported a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.94 using 383 American university students learning various L2s. Rodríguez and Abreu (2003) found that the FLCAS was reliable using 110 Spanish speakers of English and French.

2.2.1.3 Validity

In order to show the construct validity of the FLCAS, a range of studies (e.g., Aida, 1994; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Kim, 2000; Tóth, 2008) investigated the FLCAS using exploratory factor analysis. Some of these results are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 *Factors in the FLCAS*

Study	Factors in the FLCAS
Aida (1994)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 ‘Speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation’ 2 ‘Fear of failing the class’ 3 ‘Comfortableness in speaking with Japanese people’ 4 ‘Negative attitudes towards the Japanese class’ <p>(p. 159-162)</p>
Kim (2000)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 ‘General speaking anxiety’ 2 ‘Concerns about the success in classes’ 3 ‘Discomfort in English classes’ 4 ‘Negative attitudes regarding English classes’ 5 ‘Anxiety in understanding speech of English teachers’ <p>(p. 95-98)</p>
Tóth (2008)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 ‘Global FLA’ (mainly with speaking apprehension and fear of negative evaluation) 2 ‘Fear of inadequate performance in English classes’ (i.e., test anxiety and low self-perceived L2 competence) 3 ‘Attitudes to the English class’ 4 ‘Teacher-related anxieties’ <p>(p. 64-69)</p>

Note. The key words in the table above are highlighted in yellow.

A comparison of the results of these three studies suggests that speaking anxiety was the most important component in the FLCAS and that attitude was also an important

component. Apart from these two, several other components were suggested by two out of the three studies: fear of negative evaluation (Aida, 1994; Tóth, 2008), fear of failing the class (Aida, 1994; Kim, 2000), and teacher/teaching-related-anxiety (Kim, 2000; Tóth, 2008).

The fact that the major FLCAS components (i.e., speaking anxiety and fear of negative evaluation) have consistently been revealed in these studies suggests that the FLCAS was valid. Test anxiety, however, was not found to be a main component in the FLCAS, supporting the argument made in Section 2.1.3 above.

There may be various reasons why different FLCAS components have been revealed in different studies. A main reason is that the number of items used to measure each component of anxiety is not equal. For example, only three items are used to measure test anxiety, whereas more than a dozen items are used for speaking apprehension. Although it is understandable that ‘communication apprehension... plays a large role in foreign language anxiety’ (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 127), the use of unequal number of items could explain why test anxiety was not found to be a main FLCAS component. Moreover, the difference may have also been caused by the utilisation of factor analysis, since it is a complicated statistical technique which involves various assessments and standards.

In addition, it seems that Tóth’s (2008) argument ‘the results of factor analysis ... lent support to Horwitz *et al.*’s (1986) three-part model of [foreign language anxiety]’ (p. 70) was not supported by the results of the other studies, and therefore further research may be required in order to test the construct validity of the FLCAS.

2.2.1.4 Evaluation

The FLCAS is one of the most important contributions to language anxiety research, because (a) it is one of the most widely used scales in this area (Horwitz, 2001); (b) numerous studies have reported it to be reliable (see Section 2.2.1.2 above); (c) studies have consistently found a negative correlation between the FLCAS scores and course grades (e.g., Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a; 1994b; Saito & Samimy,

1996; Liu, 2006) (see Chapter 4 Section 1), suggesting that ambiguity with regard to the relationship between anxiety and performance, which was suspected to be caused by the lack of a reliable anxiety measure in L2 contexts, seemed to be solved (Horwitz, 2001) (see Chapter 2 Sections 1.2 and 2.3).

The principal features of the FLCAS are summarised as follows:

- The FLCAS was designed to measure anxiety in classroom-based learning.
- The FLCAS was developed in a L1-dominated context, implying that (a) both L1 and L2 could be used for teacher-student communication in class; (b) L1 rather than L2 was commonly used outside the classroom.
- It may not be appropriate to use the FLCAS in L2-dominated contexts. Woodrow (2006a) has argued that ‘living in an environment where the target language is also the language of everyday communication may influence anxiety’ (p. 309). She claims that the FLCAS fails to measure how English would impact upon the L2 learners’ anxiety in Australia. It is possible that the anxiety which students experience in the classes where the teacher can only speak the L2 is different from the anxiety which they experience in the classes where the teacher can communicate with them using their L1 as well as the L2 (see Chapter 7 Sections 4.1 for further discussion).
- Most FLCAS items measure anxiety by assessing respondents’ reactions to anxiety-provoking situations (Woodrow, 2006a). These reactions can be physiological (e.g., ‘I tremble when I know that I’m going to be called on in language class’), affective (e.g., ‘I don’t understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes’), or cognitive (e.g., ‘I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class’) (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 129-130).
- Based on the following facts, it appears that the FLCAS principally measures anxiety in general and anxiety in speaking contexts: (a) 17 out of 33 item

statements are indicative of anxiety in general L2 learning; (b) 13 item statements focus on anxiety in L2 speaking; (c) only several item statements are reflective of anxiety in L2 listening; (d) none of the items are used to measure anxiety in reading and writing.

- Few FLCAS item statements describe the consequences of being anxious (e.g., ‘in language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know’) (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 129-130).
- More FLCAS item statements describe the anxiety which learners experience in relation to producing rather than processing the L2 (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a).

An evaluation of the FLCAS item statements gives rise to three points that are worth mentioning, as follows:

1. Generally speaking, each aspect of anxiety should be assessed using an equal number of items, unless there are specific reasons for not doing so. In the FLCAS, most of the specific aspects of anxiety are assessed using one item, and therefore it might be more appropriate either to delete or to combine any overlapping items. These item statements are presented with explanations in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 *Overlapping FLCAS item statements*

Overlapping item statements	Explanation
<p>‘I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language.’</p> <p>‘I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.’</p>	<p>The situation ‘when I am speaking in my foreign language’ includes the situation ‘when I am speaking in my language class’.</p>
<p>‘I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.’</p> <p>‘I get nervous when language teacher asks questions which I haven’t prepared in advance.’</p>	<p>Both item statements focus on speaking a L2 without preparation in class.</p>
<p>‘I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.’</p> <p>‘I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.’</p>	<p>Both item statements involve native speakers; there is no obvious difference between them.</p>
<p>‘I tremble when I know that I’m going to be called on in language class.’</p> <p>‘I can feel my heart pounding when I’m going to be called on in my language class.’</p>	<p>The situations described in these two item statements seem to be almost identical (as highlighted in yellow).</p>
<p>‘It frightens me when I don’t understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.’</p> <p>‘I get nervous when I don’t understand every word the language teacher says.’</p>	<p>The situations described in these two items statements are similar.</p>

(Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 129-130)

2. Anxiety should be measured separately from other learner variables (e.g., attitude and test anxiety), even though they may be related. For example, ‘test anxiety is an anxiety problem in general, not specific to the foreign language learning context’ (MacIntyre & Gardner 1989, p. 268, also cited in In’nami, 2006, p. 320). Therefore, it would be more appropriate to exclude items of this type, as presented in Table 3.4:

Table 3.4 *The FLCAS items used to measure other learner variables*

Item statement	Variable assessed
‘It wouldn’t bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.’	Attitude towards L2 learning
‘I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.’	Test anxiety
‘I worry about the consequences of failing my language class.’	Test anxiety
‘The more I study for my language test, the more confused I get.’	Test anxiety

(*ibid.*, p. 129-130)

3. The suitability of some specific items may be debatable, as detailed below:

‘During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.’ (*ibid.*, p. 129-130)

There can be various reasons for this type of avoidance behaviour, such as personal problems, a lack of concentration, as well as anxiety. This suggests that the item statement above assesses a combination of learner variables rather than just anxiety.

‘I don’t understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.’
(*ibid.*, p. 129-130)

In order to assess respondents’ anxiety levels, it would seem more appropriate to ask them about these directly, rather than to ask them what they think of other students’ feelings. After all, it is possible that some respondents do not feel anxious but they do somehow understand why other students experience anxiety in class.

‘I often feel like not going to my language class.’ (*ibid.*, p. 129-130)

There may be numerous reasons why a student does not wish to attend language classes, such as being lazy or having no interest in learning a L2. Although anxiety may have some effects on learners’ negative feelings towards L2 learning, it may be inappropriate to claim the fact that they ‘[feeling] like not going to my language class’ could only be caused by anxiety.

In summary, although some of the FLCAS item statements are problematic, it remains as a whole a well-established anxiety scale.

2.2.2 *Language skill specific measure*

Since the FLCAS was only designed to measure anxiety in general L2 contexts, some researchers have argued that anxiety in language-skill-specific contexts should be measured separately from anxiety in general contexts (e.g., Phillips, 1992; Aida, 1994; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999). As a result, some scales have been developed for this purpose. For example, Saito, Horwitz and Garza (1999) proposed the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS). Its internal consistency was indicated by a Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient of .86. In terms of its discriminant validity, a significant correlation coefficient of .64 obtained between the FLRAS and FLCAS

indicates that approximately 59% of the variance in the FLRAS was different from the FLCAS,³ suggesting that these two scales possessed more difference than similarity.

3 Anxiety out of Class

3.1 Rationale

It is necessary to examine anxiety out of class, since (a) there is little research with regard to it, as most empirical studies have focused on classroom-based anxiety; (b) anxiety conceptualisation ‘should be expanded to reflect potential situations beyond the classroom that could trigger language anxiety’ (Woodrow, 2006a, p. 311); (c) it is possible that L2 learners may experience anxiety when using their L2 out of class, which may consequently affect their L2 learning in class, particularly in a context where the L2 is the dominated language.

Therefore, it would be also necessary to examine the relationship between classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class, as well as which communicative situations are more anxiety-provoking. For example, Woodrow (2006a) argues that communication out of class might be more anxiety-provoking than in class when the learners live in a L2-dominated environment (see Chapter 7 Section 1 for further discussion).

3.2 Measures

Anxiety out of class has generally been measured in conjunction with classroom-based anxiety (e.g., Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Woodrow, 2006a). Several scales have developed to measure anxiety in both contexts, such as the French Class Anxiety Scale (FCAS) (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989), the French Use Anxiety Scale (FUAS) (ibid.), and the Second Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (SLSAS). The common features between these scales are presented below:

³The correlation coefficient of .64 ($p < .01$) means that the FLCAS and FLRAS shared approximately 41% of the variance; therefore, approximately 59% of the variance between these two was different.

- They all focus on anxiety in speaking and listening rather than in reading and writing, particularly out of class, maybe because L2 learners use the former two skills more often than the latter outside the classroom.
- They all measure out-of class anxiety in use rather than in learning.
- Most of the item statements in these scales are situation-orientated, and therefore anxiety is assessed in various L2-related communicative situations (e.g., how anxious respondents feel when speaking L2 to a salesperson in a shop).
- Out-of-class anxiety scales are reflective of learners' real-life experience, with a particular focus on their university experience (e.g., speaking with lecturers or administrators).
- Most of the situations described in these item statements are the situations frequently experienced by learners (e.g., answering a question or speaking to a teacher).
- Some of the item statements in out-of-class anxiety scales describe the anxiety which learners may experience when speaking to people with different roles or jobs (e.g., a friend or lecturer).

The FCAS and FUAS are examined in the following sections 3.2.1-3.2.2, since they were used as the models and sources for developing the scales of classroom-based and out-of-class anxiety for the present study (see Chapter 5 Section 2.2.2).

3.2.1 *The FCAS and FUAS*

The FCAS was initially developed by Gardner (1985), and was later revised by MacIntyre (1988, cited in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). The FUAS, which is possibly the first out-of-class anxiety scale, was developed by Gardner (cited in Glikzman, 1981, cited in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Both of the scales were designed with 6-

point Likert scales ranging from 1 (Agree) to 6 (Disagree). They were used to measure the anxiety which Anglophone learners experienced in various French-related situations within and outside the classroom in Canada. The respondents were required to answer how much they either agreed or disagreed that they were anxious or relaxed in each specific situation. For example,

Statement: ‘I was always afraid that the other students would laugh at me if I spoke up in French class.’

Option: Agree 1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5 – 6 Disagree

(McIntyre & Gardner, 1988, p. 21, 23-24)

Each of the scales consists of eight items, and half of the item statements are negatively worded. In the FCAS, each of most of the item statements describe a specific speaking situation, as listed below:

- Respond to a question
- Being laughed at by other students when speaking French
- Volunteering answers
- Participating in French class
- Not understanding why other students were nervous
- Active participation taking place
- Answering a question out loud

(*ibid.*, p. 23-24)

In the FUAS, most of the item statements described the conversational situations which the learners commonly experienced when using French (L2) out of class, as listed below:

- Speaking French in an informal gathering where both English and French speakers were present
- Asking for street direction
- Speaking with a sales clerk

- Speaking French on the phone
- Ordering a meal in French in a U.S. restaurant
- Speaking with a French speaking person
- Speaking French with the boss

(*ibid.*, p. 21)

Both of the scales are quite reliable: MacIntyre and Gardner (1989; 1991c) reported Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of 0.86 and 0.85 respectively for the FUAS reliability using Anglophone students at Canadian universities (p. 257; p. 520). MacIntyre and Gardner (1991c) also reported the FCAS to be reliable ($\alpha = .92$, $p < .01$) (p. 519).

Unfortunately, it is difficult to examine the FCAS and FUAS any further, since in most studies (e.g., Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Gardner, 2001) these two scales have always been used together as a part of a larger scale (e.g., an attitude/motivation test battery) for a wider research agenda, rather than being used separately as a main focus. Furthermore, little research has specifically focused on the relationship between these two scales.

3.2.2 *The SLSAS*

Since the existing anxiety scales did not 'reflect the second language environment of the sample' (Woodrow, 2006a, p. 313) (see Section 2.2.1.4 above), Woodrow (2006a) developed the SLSAS in order to measure English (L2) learners' anxiety in speaking English within and outside the classroom in Australia. This scale consists of two parts: the subscales for in-class anxiety (including five items) and for out-of-class (including seven items). It was designed with 5-point Likert scale, requiring the respondents to indicate their anxiety levels with regard to each specific situation by selecting from 1 (*Not at all anxious*) to 5 (*Extremely anxious*). For example,

Question: ‘...how anxious do you feel when you *speak English* in the following situations?’

Situation: ‘The teacher asks me a question in English in class.’

Option:	1	2	3	4	5
	Not at all Anxious	Slightly Anxious	Moderately Anxious	Very Anxious	Extremely Anxious

(*ibid.*, p. 327)

According to Woodrow (2006a), the item statements were formed on the basis of the following points:

- ‘The communicational setting’, focusing on ‘the in-class/out-of-class distinction’: for instance ‘the teacher asks me a question in English in class’;
- ‘Interlocutor (speaker/listener) variables’, which are:
 - (a) ‘The number of speakers’, which could be either singular or plural;
 - (b) ‘The status of speakers’: for instance ‘talking to administrative staff of my language school in English’;
 - (c) ‘A native or non-native speaker of English’: for instance ‘a native speaker I do not know asks me questions’;
- ‘The nature of the communication’, referring to ‘initiating and responding to a conversation’. For instance ‘asking for advice in English from a lecturer/supervisor in my intended university faculty of study’ and ‘a lecturer/supervisor in my intended university faculty of study asks me a question in English’.

(*ibid.*, p. 313-314)

Each SLSAS item statement describes a speaking-orientated situation either in or out of class. These situations can be anxiety-provoking, as listed below:

In-class anxiety sub-scale:

- Answering questions
- Taking part in group discussion
- Taking part in a role play or a dialogue
- Giving an oral presentation
- Contributing to a formal discussion

Out-of-class anxiety sub-scale:

- Speaking informally with teacher
- Talking to administrative staff in the language school
- Being asked a question by a lecturer
- Asking for advice from a lecturer
- Speaking with friends as a native speaker
- Taking part in a conversation among native speakers
- Being asked questions by a stranger as a native speaker

(*ibid.*, p. 327)

Specifically, most of the item statements in the out-of-class anxiety sub-scale are used to describe one-to-one communicative situations, with a particular focus on an university-related situations (e.g., speaking with a lecturer).

The SLSAS was found to be reliable: Woodrow (2006a) reported a coefficient of 0.94 for its internal consistency; 0.89 for the separated in-class anxiety sub-scale and 0.87 for the separate out-of-class anxiety sub-scale (p. 317).

Unfortunately, it is difficult to examine the SLSAS any further, since apart from Woodrow (2006a), so far no other studies have evaluated or used this scale.

4 Summary

This chapter has focused on the conceptualisation and measures of language anxiety (i.e., classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class). In the present study, language

anxiety is deemed to be a combination of classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class. The FLCAS, SLSAS, FCAS and FUAS have been examined, since they were used as the sources for developing the measure of language anxiety for the present study (see Chapter 5 Section 2.2.2).

The following chapter reviews the literature on the relationship between language anxiety and other learner variables.

Chapter Four

Chapter Four

Relationship between Language Anxiety and Other Learner Variables: A Review of Empirical Studies

The aim of this chapter is twofold:

- (1) to draw a general picture of the relationship between anxiety and learner variables;
- (2) to provide theoretical support for the relationship between anxiety and selected learner variables investigated in the present study;

Since the 1980s, there have been two main focuses in language anxiety research: the relationship between anxiety and achievement, and the relationship between anxiety and other variables (Price, 1991). These are reviewed in Sections 1 and 2 respectively, followed by a summary in Section 3.

In the chapter, classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety were not differentiated, because (a) very few studies have investigated the effects of other learner variables on anxiety out of class, although some studies did examine anxiety as a combination of both types (e.g., Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997); (b) no distinction has been made between the relationship obtained between classroom-based anxiety and other learner variables and the relationship obtained between out-of-class anxiety and these variables.

1 Relationship between Anxiety and Achievement⁴

Anxiety has been described as ‘...the best single correlate of achievement’ (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a, p. 183), and has also been revealed as one of the strongest

⁴ In this chapter, the terms *achievement* and *performance* are used interchangeably. According to the definition of performance that ‘how a person uses this knowledge in producing and understanding sentences’ (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992, p. 269), performance can be used to represent achievement in L2 classes.

predictors of achievement (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; MacIntyre, 2002). Most language anxiety research has contributed to the improvement of L2 performance (Dörnyei, 2005).

A negative relationship between anxiety and achievement has consistently been found in numerous studies (e.g., Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Aida, 1994; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Liu, 2006; Woodrow, 2006a). For instance, Aida (1994) discovered a significant negative relationship ($r = -.38, p < .01$) between anxiety (measured by the FLCAS) and achievement (measured by final course grades) in 96 American university students on a Japanese course (p. 162).

A negative relationship has consistently been found between anxiety and achievement. For example, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) reported that that French class anxiety (measured by the French Class Anxiety Scale) and French use anxiety (measured by the French Use Anxiety Scale) were negatively correlated with written and oral proficiency scores ($r = -.34, -.42, -.40, \text{ and } -.54, p < .001$) in 104 Canadian university students with English as their L1.

The anxiety – achievement relationship is discussed further in the following Sections 1.1-1.3.

1.1 Anxiety – achievement relationship in learning different language skills

1.1.1 Anxiety – achievement relationship in speaking

A negative relationship between anxiety and achievement in speaking has consistently been reported in a number of studies (e.g., Phillips, 1992; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Woodrow, 2006a).

Phillips (1992) found such a relationship between these two variables ($r = -.40, p < .01$) using 66 American university students at French (L2) classes. According to Phillips (1992), this correlation only appeared to be moderate because of the utilisation of the FLCAS, which measures anxiety in general rather than speaking,

despite the fact that ‘...the FLCAS appears to measure anxiety primarily related to speaking situations’ (Aida, 1994, p. 163). Therefore, in order to measure anxiety with more accuracy in speaking, he posited a need for developing a new scale.

This requirement was met by Woodrow (2006a), who developed the Second Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (SLSAS), and also reported a negative correlation ($r = -.23, p < .01$) between the SLSAS scores and speaking performance in 275 English (L2) learners in Australia. However, this weak correlation seems unable to lend full support to Phillips’s (1992) claim that the lack of success in achieving a strong correlation between speaking anxiety and oral performance was a result of the lack of an appropriate anxiety scale in speaking. However, according to Woodrow (2006a), ‘this is understandable because anxiety is just one of a number of variables influencing successful communication’ (p. 231). Therefore, there seems to be a need to focus on the relationship between the SLSAS and FLCAS in future research.

1.1.2 Anxiety – achievement relationship in listening

A negative relationship has consistently been found between anxiety and achievement in L2 listening (e.g., Vogely, 1997; Elkhafaifi, 2000). Elkhafaifi (2005) examined the relationship between general anxiety (measured by the FLCAS), listening anxiety (measured by the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS)), and overall and listening achievement in 233 Arabic (L2) learners at an American university. This study reported that the FLCAS and FLLAS scores were significantly negatively correlated with overall and listening grades ($r = -.54, -.53, -.65, \text{ and } -.70, p < .01$).

It has been argued that L2 listening anxiety should be separated from general anxiety, although they share similarity. Elkhafaifi (2000) found a positive correlation coefficient of .66 ($p < .01$) between the FLCAS and FLLAS scores, suggesting that those learners who felt anxious in general learning were also likely to experience anxiety in listening. The fact that these two variables shared approximately 44% of the variance suggests that general anxiety and listening anxiety possessed more difference than similarity.

1.1.3 Anxiety – achievement relationship in reading

A number of studies have reported an inverse relationship between these two variables in reading (e.g., Saito & Samimy, 1996; Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999; Sellers, 2000; Matsuda & Gobel, 2001; 2004).

General anxiety and reading anxiety have been found to be distinctive but also related to each other. For example, Saito, Horwitz, and Garza (1999) investigated anxiety in reading (measured by the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS)) in 383 American university students learning various L2s. They found a correlation coefficient of .64 ($p < .01$) between the FLCAS and FLRAS scores, indicating that 41% of the FLCAS could be explained by the FLRAS. This suggests that these two variables possessed more difference than similarity.

Anxiety can be affected by performance. For example, Saito, Horwitz, and Garza (1999) also found significant effects of learners' performance on their general and reading anxiety [$F(3, 326) = 16.85, p < .001$; $F(3, 341) = 7.20, p < .01$].

1.1.4 Anxiety – achievement relationship in writing

Cheng, Horwitz, and Schallert (1999) focused on writing anxiety (measured by the Second Language Writing Anxiety Scale (SLWAS)) in 433 Chinese Mandarin learners of English at Taiwanese universities. The important findings in their study are presented below:

Writing anxiety and general anxiety were found to be two similar but distinct variables. The FLCAS was positively correlated with the SLWAT and with its subcomponents (i.e., SLWA1, SLWA2 and SLWA3⁵) ($r = .65, .55, .28$, and $.24, p < .001$). The SLWAT was positively correlated with the FLCAS subcomponents (i.e.,

⁵Based on the factor analysis results, SLWA1 was labelled as 'low self-confidence in writing English', SLWA2 was labelled as 'aversiveness of writing English', and SLWA3 as 'apprehension of English writing evaluation' (p. 426-427).

FLCA1 and FLCA2⁶) ($r = .51$ and $.40$, $p < .001$). These correlation coefficients suggest that the FLCAS and SLWAT possessed more difference than similarity.

Performance was negatively related to writing anxiety as well as to general anxiety, since writing course grades were negatively correlated with the SLWAT, SLWA1, SLWA3, FLCAS, FLCA1 and FLCA2 ($r = -.27$, $-.25$, $-.13$, $-.25$, $-.12$, and $-.23$, $p < .05$).

The fact that writing scores were more strongly correlated with the SLWAT than the FLCAS suggests that the SLWAT was more suitable for measuring anxiety in writing than the FLCAS.

The FLCAS had a broader relationship with achievement than the SLWAT. This is because the FLCAS, FLCA1 and FLCA2 were all significantly correlated with both writing and speaking grades ($r = -.25$, $-.12$, $-.23$, $-.28$, $-.19$, and $-.28$, $p < .05$), whereas some of the SLWAT subcomponents were not.

The fact that the FLCAS and its subcomponents were correlated more strongly with speaking course grades than with writing course grades suggests that the FLCAS is more associated with anxiety in speaking, which is consistent with the finding of numerous studies (e.g., Aida, 1994) (see Section 1.1.1 and Chapter 3).

1.1.5 Summary

The above review of the anxiety – achievement relationship has shown that anxiety is negatively linked with performance both in general language learning and in learning specific language skills. The other major findings presented in Sections 1.1.1-1.1.4 above are summarised below:

- Language-skill-specific anxieties are related to but also distinguishable from general anxiety.

⁶ Based on the factor analyse results, FLCA1 was labelled as ‘low self-confidence in speaking English’, and FLCA2 as ‘general English classroom performance anxiety’ (p. 425-426).

- It is more appropriate to utilise language-skill-specific anxiety scales than the general anxiety scales when assessing anxiety in a language-skill-specific context.
- A large proportion of general anxiety is represented by speaking anxiety.
- General anxiety plays an important role in overall L2 learning as well as in learning speaking, listening, reading and writing.
- General anxiety has wider influence than any of the language-skill-specific anxiety on L2 learning.

Moreover, further research might be necessary in order to evaluate the validity and reliability of the scales of language-skill-specific anxieties (Cheng, 2004).

1.2 Anxiety – achievement relationship in learning different L2s

Effects of anxiety on performance have been revealed in various L2 learners with different L1s. For instance, Aida (1994) found anxiety in American university students with various L1s on a Japanese course. Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) focused on the negative effects of anxiety emerging in French performance of Canadian Anglophone learners. Elkhafafi (2005) indicated that anxiety hinders American university students' Arabic (L2) performance. Liu (2006) found that many Chinese students experienced anxiety when speaking English in class. Woodrow (2006a) discovered the debilitating effects of anxiety on the English speaking of L2 learners with various L1s in Australia. Therefore, a question is raised here: is it possible to presume that the effects of anxiety are similar in learning different L2s (i.e., anxiety effects exist regardless of L1 – L2 pairing)?

Answers to this question have been contradictory: on the one hand, L1 – L2 pairing has not found to be significantly related to anxiety (Horwitz, 2001). For instance, Rodríguez and Abreu (2003) focused on anxiety in 110 Spanish learners who either learned English (L2) or French (L2). The results show no significant difference

between these learners' anxiety in learning either English or French [$t(109) = -1.73$, $p > .08$], suggesting that the effects of anxiety did not significantly differ in the learners with different L2s but the same L1. Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (1999) also reported no difference in anxiety between 210 American university students on Spanish, French, German and Japanese courses [$\chi^2(3) = 3.06$, $p > .05$].

On the other hand, some studies have suggested that L1 – L2 pairing might play a role in anxiety. For example, Aida (1994) thought that American students were more likely to feel anxious in learning a non-Western language (e.g., Japanese) than a Western language (e.g., Spanish). Woodrow (2006a) reported that students from Europe and Vietnam were less anxious than their classmates from Japan, Korea and China on an English (L2) learning programme in Australia.

Several researchers (e.g., Rodríguez & Abreu, 2003; Woodrow, 2006) have explained this contradiction by suggesting learners' cultural background rather than the L1 – L2 pairing to be the source of the anxiety which they experience in L2 learning. Therefore, it seems more reasonable to suggest that there is little association between anxiety and L1 – L2 pairing. In other words, L2 learners consistently experience anxiety regardless of their L1 or L2. Since only a few studies have focused on this topic, 'any conclusion regarding the stability of either the general FL anxiety or the specific anxiety is premature' (Rodríguez & Abreu, 2003, p. 372).

1.3 Cause – effect relationship between anxiety and achievement

There has been some controversy regarding the cause – effect relationship between anxiety and achievement, as explained below:

Anxiety is deemed to be a consequence rather than a cause of poor performance or L2 learning difficulties. Sparks and Granschow (1991; 1993a; 1993b; 1995; 2001) has developed the Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (LCDH)⁷ as an alternative

⁷ The major contents of the LCDH are as follows: (a) L2 learning is primarily based on L1 aptitude; (b) difficulties in coding the components of languages (e.g., the phonological, orthographic, syntactic and semantic aspects of language) cause the poor achievement in both L1 and L2 learning; (c) anxiety is a consequence rather than a cause of L2 learning difficulties.

explanation for poor L2 performance. They have also argued for the involvement of a cognitive – linguistic disability in the anxiety – achievement relationship: it leads to poor L2 performance, which consequently results in high levels of anxiety (ibid.).

However, the LCDH has been criticised (MacIntyre, 1995a; 1995b; Horwitz, 2000; 2001). Horwitz (2000) has argued that (a) anxiety affects the learning of other academic subjects (e.g., mathematics), and the LCDH fails to explain the effects of anxiety in these contexts; (b) even successful L2 learners experience anxiety (e.g., Liu (2006) found that a large number of Chinese students experienced anxiety in English language classrooms at a top Chinese university); (c) it is possible that both achievement and anxiety could be impacted by a number of variables, including affective variables (e.g., motivation) as well as cognitive variables (e.g., L2 aptitude). Similarly, MacIntyre (1995a; 1995b) has maintained that the LCDH is oversimplified, as it neglects to examine the effects of L2 contexts and other social variables in the anxiety – achievement relationship. It is possible that the linkage between L2 cognitive process and learning context was not taken into account in the studies involving the LCDH (e.g., Granschow & Sparks, 1996).

Therefore, it seems more appropriate to suggest that an interrelationship exists between anxiety and achievement, rather than a one-way causality (MacIntyre, 1995a; 1995b).

2 Relationship between Anxiety and Other Variables

2.1 Introduction

A large number of variables may affect anxiety in L2 learning. They can generally be classified into two types: (a) external variables: for example, Abu-Rabia (2004) found that teachers' attitude was a significant predictor of anxiety in 67 English learners aged 12-13 in Israel; (b) learner variables (as detailed below):

Learner variables (also called individual variables) can general be classified into three types: demographic variables (e.g., gender and age), academic variables (e.g., achievement and proficiency), and psychological variables (e.g., motivation, attitudes and self-confidence).

Many studies have investigated whether there is a relationship between anxiety and certain demographic variables or not. For example, Elkahafaifi (2005) found that Arabic (L2) learners' anxiety was not affected by their choice of course types (i.e., learning Arabic as a major, compulsory or optional subject). Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (1999) found no relationship between L2 learners' anxiety and their family's foreign language proficiency.

A great number of empirical studies have found a relationship between anxiety and psychological variables (e.g., Cheng, 2001; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006; 2007). Cheng (2001) found that Chinese learners of English in Taiwan with stronger belief in giftedness might experience higher levels of anxiety when learning English (p. 82). Mills, Pajares and Herron (2006) found an inverse relationship between anxiety and self-efficiency in American university students' French (L2) reading and listening. They then suggested that L2 readers might feel anxious when they possessed lower self-perception of their reading ability.

The relationship between anxiety and the following variables are reviewed in detail in the following Sections 2.2-2.5, as they were also investigated in the present study.

- Gender
- Age
- Age of starting to learn a L2
- Year at university
- Previous overseas experience
- Prior language experience
- Proficiency
- Frequency of using a L2 out of class

- Second language motivation
- Attitude towards L2 learning
- Self-confidence

2.2 Selected demographic variables

2.2.1 Gender

The relationship between anxiety and gender is not clearly established, since relevant results have been inconsistent, as detailed below.

Some studies have found a significant association between these two variables (e.g., Kitano, 2001; Cheng, 2002; Abu-Rabia, 2004). Abu-Rabia (2004) examined the relationship between these two variables in English (L2) learners aged 12-13 from single-gender classrooms in Israel. A significant gender difference was found in anxiety [$t(2, 65) = 24.67, p < .01$], with females being more anxious ($M = 2.90$) than males ($M = 2.10$). The regression result also suggests that 25% of the anxiety was explained by gender ($R^2 = .25, p < .01$). In Kitano (2001), the multiple regression results indicate a gender difference in anxiety among 212 American university students in Japanese classes [$\beta = -.616, t(1, 212) = -2.075, p < .05$]. This study also found that male students experienced anxiety at a higher level when they perceived their Japanese speaking performance to be less competent (p. 556). Similarly, Cheng (2002) also found that a gender difference existed in Taiwanese learners' English writing anxiety [$F(1, 155) = 6.82, p < .05$], with females ($M = 85.67$) being more anxious than males ($M = 77.41$).

Some studies have not found a significant association between these two variables (e.g., Aida, 1994; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Rodríguez & Abreu, 2003; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). Aida (1994) reported no significant gender difference in anxiety [$t(94) = .41, p > .05$] in Japanese (L2) learners in America. Similarly, Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (1999) also did not find a significant relationship between anxiety and gender using a Pearson correlation ($r = .11, p > .05$) in

American university students on various L2 courses. In Matsuda and Gobel (2004), the MANOVA results failed to show a significant effect of gender on anxiety.

Other studies have obtained mixed results (e.g., Pappamihiel, 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Dewaele, 2007). Pappamihiel (2001) investigated anxiety in 178 Mexican middle school students in both ESL and mainstream classrooms. The descriptive statistical results show that females were more anxious than males in mainstream classrooms; however, no gender difference was found at EFL classrooms. According to the author, ‘... students moved from ESL to mainstream classes, their language anxieties shift from academic types of worry to peer interactional concerns in which female students seem to feel more stress’ (p. 31). Elkhafaifi (2005) obtained two bodies of results with regard to anxiety and gender: (a) a gender difference was found in the levels of general anxiety [$F(1, 125) = 4.34, p < .01$], with females being more anxious ($M = 90.05$) than males ($M = 81.68$); (b) no gender difference was found in listening anxiety [$F(1, 125) = 2.26, p > .05$]. It is, however, difficult to explain these results without considering the effects of other variables on anxiety in L2 learning.

In summary, the relationship between anxiety and gender remains unclear. There may be various reasons for this. The inconsistency may be resolved by placing anxiety and age in a larger picture where the effects of other variables would be taken into account.

2.2.2 Age

Mixed results have been obtained with regard to the relationship between anxiety and age, as detailed below.

Some studies have found a negative relationship between anxiety and age (e.g., Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1997; 1999; Zhang, 2001; Dewaele, 2007 LA; Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008). Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (1999) suggested that older learners tended to be more anxious, after reporting a significant negative correlation between these two variables ($r = .20, p < .01$) in L2 learners aged 18-71. After examining anxiety in 145 Chinese learners of English in Singapore,

Zhang (2001) also suggested that the older students were likely to feel more anxious than the younger ones. The author argued that the older learners might be more concerned about their self-esteem, which consequently resulted in anxiety (p. 80).

However, Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008) found that older learners tended to be less anxious. In their study, correlation results indicate that participants' ages were negatively correlated with anxiety when they were speaking a L2 to friends, colleagues, strangers, on the phone and in public ($r = -.095, -.136, -.131, \text{ and } -.156, p < .05$).

Therefore, the effects of age on anxiety are unclear. This might be caused by the interference of other variables, such as the research contexts. Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Daley's (1999a) and Zhang's (2001) studies were both conducted in the classroom using university students as participants, whereas Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008) approached multilingual adults with various backgrounds (including university students) in different ways (e.g., through e-mail and personal contacts).

2.2.3 Age of starting to learn a L2

Some studies have found a positive relationship between anxiety and the age of starting to learn a L2. For example,

Liu and Jackson (2008) reported that the age of starting to learn English was positively correlated with anxiety ($r = .207, p < .01$) in 547 Chinese learners of English at a Chinese university, suggesting that those students who started learning English at an older age might feel more anxious than those who started at a younger age (p. 80-81).

They also found that the age of starting to learn English was a predictor of anxiety ($\beta = .13, t = 3.76, p < .001$) in these students, suggesting that their age of starting to learn English did affect the anxiety which they experienced in English learning.

Similarly, Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008) found that the age of starting to learn a L2 had significant effects on anxiety in 464 multilingual individuals (with various L1, L2, L3 or L4). More specifically, the results indicate that early L2 starters felt less anxious than late starters when speaking with friends, colleagues, strangers, on the phone, and in public.

2.2.4 Year at university

Mixed results have been obtained with regard to relationship between anxiety and years of learning a L2 at university, as detailed below.

Some studies have reported a positive relationship between these two variables (e.g., Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1997; Levine, 2003). Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Daley (1997) found that year at university was significantly associated with anxiety levels [$F(1, 199) = 6.94, p < .01$] in 210 students on various L2 courses at American universities. Specifically, the students in their final year ($M = 3.19$) reported higher anxiety than those at the third year ($M = 2.89$), whose anxiety levels were also higher than those at the first-year ($M = 2.83$) and second-year ($M = 2.79$).

However, some studies have found a negative relationship between these two variables. For example, Elkhafaifi (2005) found that the year at university was significantly negatively correlated with the general anxiety and listening anxiety which American students experienced on their Arabic (L2) courses ($r = -.15$ and $-.13, p < .01$), suggesting that students in senior years felt less anxious in Arabic (L2) classes than those in junior years.

This inconsistency might be caused by the involvement of other variables in L2 learning. For example, final-year university students may be under more pressure when conducting their academic studies than those in the first-year, and this pressure may affect their anxiety levels; on the other hand, it is also possible that the students in senior years felt less anxiety than those in junior years because they were more familiar with language learning than those who had just started to learn a L2.

Therefore, it is difficult to pinpoint precisely why these results were contradictory without controlling for other variables.

2.2.5 Previous overseas experience

Some studies have found a significant negative relationship between anxiety and previous overseas experience. For example,

Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Dailey (1999) reported a significant negative relationship between anxiety and the number of visited foreign countries ($r = -.19, p < .01$) among 210 American university students learning various languages. The regression results also indicate that number of visited foreign countries is a predictor of anxiety ($\beta = .02, t = -3.11, p < .01$). Therefore, those students who had visited foreign countries before might feel less anxious in L2 learning.

In Matsuda and Gobel (2004), the univariate analysis results indicate the significant effects of previous overseas experience on a component of anxiety (i.e., *Low Self-confidence in Speaking English*) ($df = 1, 247, p < 0.007$) in 252 English (L2) students at a Japanese university (p. 30). This suggests that L2 learners with overseas experience might experience anxiety at a lower level.

2.2.6 Prior language experience

Prior language experience includes two main aspects: L2 learners' previous experience of learning a L2 and their other language experience (not learning-related). For example,

Young (1994) argued that anxiety could be the result of unpleasant previous language learning experience. Similarly, Samimy and Rardin (1994) found that unsuccessful previous language learning experience was a main source of anxiety, based on their analyses of approximately 100 university students' reflection papers over six years.

Aida (1994) found that the learners' other language experience might not affect their anxiety in Japanese learning, based on the ANOVA results which show no significant difference in native and non-native English speakers' Japanese class anxiety [$F(1, 94) = .07, p > .05$].

2.2.7 Summary

The previous Sections 2.2.1-2.2.7 has reviewed numerous studies with regard to the relationship between anxiety and selected demographic variables. The major findings are summarised below.

The association between anxiety and gender, age and year at university are unclear, since relevant study results have been contradictory. It is possible that the relationship between anxiety and these variables could be affected by other variables or contexts. For example, Elkhafafi (2005) reported a significant gender difference in anxiety, with females being more anxious than males; however, no gender difference was found in listening anxiety in the same study. The fact that gender affected anxiety in general but not in listening seems to suggest that the effects of gender are different on anxiety in different contexts.

There may be two ways of dealing with this issue in the future: (a) by controlling for the influence of other variables on these relationships; (b) by placing anxiety and these learner variables (i.e., gender, age and year at university) into a larger picture where the effects of the other variables could be taken into account.

Anxiety has also been found to be negatively related to previous overseas experience and to be positively related to age of starting to learn a L2. Anxiety may not be related to prior other language experience, but can be affected by previous experience of learning a L2.

2.3 Proficiency⁸

Anxiety has always been experienced by learners regardless of proficiency levels. For example, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991b) reported anxiety in 39 French (L2) beginners in Canada. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993a) investigated anxiety using 92 Anglophone students on introductory French courses. Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Daley (1999a) focused on anxiety in 210 American university students on French, Spanish, German and Japanese introductory, intermediate and advanced courses. Therefore, it is important to examine the relationship between anxiety and proficiency.

2.3.1 *Relationship between achievement and proficiency*

Before examining the relationship between proficiency and anxiety, it is important to differentiate achievement and proficiency, as explained below.

Achievement represents learning outcomes after a certain fixed period of time (e.g., an academic term). It is generally measured by final exam scores. A final exam is normally set directly based on what L2 learners have studied in class over a term. Final exam scores are the outcomes showing their progress. Therefore, achievement is directly linked with the L2 course, with the aim of showing how well learners have done in classroom-based learning.

Proficiency represents learners' ability to use a L2, which including accumulated achievement is developed within and outside the classroom over time. It is generally measured in two ways: (a) using scores of the standard tests (e.g., IELTS scores), which may or may not be directly linked with what learners have studied in class; (b) using levels (e.g., instructional levels (Saito & Samimy, 1996) and course levels (Elkhafaifi, 2005)). Therefore, proficiency is used to show learners' L2 ability, with no attention of reflecting how well the learners did in classroom-based learning.

The comparison between the characteristics of achievement and proficiency suggests that (a) proficiency may be affected by more variables than achievement, and

⁸ In this review, the terms *proficiency* and *competence* are used interchangeably.

therefore proficiency is more complicated than achievement; (b) achievement is more measureable than proficiency, and therefore the relationship between anxiety and achievement can be more easily and clearly established than the relationship between anxiety and proficiency.

In summary, achievement and proficiency represent learner characteristics from different angles. They are distinguishable although they share some similarity: achievement represents learners' outcomes obtained in classroom-based study over a specified period of time, whereas proficiency represents learners' L2 ability, including accumulated achievement, and is developed both in and out of class over an undefined period.

2.3.2 Objective measures of proficiency

2.3.2.1 Empirical evidence

The relationship between anxiety and proficiency is not clearly established, since mixed results have been obtained from various studies, as detailed below:

Some studies have found a negative correlation between proficiency scores and anxiety. For example, Young (1986) found a negative correlation between oral proficiency interview scores and the scores of self-report of anxiety and foreign anxiety scale of reaction ($r = -.32$ and $-.38$, $p < .01$) in 60 American university students with various L2s. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) concluded that '... a clear relationship exists between foreign-anxiety and foreign-language proficiency' (p. 272-273), based on their finding that French class anxiety and French use anxiety were negatively correlated with written and oral proficiency scores ($r = -.34$, $-.42$, $-.40$ and $-.54$, $p < .001$) in 104 Canadian university students.

Some studies have also found a significant negative relationship between proficiency levels and anxiety (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b; Zhang, 2001; Elkhafaihi, 2005). Elkhafaihi (2005) found that the level of Arabic (L2) course was significantly negatively correlated with general anxiety and with listening anxiety ($r = -.22$ and -

.19, $p < .01$) in 233 American university students. This indicates that advanced learners experienced lower levels of anxiety than introductory or intermediate learners did (p. 212).

However, other studies did not find a significant association between anxiety and proficiency status (e.g., Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1997; 1999a; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Bailey, Onwuegbuzie, & Daley, 2000a; Liu, 2006). In Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Daley (1999a), the ANOVA results indicate no significant difference in anxiety levels between introductory, intermediate and advanced learners [$F(2, 207) = 2.74, p > .05$]. This is also consistent with their studies in 1997 and 2000a.

Although a statistically significant relationship between anxiety and proficiency has not been found in some studies, some scholars have believed that these two variables are connected. For example, in Saito and Samimy (1996), ANOVA results did not indicate any significant difference in Japanese class anxiety between 257 American university students at beginning, intermediate and advanced levels [$F(2, 195) = 2.18, p < .05$]. However, the two authors believed that ‘...foreign anxiety becomes more important as instructional levels increase’ (p. 247), based on the descriptive results, that is, advanced students scored the highest anxiety ($M = 3.15$), followed by beginners ($M = 2.99$), and followed by intermediate students ($M = 2.79$). Similarly, in Cheng (2002), the ANOVA results indicate that the year at university had no statistically significant effects on writing anxiety [$F(2, 155) = .09, p = .91$] in 165 Taiwanese university students specialising in English. Nonetheless, Cheng believed that ‘English writing anxiety appeared to increase linearly as a function of year in school’ (p. 651), based on the descriptive findings related to the levels of writing anxiety in first-year students at ($M = 81.75$), in second-year students ($M = 84.74$), and in third-year students ($M = 86.83$). Cheng (2002) argued that her study results contradicted MacIntyre and Gardner’s (1989) argument that ‘language anxiety levels would be the highest at the early stage of language learning and then decline as proficiency increases or, by implication, as learners advance to higher levels’ (cited in Cheng, 2002, p. 653). Since Taiwanese students have generally been studying English for several years before entering universities, the claim of Cheng (2002) that first-year undergraduate students were equivalent to ‘the early stage of language learning’ in

MacIntyre and Gardner's above argument seems debatable. In other words, it might be more appropriate to consider Cheng's (2002) results and MacIntyre and Gardner's (1999) argument separately. Liu (2006) focused on anxiety and proficiency in Chinese students' English study at university. On the one hand, this study found that more proficient students seem to be less anxious in class (i.e., the students with the lowest proficiency level scored highest on the FLCAS ($M = 103.14$), whereas the students with the highest level scored lowest on the FLCAS ($M = 98.65$)); on the other hand, this difference was not found to be statistically significant ($F = 2.298, p > .05$) (p. 310-311). According to Liu (2006), this might be because '...proficiency/level did not play a significant role in distinguishing the students at different proficiency levels' (p.310-311).

Mixed results with regard to the anxiety – proficiency relationship have also been obtained in the same study. For example, Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2006) only reported a significant negative correlation between anxiety and proficiency in 95 American university students' French listening ($r = -.34, p < .01$), but not in their reading ($r = -.16, p > .05$).

2.3.2.2 Explanation

The reasons why mixed results have been obtained are twofold:

First, most anxiety studies have not differentiated proficiency and achievement. For example, Young (1986) wrote that '...the [oral proficiency interview] is indeed assessing foreign language proficiency' (p. 442). However, Saito and Samimy (1996) indirectly quoting Young (1986), wrote that '(foreign anxiety)...have a significantly negative impact on the learners' language performance' (p. 240). This is understandable to some extent: when proficiency is measured by standard test scores, it has similarity with achievement. Therefore, since most anxiety studies have used these two terms interchangeably, it seems reasonable to claim a negative relationship between it and anxiety.

Second, proficiency levels have not been accurately measured. For example, Elkhafafi (2005) utilised the years of learning Arabic to show Arabic (L2) proficiency levels. In Cheng (2002), English (L2) proficiency in Taiwanese students with English majors was also represented by their year at university. Although these presumptions are reasonable and logical – it is likely that the more years the learners had studied Arabic, the more proficient they had become, these demographic variables might be incapable of representing proficiency levels with accuracy.

In summary, mixed results have been obtained in anxiety research with regard to the relationship between anxiety and proficiency. This might be because of a lack of a commonly-agreed definition of proficiency, and also a lack of attention paid on the effects of other variables. Nonetheless, it seems reasonable to assume an inverse relationship between proficiency and anxiety, based on the fact that ‘...apprehension [is] experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient’ (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b, p. 5).

In the future, longitudinal studies may be required in order to examine the development of proficiency and anxiety and their relationship over a longer period of time, since most of the relevant studies reviewed are cross-sectional.

2.3.3 Perceived proficiency

Perceived proficiency can be measured by learners’ self-ratings. It plays an important role in anxiety, as described below.

Numerous studies have found a significant negative relationship between anxiety and perceived proficiency (e.g., MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Cheng, 2001; Kitano, 2001; MacIntyre, et al., 2002; Perales & Cenoz, 2002; Liu, 2006; Liu & Jackson, 2008). Perales and Cenoz (2002) reported a significant negative correlation ($r = -.27, p < .001$) between anxiety and self-evaluated proficiency in 411 Basque (L2) learners in Spain. This suggests that the more anxious the learners felt, the less competent they described themselves to be. In their study, the regression results (i.e., $\beta = -.237, t = -4.025, R^2 = .327, p < .001$)

indicate that anxiety was even a predictor of perceived proficiency. Kitano (2001) found that anxiety levels were significantly negatively correlated with self-ratings for the current L2 levels ($r = .509, p < .001$) in 212 American university students with various Japanese proficiency levels (i.e., 100 (47.2 %) beginners, 53 (25.0%) at an intermediate level and 59 (27.8 %) advanced learners). This suggests that the students who evaluated themselves as less proficient were likely to feel anxious regardless of how proficient they were in reality.

Some empirical studies have also discovered a significant negative relationship between anxiety and perceived proficiency in speaking, listening, reading and writing (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Kitano, 2001; Liu & Jackson, 2008). Liu and Jackson (2008) reported that anxiety was significantly negatively correlated with self-rated overall, speaking, listening, reading and writing proficiency ($r = -.374, r = -.362, -.287, -.249, \text{ and } -.263, p < .01$) using 547 English (L2) students at a Chinese university.

2.3.4 *Anxiety, perceived proficiency and actual proficiency*

Many studies have consistently found that anxiety is more closely linked with perceived proficiency than with objectively measured proficiency (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Cheng, 2002). MacIntyre, Noels, and Clément (1997) found that anxiety was more closely linked with perceived proficiency than with objectively measured proficiency in French speaking, reading and writing respectively ($r = -.55, -.43, \text{ and } -.51, \text{ vs. } r = -.60, -.52, \text{ and } -.59, p < .001$) in 37 Anglophone students with various levels of French (L2) proficiency in Canada (p. 275). Cheng, Horwitz, and Schallert (1999) claimed that ‘...learners’ beliefs about their English speaking and writing capabilities were found to be a better predictor of their anxiety levels than what they were actually capable of accomplishing’ (p. 436). This is supported by their study results, which indicate that anxiety was more strongly correlated with perceived English (L2) speaking and writing proficiency than with actual proficiency ($r = -.53 \text{ and } -.55, \text{ vs. } r = -.28 \text{ and } -.27, p < .001$). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993a) also

reported that anxiety had a stronger negative correlation with self-rated proficiency than with actual achievement⁹ using 92 French (L2) learners at a Canadian university.

MacIntyre, Noel, and Clément (1997) suggested that anxious students might underestimate their French (L2) ability, whereas relaxed students might overestimate their French ability (p. 276), based on the findings that the FCAS and FUAS scores were significantly associated with the residual scores¹⁰ in French speaking and writing [$t(35) = 2.17$ and $t(34) = 2.75$, $p < .05$].

Some studies have found a positive correlation between actual and perceived proficiency (e.g., Kitano, 2001; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997). MacIntyre, Noels, and Clément (1997) reported significant positive correlations between these two variables in speaking, reading and writing ($r = .63$, $.66$, and $.72$, $p < .001$). Liu and Jackson (2008) also suggested that increasing learners' perceived competence might lead to the improvement of their L2 learning.

It should be noted that no distinction between proficiency and achievement was made in reviewing the studies in this section, since most of the empirical studies discussed has not distinguished these two variables. Therefore, to differentiate between them might cause difficulties in clarifying whether the learners in these studies perceived their L2 proficiency based on their current proficiency or on their latest achievement (e.g., the most recent exam results), and in identifying which set of relationships were actually investigated in these studies: between actual and perceived proficiency and anxiety, or between achievement and self-perceived proficiency and anxiety.

⁹ The results obtained in Gardner and MacIntyre (1993a) are too extensive to be presented in this review. Their study focused on a large range of L2 variables using 46 scales. Since each variable was evaluated using different scales, the final results were fairly complicated. For example, anxiety was investigated using the FLCAS, the French class anxiety scale (FCAS) and French use anxiety scale (FUAS), each of which were formed by Likert scales, a semantic differential format, and single-item Guilford (1954) scales (p. 167).

¹⁰ According to MacIntyre, Noels, and Clément (1997), 'a residual score represents the difference between proficiency and actual levels of proficiency... A residual score = 0 indicates that scores on actual proficiency tasks completely predict the self-rated proficiency... A negative residual score indicates an underestimation of the actual proficiency level... A positive residual score indicates that the self-rating overestimated ability...' (p. 276).

2.3.5 Summary

Sections 2.1-2.3 have reviewed the studies with regard to the relationship between anxiety and proficiency. The major findings are summarised below:

- The relationship between anxiety and proficiency measured by objective tests is not clearly established, since mixed results have been obtained from various studies (e.g., some studies have found a negative relationship between anxiety and proficiency levels, while others have not). Nonetheless, an inverse relationship between proficiency and anxiety has often been assumed.
- Anxiety is more closely linked with perceived proficiency than with actual proficiency.
- A negative relationship has consistently found anxiety and perceived proficiency in overall as well as in speaking, listening, reading and writing. Perceived proficiency was also found as a predictor of anxiety. Therefore, it plays an important role in anxiety.
- Actual proficiency and perceived proficiency are related to each other.

2.4 Frequency of using a L2 out of class

By reviewing the relationship between anxiety and the frequency of using a L2 out of class, it is hoped to shed some lights on the relationship between exposure to English and anxiety, since this was investigated in the present study (see Chapter 9 Sections 2 and 6.2 for further discussion).

Only a few studies have focused on the relationship between anxiety and the frequency of using a L2. These studies are reviewed below.

Liu and Jackson (2008) found that anxiety was significantly negatively correlated with the frequency of writing and speaking to English-speaking friends ($r = -.205$ and

-.237, $p < .01$) using 547 Chinese university students. This suggests that the more these learners used a L2 out of class, the less anxious they felt in L2 classes. Furthermore, the frequency of speaking to a friend was also found to be a predictor of anxiety ($\beta = -.07$, $t = -2.07$, $p < .05$).

In Cheng (2002), regression results indicate that extracurricular effects to learn English (i.e., listening to English broadcast, contact/communication with native speakers, reading English newspapers or magazines, and watching English TV/movies) predicted 10% of the total variance in English writing anxiety ($F = 25.09$, $R^2 = .10$, $p < .001$) using 165 English learners of Chinese in Taiwan.

Baker and MacIntyre (2000) found that an inverse relationship existed between communicative French anxiety and the frequency of communicating in French ($r = -.31$, $p < .01$) in 124 non-immersion students in Canada. This suggests that the more French the students spoke, the less anxious they felt.

Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008) also found that the frequency of use a L2 had significant effects on anxiety¹¹. More specifically, the more frequently the multiple individuals used a L2 when speaking to friends, colleagues, strangers, on the phone or in public, the less anxious they might feel in these situations. For example, those individuals who used a L2 every day had much lower levels of anxiety than those who used a L2 yearly or monthly.

To summarise, a significant relationship has consistently been found between anxiety and the frequency of using a L2. Since only a few studies have focused on this point, more research is required in the future.

2.5 Self-confidence, second language motivation and attitude

A number of studies have examined the relationship amongst various psychological and academic variables in specified L2 models (e.g., Gardner's socio-educational

¹¹ In Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008), the terms foreign language anxiety (FLA) and communicative anxiety (CA) were used interchangeably. According to their study, 'FLA is CA in a foreign language context' (ibid, p. 912).

model), including anxiety, self-confidence, motivating and attitude (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Hashimoto, 2002; Yashima, 2002). In these studies, negative relationships have consistently found between anxiety and self-confidence, and between anxiety and motivation, which appeared to be positively interrelated with attitude. The following Sections 2.5.1-2.5.2 explains the relationship between anxiety and these three variables separately.

2.5.1 *Self-confidence*

A negative relationship has consistently been found between anxiety and self-confidence in various studies (e.g., Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Cheng, 2002; Yashima, 2002; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Bernaus, Moore, & Azevedo, 2007). Yashima (2002) examined the relationship between a range of learner variables including confidence and anxiety in 389 Japanese learners of English, and confirmed a negative relationship between these two variables using a path analysis.

Although there is no doubt that anxiety and self-confidence is closely related, the conceptual link between them has not been clearly established: on the one hand, self-confidence is defined to be a combination of a lack of anxiety and perceived competence (Clément & Kruidenier, 1985, cited in Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994, p. 443), which also received empirical support from other studies (e.g., Yashima, 2002).

On the other hand, Cheng, Horwitz, and Schaller (1999) and Cheng (2002) have found self-confidence to be the most important component in writing and general anxiety construct using exploratory factor analyses. It seems that the term self-confidence used in these two studies has not been defined.

In the present study, the relationship between these two variables was examined in order to clarify the conceptual link between them (see Chapter 9 Section 6.5.1 for result discussion).

2.5.2 Motivation and attitude

This section reviews the literature on the relationship between anxiety and motivation and attitude. Although second language motivation has been investigated from various perspectives, this section only reviews the empirical studies which examined the relationship between anxiety and the following motivation variables: intrinsic motivation in motivational orientations and self-determination theory (e.g., Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999; Noels, Pelletier & Vallerand, 2000; Noels, 2001), integrative and instrumental motivation (e.g., Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985), and ideal self and ought-to self in L2 motivational self system (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005; 2009). This is because the present study also examined the relationship between anxiety and these motivation variables.

2.5.2.1 Intrinsic motivation

According to Noels, Pelletier & Vallerand (2000), '[i]ntrinsic motivation (IM) generally refers to motivation to engage in an activity because that activity is enjoyable and satisfying to do' (p. 61).

Liu and Huang (2011) found that intrinsic motivation was negatively correlated with all three components of foreign language classroom anxiety (i.e., fear of negative evaluation, communication apprehension and test anxiety) ($r = -.363, -.435$ and $-.320$, $p < .01$) among students learning English at Chinese universities (p. 6).

2.5.2.2 Ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self

Ideal L2 self refers to learners' beliefs on who they would like to be based on their aspirations and goals towards L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2009). This researcher also defined ought-to L2 self as '...the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes' (ibid, p 29).

Papi (2010) reported a positive correlation between anxiety and ought-to L2 self ($r = .22$, $p < .01$) and a non-significant relationship between anxiety and ideal L2 self

amongst 1011 Iranian students who learned English at high school (p. 475). Since only a small number of studies has examined the effects of L2 motivational self system on anxiety (Papi, 2010), further research is required.

2.5.2.3 Integrative and instrumental motivation

Learners with integrative motivation are interested and curious in the target language and culture, whereas learners with instrumental motivation would like to learn a L2 because of its usefulness (e.g., getting a better job).

A negative correlation has consistently been found between anxiety and integrative motivation. For example, Liu and Huang (2011) reported a negative correlation between integrative motivation and anxiety (i.e. fear of negative evaluation, communication apprehension and test anxiety) ($r = -.140, -.214$ and $-.155, p < .01$) using Chinese learners of English (p. 6). Similarly, Gardner, Day, and MacIntyre (1992) also found a negative relationship between these two variables ($r = -.50, p < .01$) amongst 49 English learners of French at a Canadian university.

The finding of Liu and Huang (2011) that instrumental motivation was only significantly correlated with test anxiety ($r = -.095, p < .01$) suggests that anxiety was more strongly related to integrative motivation than instrumental motivation.

2.5.2.4 Attitude

Attitude is often measured together with motivation (e.g., Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Yashima, 2002). MacIntyre et al. (2002) investigated a range of individual variables, including anxiety, attitude and motivation among 268 English speakers recruited from a junior-high French learning program in Canada. One of the results indicates that anxiety was significantly negatively correlated with motivation and attitude ($r = -.226, p < .01$).

Little research has actually investigated whether or not there is a direct link between anxiety and attitude. This may be because many studies have only focused on

motivation, which attitude was interrelated with (e.g., Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Yashima, 2002). In other words, these studies have merely examined the effects of attitude on motivation, but not on any other variables.

2.5.3 Summary

It is possible to conclude that anxiety is negatively related to the following variables: self-confidence, intrinsic motivation, integrative motivation and attitude. However, apart from that, it is difficult to make any conclusions with regard to the specific relationship among anxiety, self-confidence, motivation variables and attitude. This is because the most influential studies which investigated these four variables have more focused on how psychological variables affect academic variables, and also treated anxiety as either a component of either motivation or self-confidence. It is difficult to compare these empirical studies in detail because of the involvement of various learner variables in these studies and of the uniqueness of each research setting.

Since only a small number of the studies have specifically focused on the relationship anxiety and these psychological variables (e.g., Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 2001), further studies are needed in order to clarify whether and how anxiety was affected by these variables.

3 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed a number of empirical studies in order to draw a general picture of the relationship between anxiety and other learner variables, and also to provide theoretical support for the relationship between anxiety and these variables which were examined in the present study.

The relationship between anxiety and these variables vary, as summarised below: Anxiety is negatively related to the following variables: achievement, actual proficiency (measured by score), perceived proficiency, self-confidence, intrinsic

motivation, integrative motivation and attitude, but is positively related to age of starting to learn a L2 and to ought-to self (motivation). Anxiety is also affected by frequency of using a L2 out of class and by L2 learners' previous language learning experience. However, anxiety may not be related to L2 learners' prior non-learning-related language experience. Furthermore, mixed results have been obtained between anxiety and the following variables: gender, age, year at university and actual proficiency (measured by level/status).

Therefore, it seems that anxiety '...manifests itself in students quite differently depending on ethnic background, prior language experience, learner personality, and classroom circumstances' (Young, 1991, p. 434).

Summary of the Review of Literature

Summary: Characteristics of Language Anxiety and Related Research

The characteristics of language anxiety and related research are summarised based on the review of previous theoretical and empirical studies, as presented below.

1 Characteristics of Language Anxiety

In SLA, '[l]anguage anxiety [as] a complex, multidimensional phenomenon' (Young, 1991, p. 434) is situation-specific, specifically related to L2 contexts and different from other types of general anxiety (e.g., state anxiety). It has negative effects which can be cognitive, physiological, behavioural and affective in academic, cognitive, social and personal areas.

Language anxiety refers to the apprehension which learners experienced in L2 learning and use, with an emphasis on speaking. In the present study, language anxiety was deemed to be a combination of both classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class.

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) conceptualised anxiety in classroom-based L2 learning as a combination of communication apprehension, fear of negative social evaluation, and test anxiety. Communicative apprehension is the most important component in this construct. However, whether or not test anxiety should be treated as a component of anxiety appears questionable.

An inverse relationship has consistently been found between anxiety and achievement in general classroom-based L2 learning as well as in learning L2 speaking, listening, reading and writing. Furthermore, the relationships between anxiety and other learner variables vary.

2 General Features of Language Anxiety Research

The general features of language anxiety research (since the 1980s) are summarised below:

- Most of the research has focused on anxiety in classroom-based L2 learning which is generally systematic and formal, whereas little research has actually looked at anxiety outside the classroom (see Chapter 3 Section 3.1).
- Most studies have focused on the impact of anxiety upon L2 production than upon L2 acquisition and process.
- The number of anxiety studies conducted using quantitative methods (e.g., survey) is greater than those conducted qualitatively (e.g., interview and focus group). A few studies used both types of methods for data collection (e.g., Liu, 2006; Woodrow, 2006a); however, fewer studies have used the focus group.

Moreover, most previous studies have investigated language anxiety from the L2 learners' point of view rather than from that of teachers'. Numerous studies have recruited university students as participants, whereas only a small number have focused on L2 learners of a younger age.

In Part II (Chapters 5-10) which follows, the methodology and findings of the present study are presented and discussed.

Part II

An Empirical Study of Chinese Learners' English Language Anxiety in the U.K.: Methodology and Findings

Chapter Five

Chapter Five

Methodology

This study documents Chinese learners' English language anxiety experience in the U.K. It also focuses on the conceptualisation of language anxiety and its association with selected learner variables.

The chapter contains four sections:

- (1) Research objectives and research questions
- (2) Research design
- (3) Data collection procedures
- (4) Data analysis methods

1 Research Objectives and Research Questions

There were three objectives in the present study:

- (1) To document Chinese learners' experience of English language anxiety as well as other learner variables (e.g., exposure to English out of class, language preferences when learning English);
- (2) To develop a measure for language anxiety, and to build a model of language anxiety;
- (3) To examine the relationship between language anxiety and the following learner variables: English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preference when learning English out of class, and selected psychological and demographic variables.

Taking into account these objectives, nine research questions were formulated:

- (1) What are the learner variables: demographic variables, English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences and psychological variables?
- (2) What is the nature of these learners' English language anxiety experience?
- (3) What is the validity of the measure of language anxiety used in this study?
- (4) Which model of language anxiety best captures this construct?
- (5) What is the relationship between language anxiety and actual and perceived English proficiency?
- (6) What is the relationship between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class?
- (7) What is the relationship between language anxiety and language preferences when learning English?
- (8) What is the relationship between language anxiety and selected demographic variables?
- (9) What is the relationship between language anxiety, second language motivation, attitude towards learning English, and self-confidence in learning and using English?

2 Research Design

2.1 Sample and participants

The present research focused on Chinese learners of English (excluding learners from Hong Kong and Macau¹²). A research sample was formed using the Chinese students at an English learning centre in Newcastle University in the U.K. They were learning English for academic purposes there and most of them had to improve their English

¹² Since Hong Kong and Macau are special administrative regions of China, their educational systems are different from those of the rest of the country, making it inappropriate to recruit participants from these areas.

until their proficiency reached the level¹³ required for university courses. This suggests that their English learning was crucial during the period when this research was being conducted.

All the participants were randomly selected. There were two selection criteria: (a) to be a native Mandarin Chinese speaker; (b) to be enrolled on an English program. The basic background information (e.g., age, gender and educational level) on the participants is presented in Chapter 6.

2.2 Instruments

The present study was quantitative, with questionnaires being used for data collection. Several measures were developed in order to measure the following variables: demographics, classroom-based anxiety, anxiety out of class, exposure to English out of class, language preferences when learning and using English, perceived English proficiency, second language motivation, attitude towards learning English, and self-confidence in learning and using English. Each of the following section describes one of these measures. Furthermore, the participants' English achievement could not be measured in the present study due to a limited access to the classrooms.

2.2.1 Demographic questionnaire

This questionnaire collected two types of information, as listed below:

- (1) Basic background information:
 - L1
 - Gender
 - Age
 - Age of starting to learn English
 - Level of education
 - Student card number¹⁴

¹³ University criteria vary depending on the subjects. For example, students wishing to study Engineering need an average IELTS score of 6.0; however, students wishing to study Psychology need an average of 7.0.

- (2) Language experience:
- Length of English learning
 - Length of English learning in the U.K.
 - Length of English learning in China
 - Length of English learning in Chinese universities
 - Length of English learning in various institutions in the U.K.
 - Other language learning experience
 - Experience of living abroad

Type (2) information was obtained using the questions presented in Table 5.1.

¹⁴ Student card numbers were only used by the researcher to identify each individual respondent and ensure their eligibility to participate in this research. All of the numbers remained strictly confidential.

Table 5.1 *Questions related to language experience and related focuses in the demographic questionnaire*

Question	Focus
For how long had you been studying English before starting the current course?	Length of previous English learning
How long have you been in the U.K.?	Length of English learning in the U.K. ¹⁵
Have you learned English somewhere else in the U.K.? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If so, how long did you do this for? 	Length of English learning in other British institutions
Have you been to a university in China? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If so, how long for it? 	Level of education Length of English learning in Chinese universities
Have you learned other languages apart from English? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If so, how many languages have you learned? • What were they? • For how long? • When did you start? 	Other language learning experience
Is this the first time that you have been abroad? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If not, how many countries have you been to? • Which were they? • How long did you stay there? 	Previous experience of living in a foreign country

¹⁵ Owing to visa restrictions, international students learning English in the U.K. are only allowed to stay in the country when attending classes. They are not permitted to stay during vacation periods. Therefore, the participants' length of been in the U.K. can be considered as the length of English learning in the U.K.

2.2.2 Measure of language anxiety

The measure of language anxiety contains two parts: the scale of classroom-based anxiety and the scale of anxiety out of class. The following sections present the contents and format of these scales.

2.2.2.1 Contents

Scale of classroom-based anxiety

In the present study, it was developed using the following sources:

- (1) The underlying structure of classroom-based anxiety (see Figure 5.1 below);
- (2) The researcher's observations of the learners' experience of anxiety in class;
- (3) Reflections on the learners' English learning experience derived from the researcher's conversations with them;
- (4) A review of existing scales;
- (5) An adaptation of the item statements from the FLCAS, the Second Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (SLSAS), and the French Anxiety Class Scale (FACS);

In brief, this scale was constructed on the basis of the underlying structure of classroom-based anxiety. The item pool (i.e., the FLCAS, SLSAS and FCAS) was first searched for suitable items, which were then revised based on the context of this research. (Further details are provided below.) If no item was found, new items were created by the researcher.

Figure 5.1 illustrates the underlying structure of classroom-based anxiety.

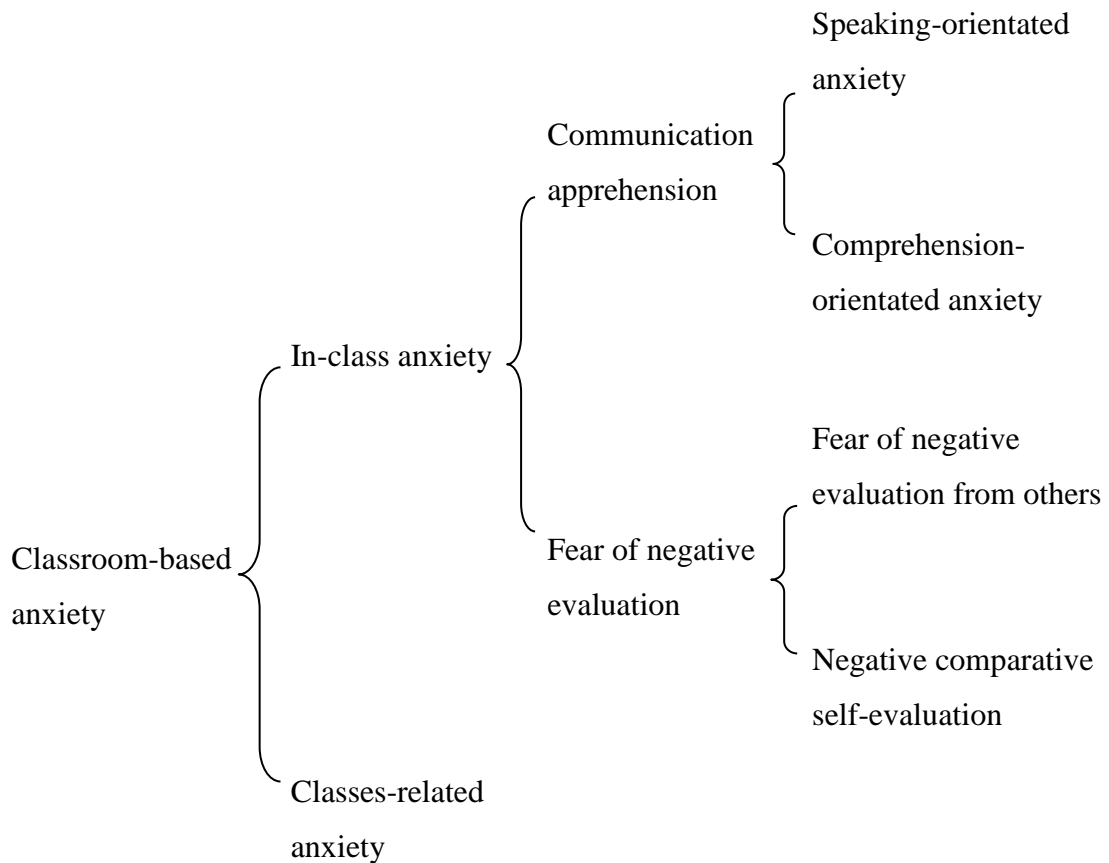


Figure 5.1 Construct of classroom-based anxiety

Based on this anxiety construct, this scale of classroom-based anxiety was formed from two aspects: in-class anxiety, which the Chinese learners experienced specifically during the class (e.g., worrying about making mistakes), and English-classes-related anxiety, which they had with regard to English classes in general (e.g., feeling more nervous in English classes than in other classes).

The scale assesses in-class anxiety were also formed from two aspects: communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluations, as specified below.

Communication apprehension was measured from both speaking and comprehension situations, with a strong focus on the former. Ten items were devised to measure speaking-orientated anxiety, while only two were used to measure comprehension-

orientated anxiety. Each of the item statements was designed to assess the learners' anxiety reactions to a specific situation. They were either adapted or created based on the participants' classroom experience. These situations are listed below:

- (1) Speaking-orientated situations:
 - contributing to a whole-class discussion
 - taking part in a dialogue
 - giving an oral presentation
 - contributing to a group discussion
 - speaking English in front of other students
 - being called on to answer questions
 - answering the teacher's questions
 - volunteering answers to questions
 - saying something in English without preparation
 - avoiding speaking English in front of the whole class

- (2) Comprehension-orientated situations:
 - not understanding what the teacher is teaching
 - not understanding some words the teacher has just said

In the present study, the learners' negative evaluation was assessed from two aspects: (a) fear of negative evaluation from the teacher and other students; (b) negative comparative self-evaluation in the contexts of learning and speaking. The item statements used to measure both aspects are described below:

- (1) Fear of negative evaluation from others:
 - being afraid of being continually corrected by the teacher
 - being afraid of being laughed at by other students when speaking English

(2) Negative comparative self-evaluation:

- always thinking that others speak better English than I do
- always thinking that others are better at learning English than I am

There were also some additional item statements used to measure in-class anxiety, as listed below:

- worrying about making mistakes
- being nervous so forgetting things already known
- feeling overwhelmed by learning grammars and rules

Classes-related anxiety was measured in the following contexts:

- on the way to English classes
- comparing English classes with other classes
- when well prepared for English classes
- when not following progressed English classes

Overall, each item assessed anxiety from a particular angle or in a particular situation. Some of the item statements described the anxiety (e.g., feeling more nervous in English classes than other classes). Two of them described the consequences of being anxious (e.g., getting nervous so forgetting things already known). Anxiety reactions assessed using this scale could be cognitive (e.g., worrying about making mistakes), affective (e.g., feeling embarrassed when volunteering to answers), or physiological (e.g., feeling heart pounding when known to be called to answer questions). All of the item statements were either negatively or affirmatively formed.

The item statements adapted from the FLCAS, FCAS and SLSAS were modified to be more specific in order to suit the context of this research. For example, the words 'language' or 'foreign language' in the FLCAS were replaced by 'English' or 'English language'; the word 'French' in the FCAS was changed to 'English'.

Scale of out-of-class anxiety

The scale of out-of-class anxiety in the present study was developed based on the real-life experience of Chinese learners using the SLSAS and FAUS as models. The sources used for developing this scale are listed below:

- (1) The learners' English anxiety experience out of class in the U.K.;
- (2) A review of the existing scales (e.g., the SLSAS);
- (3) An adaption of some specific item statements the FAUS;

Furthermore, no additional theoretical framework was involved in the development of this scale.

This scale was devised to be communication-orientated, assessing the learners' anxiety reactions to specific communicative situations, which were selected based on the learners' regular routines in their daily life. These statements were designed fulfilling one or more criteria listed below:

- Regarding conversations: (a) university-related conversations (e.g., speaking to the teacher or administrative staff), (b) personal life-related conversations (e.g., ordering a meal in an English restaurant), (c) information exchange (e.g., making an oral request at a bank), and (d) presumably difficult situations (e.g., speaking to others on the phone);
- Regarding interlocutors: (a) the role of interlocutors (e.g., friends), (b) the job of interlocutors (e.g., a salesperson), and (c) native English speakers or foreigners;
- Learners starting a conversation or responding to others (e.g., asking for street directions or being asked a question by an unknown person);

The specific communicative situations are listed below:

- Asking for street directions
- Ordering a meal in an English restaurant
- Requesting information related to purchasing a mobile phone
- Making an oral request at a bank
- Seeing a doctor in a clinic
- Speaking to others on the phone
- Describing an object to others
- Talking to administrator at the university
- Speaking to a salesperson in a shop
- Being asked a question by an unknown person
- Having a conversation with friends
- Speaking with the teacher
- Speaking with others (English and Chinese people) in English at an informal gathering
- Joining a conversation among English people
- Speaking with other foreigners
- Speaking with native English speaker

In this scale, each item statement only describes one of the situations above, and anxiety in each situation was assessed once only. Nine of the statements were negatively worded, while seven of them were affirmatively formed.

2.2.2.2 Format

The anxiety scales were formatted using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Agree*) to (*Strongly Disagree*), for example:

Table 5.2 *Excerpt from the classroom-based anxiety scale*

Please give your impression of the following statements in the right hand column by selecting one of the five options below:	
<p>1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree</p>	
I feel calm when contributing to a whole class discussion in my English lessons.	
I never feel sure of myself when taking part in a dialogue in front of the class.	

In the present study, a 5-point scale was used rather than a 6 or 7-point scale. This was because the 6-point scale does not include *Neither Agree nor Disagree*, and therefore the options in it can only represent either agreement or disagreement. Regarding the 7-point scale, where 1 and 7 express either *Strongly Agree* or *Strongly Disagree*, it might have been difficult to control the degree of agreement represented by 2 and 3 or the degree of disagreement between 5 and 6.

There were several reasons why it was decided to use the Likert scales to represent levels of agreement or disagreement rather than levels of anxiety. It would be difficult to ascertain that the ‘moderate’ anxiety of one learner was lower than the ‘high’ anxiety of another. Therefore, it was deemed to be more appropriate to measure the learners’ agreement with a description of anxiety than to directly ask them about it. Thus, in the present study, the extent to which the respondents agreed (or disagreed) with anxiety descriptions indicates their anxiety levels. Furthermore, it was also thought that asking for levels of agreement (or disagreement) might also help prevent respondents from deliberately manipulating their answers.

In addition, the same 5-point Likert scale was also used in the scales of motivation, attitude and self-confidence, the contents of which are presented in Section 2.2.5 below.

2.2.3 Measure of exposure to English out of class

In the present research, exposure to English refers to the English which the Chinese learners were used and exposed to in various situations outside the classroom (e.g., doing homework), including English input (e.g., watching English films) and output (e.g., chatting with friends).

2.2.3.1 Content

The learners' exposure to English was measured based on the activities in which they engaged involving English learning and use out of class. Generally speaking, the longer learners spend on a L2-related activity, the more they experience the L2. Therefore, in the present study, the learners' exposure to English was measured using the average number of hours which they spent on the activities.

This scale included various activities which the learners were likely to conduct in English learning and use, using speaking, listening, reading and writing skills. It focused solely on the activities which most of them engaged in frequently, rather than on the things which they only did occasionally (e.g., travelling around the U.K.). As a self-report scale, it required the respondents to estimate how long they normally spent on each specific activity. These activities, together with the required English skills, are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 *English-related daily activities and required English skills*

English-related daily activity	Required English skills
Doing homework	Multiple skills
Writing essays	Reading & writing
Speaking English with others	Speaking & listening
Listening to English (e.g., BBC radio or English songs)	Listening
Reading English materials (e.g., English newspapers or websites)	Reading
Learning more English than required for classes	Multiple skills
Watching English films or television	Listening
Writing a diary	Writing
Updating an online blog	Writing
Online chatting with others	Multiple skills
Playing games online	Reading or listening

The quality of English exposure was not measured between activities, since it could vary depending on the sources used and on the contexts. For example, when the learners spoke to a member of university staff, they might have to understand what the staff member said in order to carry on the conversation; by contrast, listening to BBC radio does not require a complete understanding. This point may be worth investigating in future research.

Another issue is that some items overlapped. This was because multiple skills were required for some activities. For example, reading English could contain the purpose of reading materials for writing essays. Although this situation might have affected the accuracy of the data, it was unavoidable. Nonetheless, the data collected using this scale were deemed to be adequate for the needs of the present research (i.e., drawing a

general picture of the learners' exposure to English out of class, and examining the relationship between exposure and anxiety).

2.2.3.2 *Format*

This scale was designed in a question-answer style. It includes eleven questions which required the respondents to specify how long they normally spent on each specific activity. For example,

Table 5.4 *Excerpt of the measure of English exposure out of class*

Every day out of English classes, how long do you normally spend...

doing homework? ____ hours ____ minutes

writing essays? ____ hrs ____ mins

listening to English (e.g., BBC radio, English songs)? ____ hrs ____ mins

The respondents were required to write down their answers rather than selecting from a range of options, since it was thought that the data collected in this way would be more detailed and accurate. This might also prevent them from selecting any options as answers at random. If an activity which they engaged in was not listed in the questionnaire, the respondents were required to provide the name of this activity and also to state how long they were spending on it.

2.2.4 *Measure of language preferences when learning English*

In the present study, the Chinese learners' language preferences when learning and using English refers to the language(s) which they normally used to assist their English learning and use. For example, some of the learners preferred having new English words explained in Chinese, whereas others might prefer to the explanations to be in English.

The purpose of measuring this variable was to reveal how much Chinese as a L1 was involved in the learners' English learning and use, the differences (if any) between the learners who chose Chinese and those using English, and the relationship between this variable and anxiety.

Language preferences were measured in some situations which the learners commonly experienced. Each of the questions consists of one of these situations. These questions were designed using multiple choices, as displayed in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 *Measure of language preferences*

Question	Options (multiple choices)
When learning English, what do you choose?	a. Textbooks with Chinese instructions b. Textbooks with English instructions
When learning new words, what do you use to explain them?	a. Chinese b. English
When reading English materials, what type of dictionary do you use?	a. English – Chinese dictionary ¹⁶ b. English – English dictionary c. English – Chinese bilingual dictionary d. No dictionary
When watching the English films with subtitles, what do you use?	a. Chinese b. English c. No subtitles

¹⁶ There were three types of the dictionaries:

- English – Chinese
- English – English
- A combination of the first two: namely an English – Chinese bilingual dictionary

2.2.5 Measure of psychological variables

2.2.5.1 Scale of perceived English proficiency

This scale required respondents to evaluate their current overall English levels and their speaking, listening, reading and writing levels, on a 7-point scale ranging from a. (*very bad*) to g. (*very good*), for example,

Table 5.6 *Excerpt of the measure of perceived English proficiency*

How is your overall English?			
a. Very bad	b. Bad	c. Quite bad	d. Neither good nor bad
e. Quite good	f. Good	g. Very good	

2.2.5.2 Scale of second language motivation

Second language motivation was measured from the following perspectives: integrative and instrumental motivation, intrinsic motivation, ideal self and ought-to self.

The item statements related to integrative and instrumental motivation were designed based on the learners' real-life experience, following Gardner's (1985; 2001) integrative and instrumental orientation theory. These item statements are listed below:

Learning English...

- to use it to study other subjects
- to help make friends who speak English
- to help meet and converse with more people from a variety of cultures, ethnicities and backgrounds
- to help learn more about Western culture
- to fulfil a university entrance requirement
- to help travel to other countries

- as part of required education
- to help with future careers
- to help make life easier in the U.K.

The items used to measure the respondents' intrinsic motivation were developed and adapted from the intrinsic motivation sub-scales in Noels, Pelletier and Vallerand's (2000) language learning orientations scale.

These item statements are described below:

(1) Accomplishment:

- Feeling pleasure when surpassing myself in English learning
- Feeling satisfied after successfully completing difficult English exercises

(2) Enjoyment:

- Enjoyment of English speaking
- Enjoyment of English learning
- Enjoyment of English listening

In order to measure the respondents' ideal self and ought-to self, some items were developed using Dornyei's (2009) motivational self-system theory based on the researchers' daily observation on some Chinese students' English learning. These item statements are described below:

(1) Ideal self:

- Hoping to become somebody who can understand English radio completely in the future
- Hoping to become somebody who can speak fluent English
- Hoping to speak English as well as a native English speaker

(2) Ought-to self:

- Failing to learning English would disappoint my parents
- Failing to learning English would have negative impacts on my life

2.2.5.3 Scale of attitude towards learning English

The items used to measure attitude towards learning English were adapted from an attitude/motivation test battery (AMTB) developed by Gardner and his colleagues (e.g., Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Glikzman et al., 1982 and Clement et al., 1976, cited in Gardner, 2001).

These item statements are listed below:

- Learning English is a waste of time.¹⁷
- I would like to learn other subjects rather than English if I could choose.
- I am interested in learning English.
- I plan to learn as much English as possible until it becomes perfect.

The first and second item statements were negatively worded.

2.2.5.4 Scale of self-confidence in learning and using English

This scale consists of two aspects: (a) self-confidence in general, including two items: one focuses on English learning and the other on English use; (b) self-confidence with limited proficiency, consisting of three items: they required the respondents to respond on how confident they were when facing difficulties in the general use and in speaking of English. This category was developed based on the principles of the sub-scale of self-confidence (ability controlled) in the AMTB (e.g. Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Gardner, 2001). It seems that this sub-scale was particularly suitable for the present study, since most of the respondents appeared to have limited English proficiency.

The item statements in this scale are described below:

- Confident about English in most contexts and at most times
- Confident about being able to learn English well
- Confident about English regardless of English level

¹⁷ This and next item statements were negatively worded.

- Confident about communicating with foreigner regardless of errors
- Confident about speaking with native English speakers regardless of errors

The penultimate item focused on speaking with other foreigners, and the last one with English native speakers. This allowed an investigation of differences (if any) with regard to the learners' self-confidence in these two contexts.

2.3 Validity of measures

Validity indicates how well scales actually measure what they are intended to measure. There are various types of validity, including construct validity, internal validity and external validity. They are discussed below.

2.3.1 Construct validity

In the present research, the construct validity of the language anxiety scales could be ensured from three ways: (a) in the literature review, existing theoretical frameworks and instruments used to measure language anxiety were reviewed; (b) the pilot studies were conducted in order to evaluate these scales from various aspects and angles (see Section 3.1 below); (c) statistical methods (i.e., factor analyses) were used to evaluate these scales (see Chapter 8).

Since most of the items in the scales of motivation, attitude and self-confidence were adapted from well-established studies (e.g., Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Noels, Pelletier, & Vallerand, 2000; Gardner, 2001), the construct validity of these scales seemed to be guaranteed.

2.3.2 Internal validity

Threats to the internal validity were prevented at every stage of this research. For example, at the stage of participant selection, the participants were randomly approached in order to ensure their diversity.

The most serious threats to internal validity came from the participants themselves. Their honesty and originality was integral to ensuring the internal validity. In order to encourage honesty, the researcher assured the participants that confidentiality and anonymity would be respected at every stage of data collection. In order to encourage originality, they were asked to write down their first thoughts on each question and not to go back to previously answered questions. They were also asked not to discuss anything with others whilst responding to questions.

Threats to the internal validity related to questionnaire design were minimised in two ways: (a) the questionnaires were in Chinese in order to avoid any misunderstanding caused by language barriers; (b) the format of questionnaires was carefully designed in order to ensure that the questionnaires were reader-friendly, particularly based on the feedback obtained from the pilot studies.

When collecting data, the researcher always used the same instructions and procedures with all the participants. In order to facilitate the communication, the researcher spoke Chinese most of the time.

As an administrator, the researcher attempted to minimise any personal influence on the participants, particularly when collecting data on a one-to-one basis. The researcher was very careful whilst speaking with the participant, so that no personal thoughts would be transmitted.

2.3.3 *External validity*

Based on Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2003) '[e]xternal validity refers to the degree to which the results can be generalised to the wider population, cases or situations' (p. 109), the representativeness of samples and generalisability of findings are the key to show external validity. In the present research, the external validity was indicated by the extent to which the sample could represent the entire targeted population as Chinese learners of English in the U.K.

As a result of various difficulties and the limited access that the researcher was granted to Chinese learners of English, the research sample was taken from a single university for the sake of convenience rather than randomness, although each of the participants in the sample was randomly selected. Therefore, it is somewhat difficult to claim that this research sample could represent Chinese learners of English in the U.K. as a whole. Nonetheless, since this research was conducted at a British university, it is reasonable to assume that the findings of the present study could represent the anxiety experienced by the Chinese learners from a similar learning environment (i.e., learning English at a British university). To sum up, the findings of this research could be applied to a wider population to a certain extent.

2.4 Reliability of measures

Reliability refers to the repeatability of scales: that is, whether the scales produce the same results if being used repeatedly. In the present research, the internal consistency reliability of the scales of language anxiety, motivation, attitude and self-confidence was tested using Cronbach's Alpha in SPSS. (Before doing so, the participants' responses to negatively worded item statements were reversed.) The results are presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 *Reliability of measures*

Measure	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
classroom-based anxiety	24	.90
anxiety out of class	14 ^a	.90
integrative/instrumental motivation	9	.87
intrinsic motivation	5	.81
attitude	3	.78
self-confidence	5	.80

Note. ^a. Owing to missing values, three items were excluded from this scale. The highlighted results indicate that all the scales were reliable.

3 Data Collection Procedures

3.1 Pilot studies

Pilot studies were conducted in order to evaluate all the scales developed for the present research, and to assess the suitability of carrying out a main data collection. They were carried out with some fellow researchers as well as with learners from a potential participant pool. All the scales were shown and discussed amongst the researchers in order to collect their feedback on the validity, layout and appearance, particularly on the issue of reader-friendliness. Ten learners voluntarily completed all the scales on a one-to-one basis, with the researcher present each time. The resulting observations enabled the researcher to assess how long each of the respondents spent and reacted to each of the items. An informal interview followed in Chinese in order to obtain their feedback, with the following questions asked: (a) were any English words or items difficult to understand? (b) Were the instructions for each scale clear? (c) Was each scale easy to read through? (d) Were there any other comments?

All the scales were subsequently improved in several respects. For example, the ambiguous wording was amended, the difficult words were replaced, and the unclear item statements were rewritten. The appearance of these scales was also improved in two respects, as described below:

The scales were combined into be a single questionnaire with four sections: Section 1: demographic information; Section 2: the measures of exposure to English and language preferences; Section 3: the scales of language anxiety, motivation, attitude and self-confidence; Section 4: the scale of self-rated proficiency. Furthermore, the items did not follow their original order in the scales, but were randomly placed.

This questionnaire was translated into Chinese, since the respondents greatly preferred it to English. In order to ensure the accuracy of this questionnaire, it was translated by multiple native Chinese speakers and also back-translated several times.

Thereafter, a further pilot study was carried out with twenty learners in order to check the accuracy and suitability of the new version of the questionnaire.

3.2 Main study

The questionnaires were administered to 177 Chinese learners of English who were enrolled on English courses at an English learning centre at Newcastle University. All the participants completed the questionnaires and signed consent forms, which included a brief description of the research and the researcher's contact information. They were approached either in their classrooms or in person outside the classroom¹⁸, as detailed below:

Around half of the participants were approached in the classroom. Permission was given by the centre, programme directors and language teachers. It normally took approximately thirty minutes to complete the data collection procedures in each classroom. These procedures are as follows:

The researcher was first introduced to the class by the teacher, when non-Chinese learners were not required to stay in the classroom. The researcher then briefly explained the rationale and nature of study as well as the procedures for the data collection in Chinese, whereupon the questionnaires and consent forms were handed out to the class. The participants were given several minutes to read the consent forms and to ask questions; meanwhile, those unwilling to participate in this study left the classroom. When completing the questionnaires, they were asked not to talk to each other in order to ensure the originality of their answers. The researcher was present throughout the entire process. Finally, the researcher collected the completed questionnaires from the participants along with their signed consent forms.

The other half of the participants were approached in person outside the campus. A one-to-one meeting was set up in a public venue (e.g., a study room). This normally took approximately an hour. Again, the researcher first explained the purpose and

¹⁸ Owing to the difficulty of gaining access to the Chinese learners through this centre, the researcher had to approach the participants in person outside the campus in order to collect an adequate amount of data for the present study.

content of the research, the procedures of data collection and the consent form; meanwhile the participant was encouraged to raise questions. Secondly, if the participant agreed to take part in this study, he/she was asked to sign the form; otherwise, the meeting was discontinued. The researcher also explained how to complete each section in the questionnaire, because this generally helped the participant to understand how to fill in the questionnaire more effectively, despite the fact that instructions were provided. After the participant had completed the questionnaire, the researcher collected it along with the signed consent form.

3.3 Ethical issues

Ethical issues were considered at every stage of the data collection process in order to protect the rights of the participants, as follows: (a) all of the participants took part in this study voluntarily, and they were made aware of their right to withdraw from the research at any time or stage without giving any reasons; (b) they were guaranteed confidentiality, anonymity and non-traceability; (c) they were clearly notified that their academic results would not be affected at all by their decision to participate or not to participate in this research, or by the research itself.

4 Data Analysis Methods

4.1 Statistical analyses

All the data were analysed using statistical methods provided in the SPSS and AMOS (version 18). The usage of important methods is set out in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Usage of the important statistical methods in the presents study

Statistical method	Usage
Correlation	To investigate the relationship between language anxiety and other learner variables;
Exploratory factor analysis	To reveal the components of language anxiety and evaluate the validity of the scales;
Confirmatory factor analysis	To evaluate the model of language anxiety suggested by the results of the exploratory factor analyses, and the validity of language anxiety scales;
Mann-Whitney test	To determine whether language preferences or selected demographic variables (e.g., gender) made significant differences to language anxiety;
Kruskal-Wallis analysis	To determine whether any significant differences existed in language anxiety amongst the participants grouped according to their language preferences;
Jonckheere-Terpstra test	To test whether the assumed order of the group of language preferences were meaningful;

Since the values of most of the variables analysed in the present study were not normally distributed, non-parametric methods rather than parametric methods were applied in the present study, as presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 All the statistical data analysis methods used in the present study

Statistic methods	Variables involved	Research questions answered
Reliability test (i.e., Cronbach's Alpha)	All of the variables	
Descriptive statistics (i.e., frequency, percentages, mean, standard deviation, median, mode, minimum and maximum values)	All of the variables	RQ1: What are the learner variables: demographic variables, English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences, and psychological variables? RQ2: What is the nature of these learners' English language anxiety experience?
Exploratory factor analysis (i.e., Principal component analysis)	Language anxiety	RQ3: What is the validity of the measure of language anxiety? RQ4: Which model of language anxiety best captures this construct?

Statistical methods	Variables involved	Research questions answered
Confirmatory factor analysis (i.e., Maximum likelihood)	Language anxiety	RQ3: What is the validity of the measure of language anxiety? RQ4: Which model of language anxiety best captures this construct?
Normality test (i.e., one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov)	All of the variables	
Correlation (i.e., Spearman's rank correlation)	Language anxiety English proficiency Exposure to English Selected demographic variables motivation Attitude Self-confidence	RQ5: What is the relationship between language anxiety and English proficiency? RQ6: What is the relationship between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class? RQ8: What is the relationship between language anxiety and selected demographic variables? RQ9: What is the relationship between language anxiety and second language motivation, attitude towards learning English, and self-confidence?

Statistical methods	Variables involved	Research questions answered
Mann-Whitney test (equivalent to one-way ANOVA)	Language anxiety Language preferences Selected demographic variables	RQ7: What is the relationship between language anxiety and language preferences when learning English? RQ8
Kruskal-Wallis test (equivalent to <i>t</i> -test)	Language anxiety Language preferences	RQ7: What is the validity of the measure of language anxiety?
Jonckheere-Terpstra test	Language anxiety Language preferences	RQ7

4.2 Comparative analyses

In the present study, several comparisons were made between the results obtained using the above statistical analyses, and between some of these results and the findings in other studies (i.e., Liu, 2006; Liu & Huang, 2008). The purposes of conducting these comparisons are presented below:

- (1) To examine the differences and similarities in relation to the motivation and anxiety experienced between the participants in the U.K. and those in China;
- (2) To find whether the participants felt more anxious in class or out of class;
- (3) To show the differences and similarities between the correlations obtained between classroom-based anxiety and selected learner variables, and the correlations obtained between out-of-class anxiety and these variables;

5 Summary

This chapter has described the methodology used in this research, including the objectives and questions, instruments, procedures and data analysis methods, focusing particularly on the measures of language anxiety, exposure to English and language preferences. The research data were collected through the administration of a detailed questionnaire to 177 Chinese students on English courses at Newcastle University. These data were analysed using a range of statistical methods. The results are discussed in the following Chapters 6-9.

In the following Chapters 6-9, the results of the current study are presented and discussed:

Chapter 6 documents the participants' learner variables;

Chapter 7 focuses on the participants' experience of language anxiety;

Chapter 8 evaluates the construct of language anxiety;

Chapter 9 examines the relationship between language anxiety and other learner variables.

Chapter Six

Chapter Six

Learner variables: Description of Demographic Variables, Proficiency, Exposure to English out of Class, Language Preferences and Psychological Variables

The chapter documents the following learner variables: demographic variables, English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences and psychological variables.

The chapter contains seven sections: Sections 1-5 focus on the above learner variables respectively, followed by a discussion in Section 6 and a summary in Section 7.

A total of 177 participants took part in this study. Wherever missing values occur, the specific sample sizes are provided.

1 Demographic Variables

This section focuses on two types of demographic characteristics possessed by the participants: (1) basic background information, including L1, gender, age, age of starting to learn English, and educational level; (2) language experience, including length of English learning, other language experience, and previous experience of living in a foreign country.

1.1 Basic background information

The participants' basic background information is presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 *Basic background information*

Basic background variables	Category	N / %	
L1	Mandarin Chinese	172 / 97.1	
	Cantonese	4 / 2.3	
	Hakka	1 / 0.6	
Gender	Male	79 / 44.6	
	Female	98 / 55.4	
Age	≤18	9 / 5.1	
	19	12 / 6.8	
	20	14 / 7.9	
	21	19 / 10.7	
	22	37 / 20.9	} 87 / 49.1
	23	50 / 28.2	
	24	15 / 8.5	
	25	11 / 6.2	
≥26	10 / 5.6		
Age of starting to learn English ^a	≤8	15 / 8.4	
	9-10	31 / 17.5	
	11-13	130 / 73.4	
	≥14	1 / 0.6	
Educational level	High school graduates	36 / 20.3	
	1 st -year university students	11 / 6.2	
	2 nd -year students	21 / 14.7	
	3 rd -year students	7 / 4.0	
	University graduates	102 / 57.6	

Note. ^a Age of starting to learn English and educational level were calculated based on information collected from the questionnaires.

The most important figures are highlighted in yellow.

As shown in Table 6.1, nearly half of the participants were aged 22-23. Most of them had started learning English at the age of 11-13. More than half of them had completed their four-year undergraduate courses before coming to the U.K. Although five participants did not list Mandarin Chinese as their L1, they were able to speak it like native Mandarin speakers,¹⁹ and were therefore not excluded from the sample.

1.2 Language experience

1.2.1 *Length of English learning*

This section focuses on the length of the participants' English learning, including the length of their learning in the U.K. and in Chinese universities (before coming to the U.K.). The results are presented in Tables 6.2-6.4.

¹⁹ All these students were from Guangdong (Canton) province, where Mandarin Chinese is considered to be a dominant language and is used for education at all levels.

Table 6.2 *Length of English learning*

Category	N/ %		Years
≤7 years	13 / 7.3	1 / 0.6	3
		7 / 4.0	6
		5 / 2.8	7
8-12 years	141 / 79.7	28 / 15.8	8
		16 / 9.0	9
		58 / 32.8	10
		18 / 10.2	11
		21 / 11.9	12
≥13 years	23 / 13.0	10 / 5.6	13
		6 / 3.4	14
		2 / 1.1	15
		2 / 1.1	16
		1 / 0.6	17
		1 / 0.6	18
		1 / 0.6	20

As shown in Table 6.2, the length of the participants' English learning varied. Most of them had learned it for 8-12 years, and nearly one third had been learning it for ten years.

Table 6.3 *Length of English learning in the U.K.*

Length	N / %
1 month	120 / 67.8
2-6 months	28 / 15.8
7 months - 4 years	29 / 16.4

As shown in Table 6.3, most of the participants had been learning English in the U.K. for a month when the present study was conducted.

Table 6.4 *Length of English learning in Chinese universities*

Year(s)	N/ %
1	15 / 5.7
2	40 / 28.0
3	16 / 11.2
4	70 / 49.0

Note. N = 141.

(There were 36 participants who had not been to university.)

In a total of 141 participants who had attended Chinese universities, nearly half had learned English there for four years before coming to the U.K., and more than one quarter had learned it for two years. Furthermore, most of those participants (68.6%) who had completed their undergraduate courses (N = 102, see Table 6.1) had learned English for four years.

1.2.2 Other language learning experience and previous experience of living abroad

The participants' other language learning experience is presented in Table 6.5 below.

Table 6.5 Other language learning experience

Category	N/ %
Not having a L3	136 / 76.8
Having a L3	41 / 23.2
Specific language:	
Japanese	22
French	6
Korean	5
Spanish	4
German	2
Russian	2
Year(s) of learning: ≥1	29
1-2	7
>2	4
Year of starting:	
2002	2
2003	4
2004	2
2005	1
2006	9
2007	12
2008	4
2009	1

Most of the participants had not learned a L3. Most of those who did had studied Japanese, suggesting that it was quite popular. This is not surprising since Japan and China are neighbouring countries. Most of them had spent less than 1 year learning the L3, indicating that the length of L3 learning was much shorter than the length of

L2 (English) learning. They reported 2002 as the earliest year of starting to learn a L3, indicating that their L3 learning took place much later than their L2 learning. Moreover, only two participants had learned a L4.

It seems that the participants focused on English much more than on other language(s). Therefore, other language experience might not have any significant effects on either English learning or anxiety.

Nearly all the participants had had no previous experience of living abroad (n = 167, 94.4%). Coming to the U.K. was the first time they had had this type of experience. Therefore, previous experience of living in a foreign country might have little effect on the participants' English learning or anxiety.

Thus, the participants' demographic characteristics can be summarised as follows: most of them were young (i.e., aged 22-23), had started learning English at a relatively young age (i.e., 11-13), and had been learning it for a long time (i.e., around ten years). Most of them had not learned any other languages apart from English, and very few of them had any experience of living in a foreign country before coming to the U.K.

2 English Proficiency

2.1 Objective measures of proficiency

This section focuses on the participants' English proficiency measured by IELTS scores²⁰. The figures are presented in Table 6.6.

²⁰ IELTS established by Cambridge University, is a global test used to assess L2 learners' English proficiency. It consists of four aspects: speaking, listening, reading and writing. An overall IELTS score is the average of the speaking, listening, reading and writing scores. IELTS scores show proficiency levels; for example, an IELTS score of 7.0 equals Band 7, as shown below:

IELTS score 7.0	= Band 7 – Good user
6.0	6 – Competent user
5.0	5 – Modest user
4.0	4 – Limited user
3.0	3 – Extremely limited user (IELTS official website)

Table 6.6 *IELTS overall, speaking, listening, reading and writing scores*

IELTS scores	N / %							
	≤4.0	4.5	5.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	7.0	≥7.5
Overall	3 / 2.4	4 / 3.2	14 / 11.3	21 / 16.9	72 / 58.1	6 / 4.8	4 / 3.2	–
Listening	5 / 4.0	6 / 4.8	12 / 9.7	18 / 14.5	49 / 39.5	20 / 16.1	13 / 10.5	1 / 0.8
Reading	5 / 4.0	5 / 4.0	15 / 12.1	19 / 15.3	30 / 24.2	31 / 25.0	11 / 8.9	8 / 6.4
Speaking	5 / 4.0	7 / 5.6	33 / 26.6	37 / 29.8	30 / 24.2	9 / 7.3	2 / 1.6	1 / 0.8
Writing	3 / 4.0	12 / 9.7	36 / 29.0	45 / 36.3	26 / 21.0	2 / 1.6	–	–

Note. N = 124. (There were 54 participants who did not provide their IELTS scores.)

As shown in Table 6.6, most of the participants had an overall IELTS score of 6.0. More than half of them had either 6.0 or 6.5 for listening. Nearly half of them had either 6.0 or 6.5 for reading. Most of their IELTS speaking and writing scores ranged from 5.0 to 6.0.

The results above suggest that most of the participants were competent English users. They were better at listening and reading English than speaking and writing, indicating that their receptive skills were generally better than their productive skills. More specifically, listening was their best skill, while writing was their worst.

There might be several reasons why the participants' receptive skills were better than their productive skills. Their productive skills might be affected by more variables than their receptive skills. For example, they might be concerned about self-image in front of others when having a conversation in English. The fact that listening skills can be used along with speaking in conversations suggests that these participants practised listening more than speaking, which would help explain why their listening was better than their speaking. Similarly, in order to write, it is necessary to read at the same time. Therefore, it is possible that the participants practised their reading more than their writing, which might result in reading being better than writing.

The participants' IELTS scores are summarised in Table 6.7:

Table 6.7 *Summary for the IELTS scores*

IELTS scores	% of the participants	
	≤5.5	≥6.0 (incl. 6.0)
Overall	33.8	66.1 (58.1)
Speaking	66.1	33.9 (24.2)
Listening	33.1	66.9 (39.5)
Reading	35.5	64.5 (24.2)
Writing	77.4	22.6 (21.0)

Most of the participants' overall IELTS scores were 6.0, suggesting that they were competent users of English. Their receptive skills (i.e., listening and reading) were better than their productive skills (i.e., speaking and writing). This is discussed further in Section 6.

In addition, nearly one third of the participants (30.5%, $N = 54$) did not provide their IELTS scores. There might be various reasons for this. For example, they might feel uncomfortable about doing so because their scores were relatively low (despite the fact that they were clearly informed that confidentiality would be ensured). This might imply that those participants who provided their IELTS results were less anxious than those who did not.

2.2 Perceived proficiency

This section looks at the participants' perceived proficiency, as measured by self-ratings. The results are presented in Table 6.8:

Table 6.8 *Self-ratings in overall, speaking, listening, reading and writing*

Self-ratings	N/ %					
	Poor (incl. relatively poor, poor, & very poor)			Moderate	Good (incl. relatively good, good, & very good)	
Overall	29 / 16.4	(23 / 13.0,	5 / 2.8,	1 / 0.6)	127 / 71.8	21 / 11.8 (19 / 10.7, 2 / 1.1, –)
Listening	37 / 20.9	(23 / 13.0,	12 / 6.8,	2 / 1.1)	64 / 36.2	76 / 43.0 (64 / 36.2, 12 / 6.8, –)
Reading	54 / 30.5	(38 / 21.5,	12 / 6.8,	4 / 2.3)	76 / 42.9	47 / 26.5 (33 / 18.6, 13 / 7.3, 1 / 0.6)
Speaking	63 / 35.6	(48 / 27.1,	12 / 6.8,	3 / 1.7)	83 / 46.9	31 / 17.5 (26 / 14.7, 5 / 2.8, –)
Writing	76 / 42.9	(57 / 32.2,	15 / 8.5,	4 / 2.3)	81 / 45.8	20 / 11.3 (19 / 10.7, 1 / 0.6, –)

Most of the participants rated their overall English proficiency as *moderate*. 43.0% of them believed that their English listening was *good*, and over a quarter thought so about their reading. Nearly half of the participants described their English speaking, reading and writing as *moderate*; over one third thought this about their listening. 42.9% rated their writing as *poor*; around a third thought this was the case for both their speaking and their reading. More participants rated their listening as *good* than those who rated it as *poor*, whereas more participants selected *poor* for their speaking and writing. Moreover, very few participants ($N = 1$) rated their English skills as *very good*.

More participants rated their listening as *good* than those who selected *good* for the other skills, whereas more participants rated their writing as *poor* than those who selected *good* for the other skills. It seems that most of them perceived their listening skills to be the best, reading the second best, and writing the worst.

The participants' self-rated English proficiency is summarised in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9 Summary for the self-ratings

Self-ratings	%		
	Poor	Moderate	Good
Overall	16.4	71.8	11.8
Speaking	35.6	46.9	17.5
Listening	20.9	36.2	43.0
Reading	30.5	42.9	26.5
Writing	42.9	45.8	11.3

Most of the participants believed that their overall English proficiency was *moderate*. Close to half of them perceived their speaking, reading and writing proficiency to be *moderate*. Many of them believed that they were *poor* at speaking (35.6%) and writing (42.9%), but *good* at listening (43.0%).

Most of the participants thought that their listening was better than their speaking, and that their reading was better than their writing, suggesting that they generally perceived their receptive skills to be better than their productive skills. More specifically, they believed that their listening skills were the best amongst all their skills, while writing was the worst.

Table 6.10 presents the relationship between self-ratings in overall English and specific language skills.

Table 6.10 *Correlation between self-ratings in overall English skills and specific language skills*

	Self-ratings: overall proficiency
Self-ratings: speaking	.578**
listening	.526**
reading	.477**
writing	.424**

Note. ** . $p < .01$

All the correlations were positive ($p < .01$), indicating that the perceived overall English proficiency levels were positively linked with the levels of perceived English skills in speaking, listening, reading and writing. This suggests that those participants who rated their overall English proficiency as *poor* were also likely to consider their specific English skills to be *poor*.

It seems that self-ratings with regard to overall proficiency were more strongly linked with self-ratings in speaking than in the other skills, suggesting that participants had focused more on speaking when rating their overall English levels.

2.3 Relationship between actual and perceived proficiency

The finding that most of the participants' listening skills were better than the other skills, with reading being the second best and writing the worst, is consistent with their perceived levels of English skills. This suggests a link between their actual and perceived proficiency, and also that they evaluated their English skills based on their actual proficiency.

Since most of the proficiency variables were not normally distributed, the correlations between IELTS scores and self-ratings in proficiency were analysed using Spearman's *rho* rather than Pearson's *r*. The results are presented in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11 *Correlation between IELTS scores and self-ratings in English overall, speaking, reading, listening and writing*

	IELTS scores				
	Overall	Speaking	Reading	Listening	Writing
Self-ratings: overall	.489**	.330**	.472**	.493**	.081
speaking	.420**	.553**	–	–	–
reading	.427**	–	.416**	–	–
listening	.411**	–	–	.392**	–
writing	.376**	–	–	–	.501**

Note. ** $p < .01$,
* $p < .05$

As shown in Table 6.11, overall IELTS scores were positively linked with overall self-ratings and four specific skills and self-ratings were also related to all IELTS scores except writing, suggesting that actual and perceived proficiency were indeed linked. This result is consistent with the findings of other studies (e.g., MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Kitano, 2001).

However, no relationship was found between overall self-ratings and IELTS writing scores, suggesting that the participants did not evaluate their overall English based on their writing skills. This result conflicts with the finding of MacIntyre, Noels, and Clément (1997) of a significant correlation between actual and perceived competence in L2 writing ($r = 0.72, p < .001$) using 37 university students with French (L2) in Canada (p. 275). Further investigation might be required in order to determine the reasons for this discrepancy.

3 Exposure to English out of Class

This section focuses on the participants' exposure to English out of class, as presented in Figure 6.1.

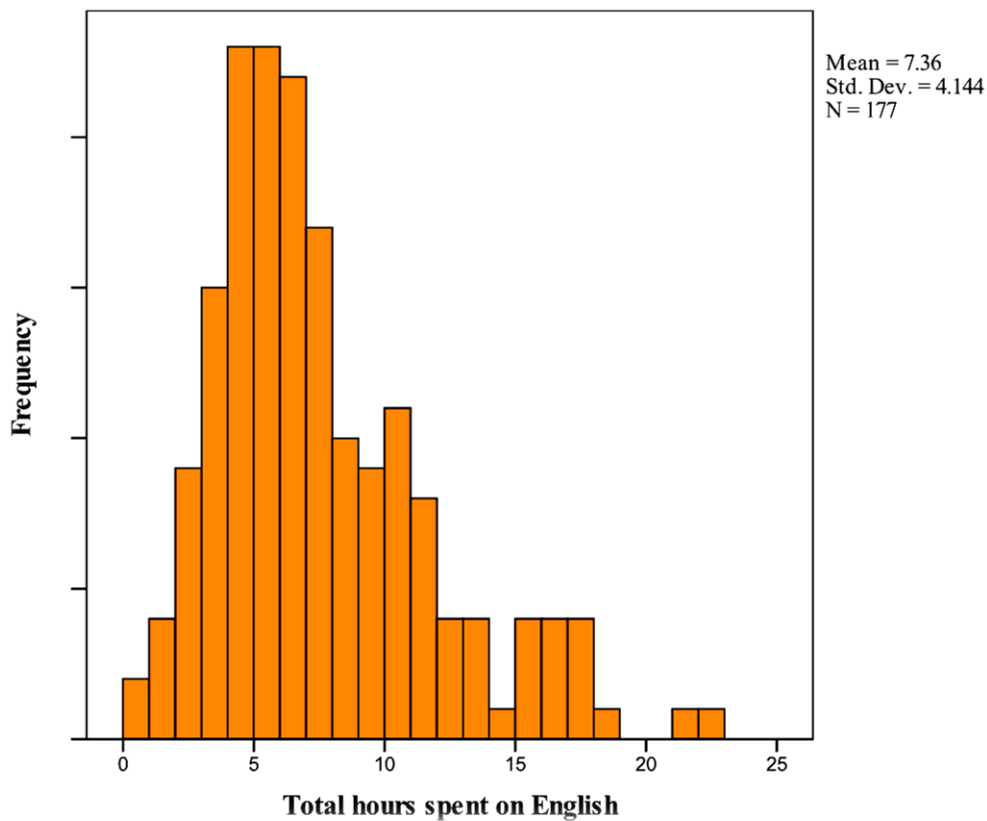


Figure 6.1 Hours spent on English out of class every day

As shown in Figure 6.1, most of the participants spent around five hours on English outside the classroom every day.

Table 6.12 presents the number of activities/aspects which the participants conducted in English every day.

Table 6.12 *Number of activities conducted in English*

<i>N</i> of the activities	<i>N</i> of the participants / %	
2	4 / 2.3	
3	8 / 4.5	
4	20 / 11.3	
5	35 / 19.8	} 125 / 70.7
6	52 / 29.4	
7	38 / 21.5	
8	14 / 7.9	
9	5 / 2.8	
10	1 / 0.6	

As shown in Table 6.12, most of the participants conducted 5-7 activities/aspects using English every day, as displayed in more details in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13 *Hour(s) spent on English activities/aspects*

Activities	N/ %				
	0hr	0-½hrs	½-1hrs	1-2hrs	>2hrs
doing homework	6 / 3.4	38 / 21.5	92 / 52.0	30 / 17.0	11 / 6.2
self-determined English learning	57 / 32.2	39 / 22.0	51 / 28.8	17 / 9.6	13 / 7.4
speaking English	10 / 5.6	57 / 32.3	62 / 35.0	28 / 15.9	20 / 11.3
listening to English	23 / 13.0	51 / 28.8	57 / 32.2	25 / 14.2	21 / 11.9
reading English materials	31 / 17.5	59 / 33.3	63 / 35.6	17 / 9.7	7 / 4.0
watching English TV or films	42 / 23.7	18 / 10.2	43 / 24.3	56 / 31.6	18 / 10.2
chatting with others online	123 / 69.5	32 / 18.1	14 / 7.9	6 / 3.4	2 / 1.1
playing online games	133 / 75.1	10 / 5.7	15 / 8.5	12 / 6.8	10 / 5.6
writing diaries	154 / 87.0	15 / 8.5	7 / 4.0	–	1 / 0.6
updating online blogs	159 / 89.8	11 / 6.2	6 / 3.4	1 / 0.6	–

Most of the participants spent around half an hour to an hour on homework, speaking, listening and reading English materials. They also spent between half an hour and two hours watching English TV or films. Nearly half of them spent around half an hour to an hour learning English (not required by the teacher), whereas nearly one third did not do so. Furthermore, most of the participants did not spend any time chatting with others online, writing diaries, playing online games, or updating online blogs. These findings have several implications, as follows:

The fact that most of the participants spent some time doing homework suggests that they were serious about learning English in class.

The fact that nearly half of them spent some time learning English out of class (not required by the teacher) suggests that they took English learning seriously and were willing to learn English on their own. This also implies that they were motivated to learn English and that they had a positive attitude towards it.

The fact that most of the participants spent only half an hour to an hour speaking English suggests that they spoke Chinese most of the time. In other words, they used Chinese rather than English in their daily life in the U.K. Since one of the main purposes of their studying in the U.K. was to improve their oral English, the researcher was surprised to find that most of them only spent an hour or less speaking English outside the classroom. It would thus be worthwhile to investigate the reasons for this in future research.

It seems that the participants might actually have had more opportunities to practise their English listening than speaking skills, since listening can be practised along with speaking. For example, when having a conversation, apart from speaking to others, people also have to listen to what is being said in order to carry on the conversation.

The fact that most of the participants spent up to two hours watching English TV or films indicates that they spent more time on this than on other activities. This might be because watching TV or films is much more interesting than engaging in other activities (e.g., learning English).

It seems that the participants spent more time listening to English than reading and writing it. In fact, the vast majority only wrote English for academic purposes (e.g., writing an essay), and seldom wrote in English for daily use.

Only five participants reported conducting other activities in English (not listed in Table 6.12), such as shopping. This suggests that nearly all of them did not use English in other activities apart from the ones already discussed. Taken together with the results revealed in Table 6.12, these results suggest that the activities which the participants regularly conducted in English were similar and quite limited in scope, which in turn implies that they might need more exposure to English.

The participants' daily exposure to English out of class is summarised in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14 *Summary for the English exposure out of class on a daily basis*

Activities	% of the participants			
	0hr	0-½hrs	½-1hrs	>1hrs
doing homework	3.4	21.5	52.0	23.2
self-determined English learning	32.2	22.0	28.8	17.0
speaking English	5.6	32.3	35.0	27.2
listening to English	13.0	28.8	32.2	26.1
reading English	17.5	33.3	35.6	13.7
watching English TV or films	23.7	10.2	24.3	41.8

Most of the participants spent one hour or less engaging in these activities shown in the table above, with the exception of the last one: they spent around one hour a day watching TV or films. Nearly one third of them did not learn any English unless required for class. It seems that most of the participants neither spent an adequate time on English, nor had enough daily exposure to English out of class.

4 Language Preferences in Assisting English Learning and Use

This section focuses on the participants' language preferences in assisting their English learning and use. The results are presented in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15 *Language preferences*

Situation	Groups	N/ %
Using which language(s) to explain new words	Chinese	108 / 61.4
	English	48 / 27.3
	Both	20 / 11.4
Using which text book(s) for learning	with Chinese instructions	105 / 59.7
	English instructions	34 / 19.3
	Both types of books	37 / 21.0
When reading materials, using which dictionaries	E – C ^a	68 / 38.6
	E – E	14 / 8.0
	E – C bilingual	59 / 33.5
	E – C & E – E	11 / 6.3
	E – C & E – C bilingual ^b	4 / 2.3
	E – E & E – C bilingual	6 / 3.4
	Three types of dictionaries	4 / 2.3
	None	10 / 5.7
When watching films, using which subtitle(s)	Chinese	54 / 31.8
	English	82 / 46.6
	Both	26 / 14.8
	None	12 / 6.8

Note. N = 176 (with 1 missing value).

^a E = English, C = Chinese.

^b E – C bilingual dictionary is a combination of both E – C and E – E dictionaries.

With the exception of selecting subtitles, most of the participants used Chinese to assist their English learning and use, suggesting that they tried to avoid confusion when learning and using English. For instance, they might understand a new English word much better if it was explained in Chinese than in English. It appears that they tried to avoid taking any risks in such situations. By contrast, nearly half of them chose English subtitles when watching films, while nearly one third of them used Chinese.

5 Psychological Variables

This section examines the participants' motivation, attitude and self-confidence in their English learning and use. The results are presented in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16 *Descriptive statistics: motivation, attitude and self-confidence*

Measure	N of items	M	SD	Min.	Mdn	Mode	Max.
Integrative and instrumental motivation	9	4.13	.46	3.11	4.00	4.00	5.00
Intrinsic motivation	5	3.77	.59	2.40	3.60	3.40	5.00
Ideal self	3	4.51	.47	2.67	4.67	5.00	5.00
Ought-to self ^a	2	3.45	.86	1.00	3.50	4.00	5.00
Attitude toward English learning	3	4.20	.66	1.50	4.50	4.50	5.00
Self-confidence	5	3.57	.65	2.00	3.60	3.80	5.00
Self-confidence in general	2	3.72	.64	2.00	4.00	4.00	5.00
Self-confidence with limited proficiency	3	3.46	.75	1.67	3.33	4.00	5.00

Note .^a N of the participants = 172 (with 5 missing values).

M= mean, SD = Standard deviation, Mdn = Median, Min. = minimum value, Max. = maximum value.

It is more appropriate to use mode and median to summarise data which is skewed, because mean may not be reliable. Since the data related to most of the variables presented above is skewed (please see Tables 6.17, 6.18, 6.19 and 6.20 below for further details), the mean, median and mode are all presented.

The mean, median and mode for all variables greatly exceeded the scale midpoint of 3, suggesting that most of the participants were strongly motivated to learn English, had a positive attitude towards it, and were highly confident about learning and using it.

A comparison of the differences between the mean, mode, median and midpoint in the motivation variables suggests that more participants were integratively and instrumentally motivated than those who were intrinsically motivated. The participants were more strongly motivated by ideal self than by ought-to self. These aspects are discussed in more detail in the following Section 5.1.

5.1 Second language motivation

This section focuses on the participants' responses to specific motivation item statements, as presented in the following four tables.

Table 6.17 Responses to integrative and instrumental motivation item statements

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree ^a	Neutral	Agree (incl. SA ^b)
<i>Learning English...</i>			
to use it to study other subjects	15 / 8.5	41 / 23.2	121 / 68.4 (44 / 24.9)
to help make friends who speak English	2 / 1.1	39 / 22.0	126 / 76.8 (43 / 24.3)
to help meet and converse with more people from a variety of cultures, ethnicities and backgrounds	2 / 1.1	25 / 14.1	140 / 84.8 (58 / 32.8)
to help learn more about Western culture	4 / 2.3	25 / 14.1	148 / 83.6 (46 / 26.0)
to fulfil a university entrance requirement	10 / 5.6	13 / 7.3	154 / 87.0 (61 / 34.5)
to help travel to other countries	1 / 0.6	20 / 11.3	156 / 89.1 (51 / 28.8)
as part of required education	3 / 1.7	11 / 6.2	163 / 92.1 (48 / 27.1)
to help with future careers	1 / 0.6	13 / 7.9	163 / 92.1 (62 / 35.0)
to help make life easier in the U.K.	–	10 / 5.6	167 / 94.3 (68 / 38.4)

Note. ^a Since only very few participants selected the option *Strongly Disagree*, they are not shown separately from the participants who selected *Disagree*.

^bSA = Strongly Agree

As shown in the table above, a vast majority of the participants agreed (with some of them strongly agreeing) that learning English improved their life in various ways, suggesting that they were motivated by these factors.

Table 6.18 Responses to intrinsic motivation item statements

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree (incl. SA)
<i>Accomplishment</i>			
Feeling pleasure when surpassing myself in English learning	4 / 2.3	11 / 6.2	162 / 91.5 (62 / 35.0)
Feeling satisfied after successfully completing difficult English exercises	9 / 5.1	23 / 13.0	135 / 81.9 (56 / 31.6)
<i>Enjoyment</i>			
Enjoyment of English speaking	21 / 11.9	73 / 41.2	83 / 46.9
learning	25 / 14.1	57 / 32.2	95 / 53.7
listening	23 / 13.0	56 / 31.6	98 / 55.4

A vast majority of the participants agreed (with around one third of them strongly agreeing) with the first two items, suggesting that they were motivated by accomplishment in learning English.

Around half of them enjoyed English, suggesting that they wanted to learn English because of this enjoyment, while around one third were unsure. There were more participants who enjoyed English listening than speaking, maybe because (a) most of them were better at listening than speaking, as confirmed by their IELTS scores (see Section 2.1 above); (b) English listening seemed to be easier and less complex to pursue.

Table 6.19 Responses to ideal self item statements

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree (incl. SA)
<i>Hoping to...</i>			
become somebody who can understand English radio completely in the future	1 / 0.6	5 / 2.8	171 / 96.6 (93 / 52.5)
become somebody who can speak fluent English	1 / 0.6	6 / 3.4	170 / 86.0 (108 / 61.0)
speak English as well as a native English speaker	5 / 2.9	3 / 1.7	169 / 95.5 (100 / 56.5)

A vast majority of the participants agreed (including more than half of them strongly agreeing) with these three statements, showing that most of them had perfect self-images related to English learning and use, which strongly motivated them to become highly competent in English. This seems to support Dornyei's (2001) claim that learners' ideal self had strong effects on their L2 learning.

Table 6.20 Responses to ought-to-self item statements

Description of item statement	No. of participants / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
<i>Failing to learning English would...</i>			
disappoint my parents	28 / 16.3	37 / 21.5	107 / 62.2
have negative impacts on my life	40 / 23.2	51 / 29.7	85 / 49.4

Note. N = 172.

Most of the participants agreed that failing in their English learning would disappoint their parents, suggesting that they were motivated by parental expectations. Nearly

half of them agreed that failing in their English learning would have negative effects on their lives. It is interesting that there were more participants motivated by parental expectations than by the possibility of negative outcomes, suggesting that the former played an important role in the participants' English learning in the U.K.

Additionally, participants' motivation is summarised in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21 *Summary for the mode and median of motivation variables*

Motivation variables	Mode	Mdn
Integrative and instrumental motivation	4	4
Intrinsic motivation: overall	3	4
accomplishment	4	4
enjoyment	3	3
Ideal self	5	5
Ought-to self	4	4

Most of the participants were motivated to learn English by various factors. Specifically, they were more strongly motivated by their ideal self, and less motivated by enjoyment.

5.2 Attitude towards English learning

This section focuses on the participants' responses to attitude items, as presented in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22 Responses to attitude item statements

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree (incl. SA)
Learning English is a waste of time.	2 / 1.1	6 / 3.4	169 / 95.5 (114 / 64.4)
Preferring learning English to other subjects	18 / 10.2	34 / 19.2	125 / 70.6 (43 / 24.3)
Learning English is boring.	36 / 20.3	49 / 27.7	92 / 52.0

Note. The participants' responses to negatively worded item statements (the 1st and 3rd) were reversed.

As shown in Table 6.22, most of the participants had a positive attitude towards learning English because they thought learning English was useful and interesting, and preferred it to other subjects. The fact that most of them strongly believed that English learning was not a waste of time supports the findings regarding motivation (i.e., most of the participants were integratively and instrumentally motivated) (see Section 5.1 above). The fact that most of them preferred learning English to other subjects supports the motivation finding that around half of them were motivated by their enjoyment of English (see Section 5.1).

Most of the participants preferred learning English to other subjects, suggesting that they were not forced into it. Based on the fact that nearly half of them did not enjoy speaking, listening and learning English (see Table 6.18), these participants had not chosen to learn English out of personal interest or enjoyment, but for other practical reasons: for example, learning English might help them have a better life in the U.K., which is consistent with the finding that they were more instrumentally than intrinsically motivated.

5.3 Self-confidence in learning and using English

This section focuses on the participants' responses to self-confidence items, as presented in Table 6.23.

Table 6.23 Responses to self-confidence item statements

Item description	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree (incl. SA)
Confident about English in most contexts and at most times	32 / 18.1	64 / 36.2	81 / 45.8
Confident about using English regardless of English level	39 / 22.0	56 / 31.6	82 / 46.4
Confident about speaking with native English speakers regardless of errors	38 / 21.5	54 / 30.5	85 / 48.0
Confident about communicating with foreigners regardless of errors	14 / 7.9	39 / 22.0	124 / 70.1 (26 / 14.7)
Confident about being able to learn English well	6 / 3.4	20 / 11.3	151 / 85.3 (49 / 27.7)

Nearly half of the participants agreed with the statements about being confident when using English in most contexts at most times and when speaking with native English speakers regardless of English levels. Most of them were confident when communicating with foreigners regardless of errors, and believed in their ability to learn English well.

The fact that they had confidence in their ability to learn English well suggests that they were self-motivated. This supports the finding that most of the participants were

strongly motivated (see Section 5.1 above), implying positive relationship between self-confidence and motivation. Furthermore, more participants were confident in learning than in using English.

More participants felt more confident when speaking English with foreigners than with native speakers, suggesting that they felt differently when speaking to these two categories of people. They might consider native speakers as English experts, and therefore perhaps felt unsure when speaking with an expert; however, they would not feel the same way when speaking with a foreigner. This is discussed further along with language anxiety in Chapter 9 Section 5.3.

6 General Discussion

6.1 Demographic variables

Many of the principal findings suggest that most of the participants had similar and simple language learning experiences. For example, they had not learned any foreign languages apart from English, had not had any experience of living in another country before coming to the U.K., and so on.

The fact that nearly all of the participants had learned English for around ten years and had not studied any other languages apart from English suggests that they considered English learning to be very important and took it seriously. There may be various reasons for this. One of these may relate to the current use of English as a global lingua franca. Knowing English seems to provide an opportunity to conduct communication internationally. Nowadays, owing to globalisation, international communication appears more and more important, and therefore English has become a requirement for many jobs. This might explain why the participants focused on learning English much more than on learning other language(s).

This might also have affected the participants' psychological variables. For example, they might be motivated to learn English because of its usefulness, but they might also

be under stress as a result of worrying about the consequences of failing to learn it well.

In addition, the length of English learning was found to be positively correlated with overall IELTS scores ($r = .227, p < .05$), suggesting that the longer the participants spent learning English, the more proficient they might become.

6.2 Exposure to English out of class

It appears that the participants often used Chinese in their daily life. They normally had 16-20 hours of English classes per week²¹, indicating that they might spend 2-4 hours in class per day. Out of class, most of them might spend around five hours using English: two hours or less for homework and self-determined English learning, more than one hour watching English TV or films, and around two hours speaking, listening and reading English.

The finding that most of them spent one hour or less speaking English suggests that they use Chinese rather than English for daily communication which in turn implies that they were more in a Chinese-speaking environment than an English one, which might not be what they had expected before coming to the U.K. Therefore, it seems that they might need to spend more time speaking English.

The participants' writing might need further attention, since their IELTS writing scores were relatively low. One of the reasons for this might be that they had little practice on English writing apart from conducting academic work. This was revealed in the finding that most of them only wrote English when required, but did not do so for personal usage (e.g., writing a diary). Therefore, it seems important that they should spend some time practising their writing.

In summary, it seems possible that most of the participants neither spent an adequate amount of time speaking English, nor used it often for a variety of purposes. It is possible that the participants preferred to use the English skill(s) which they were

²¹ This was calculated based on most of the participants' weekly class timetables.

good at (e.g., they spent more time watching English TV or films), but not practising the skill(s) they were not so good at (e.g., writing). Therefore, it is important that they are made aware that the way to improve their English is to practise it regardless of personal preference and English level.

6.3 Psychological variables

It seems that more participants were motivated to learn English by instrumental and integrative factors than by enjoyment. The fact that the participants were highly motivated by ideal self suggests that they had high expectations of or placed high demands on their own English learning. Furthermore, the fact that they were motivated by multiple factors is also indicative of the complexity of motivation in second language acquisition.

Table 6.24 presents a comparison between some of the results discussed above and those of Liu and Huang (2011), which investigated motivation in Chinese learners of English in China.

Table 6.24 Motivation in the Chinese learners of English in Liu and Huang (2011) and that in the present study

Study	Measures of motivation	N of items	Midpoint	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	Mode
Liu & Huang (2011)	Intrinsic motivation	6	3	3.21	.70	3.17	3.17
	Instrumental motivation	11	3	3.27	.54	3.27	3.55
	Integrative motivation	12	3	3.11	.68	3.08	3.00
The present study	Intrinsic motivation	5	3	3.80	.59	3.60	3.40
	Instrumental/Integrative motivation	9	3	4.13	.46	4.00	4.00

Note. In order to compare these two studies, the original figures for midpoint, *M*, *SD*, *Mdn* and mode in Liu and Huang (2011) presented above were divided by the number of items.

The fact that the mean, median and mode scores all exceeded the midpoints indicates that the learners in both studies had either moderate or strong motivation. The present study found that the participants were less intrinsically motivated, but more instrumentally motivated²², which is consistent with the finding of Liu and Huang (2001) that Chinese learners of English had moderate intrinsic and integrative motivation, but moderate or strong instrumental motivation. In other words, Chinese learners might be more motivated by practical reasons (e.g., getting a better job) than the enjoyment of English learning. According to Liu and Huang (2011), this might be owing to ‘their heavy load of major study’, and English being ‘...rarely used in their daily life’ (p. 4). However, in the present study the reasons for this could be very different from theirs, since the participants were learning English in the U.K., and were not given heavy workloads in class. They might have to use English out of class every day, and therefore having better English became very useful. For example, nearly all of them (94.3%) thought learning English helped make life easier. Considering their circumstances, this seems to be a better motivator than enjoyment.

A comparison of the mean, mode and median in both studies suggests that the participants in the present study were more strongly motivated than those in China. It seems that the participants in the U.K. possess stronger personalities than those in China, since learning abroad was not only a big decision, but also lead to a dramatic life change.

There also appears to be an interrelationship between motivation, attitude and self-confidence. For example, the fact that most of the participants were confident that they were able to learn English well in the present study suggests that they had a perfect self-image related to English learning and use, supporting the finding that they were strongly motivated by ideal self. Nearly all of them had a positive attitude because they thought learning English was useful, which supports the finding that they were instrumentally motivated.

²² This was obtained based on the fact that the difference between the mean and midpoint in intrinsic motivation was less than it was in instrumental/integrative motivation.

7 Summary

This chapter has documented the following learner variables in the participants: demographic variables, English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences and psychological variables.

The present study found that a vast majority of the participants could be classified into a homogeneous group, that is, they possessed similar demographic and psychological characteristics, and their second or foreign language experience was simple, as detailed below.

Most of the participants were young (i.e., 17-23), having just finished either high-school or undergraduate studies, and had little to no experience of speaking a L3 or of living abroad before coming to the U.K. They had started learning English at a young age (i.e., 11-13), and had studied it as an academic subject for a long time (i.e., around ten years). They were highly motivated and had positive attitudes towards learning English. Half of them were confident about using English, and most of them believed that they were able to learn English well.

The following chapter documents the participants' anxiety experience in learning and using English both within and outside the classroom.

Chapter Seven

Chapter Seven

Language Anxiety: General and Context-Specific Measures

This chapter answers the following research question:

RQ2: What is the English language anxiety experience of Chinese learners in the U.K.?

This chapter contains six sections: classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class are first compared in Section 1, and then examined separately in Sections 2 and 3. The relationship between them is analysed in Section 4, followed with a discussion of main finding in Section 5 and a summary in Section 6.

A total of 177 participants took part in the present study. Wherever missing values occur, the specific sample sizes are provided. The participants' responses to negatively worded anxiety statements were reversed; therefore, the higher the scores were, the more anxious they appeared to be. Since most anxiety variables violated the assumption of normal distribution, Spearman's *rho* rather than Pearson's *r* was used to analyse the correlations between these variables (see Section 4 below for further details).

1 Comparison of Classroom-based Anxiety and Anxiety out of Class

A comparison is made between the participants' classroom-based and out-of-class anxiety, as presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 *Levels of classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class*

Variable	N / %		
	Low	Average	High
Classroom-based anxiety	62 / 35.0	101 / 57.1	14 / 7.9
Anxiety out of class	49 / 27.7	109 / 61.6	19 / 10.7

The figures shown in Table 7.1 indicate that the levels of out-of-class anxiety in the participants were slightly higher than the levels of classroom-based anxiety. This is consistent with the previous finding that the more participants were confident in learning than in using English (see Chapter 6 Section 5.3), and also supports Woodrow's (2006a) claim that communication out of class might be more anxiety-provoking to L2 learners than communication in class in a L2-dominated environment.

This might be explained in terms of context, as follows: (a) in-class contexts seemed to be more familiar, simpler and less complex for the participants than out-of-class contexts, and therefore the former contexts were more controllable and less anxiety-provoking than the latter contexts; (b) since classroom-based anxiety is constructed from communication apprehension and negative evaluation, whereas out-of-class anxiety was constructed to be communication-orientated (see Chapter 3 Sections 2 and 2.3), out-of-class anxiety may be more context sensitive than classroom-based anxiety. Therefore, it is extended that the levels of out-of-class anxiety in the participants were slightly higher than the levels of classroom-based anxiety.

The participants' experience of classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety are discussed further in the following Sections 2 and 3 respectively.

2 Classroom-based Anxiety

This section focuses on the anxiety which the participants experienced in classroom-based English learning. It consists of two aspects: in-class anxiety, as the anxiety which they experienced specifically during class (e.g., feeling nervous when answering questions), and class-related anxiety, as the anxious feeling which they had with regard to English classes in general (e.g., being more nervous in English classes than in other classes). Figure 7.1 outlines the structure of classroom-based anxiety.

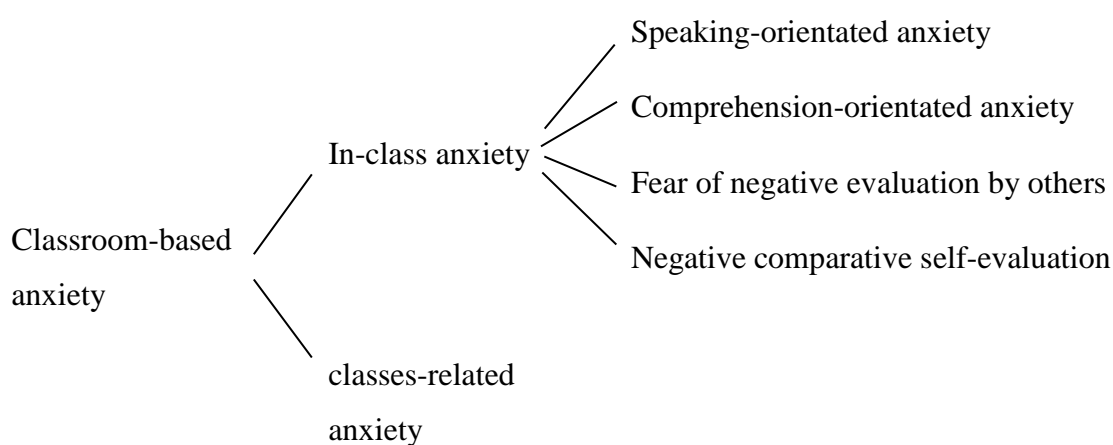


Figure 7.1 Construct of classroom-based anxiety

All the variables shown in Figure 7.1 were statistically analysed. The results are summarised in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2 Descriptive statistics: classroom-based anxiety, classes-related anxiety, in-class anxiety and its components

Measure	N of items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	<i>Mdn</i>	Mode	Max.
Classroom-based anxiety	24	2.65	.53	1.29	2.63	2.70	3.83
In-class anxiety	19	2.70	.54	1.35	2.70	2.65	3.90
Speaking-orientated anxiety	10	2.62	.62	1.10	2.60	2.20	3.90
Comprehension-orientated anxiety	2	3.44	.78	1.50	3.50	4.00	5.00
Fear of negative evaluation	2	2.26	.69	1.00	2.00	2.00	4.50
Negative comparative self-evaluation	2	2.71	.85	1.00	2.50	2.00	5.00
Classes related anxiety	4	2.39	.61	1.00	2.50	2.00	4.00

Note. *M* = mean, *SD* = Standard deviation, *Mdn* = Median, Min. = minimum value, Max. = maximum value.

The most important figures are highlighted in yellow.

As shown in Table 7.2, the mean, median and mode of most of the anxiety variables fell below the scale midpoints of 3, suggesting that most of the participants experienced either low or moderate levels of anxiety in classroom-based English learning. Specifically, the figures for both fear of negative evaluation and classes-related anxiety were well below 3, indicating that they might not fear of being negatively evaluated by the teacher and other students, and might also feel little nervous with regard to English classes as a whole.

However, the mean, median and mode for comprehension-orientated anxiety exceeded the midpoint of 3. This, along with the differences between these three

figures, suggests that most of the participants experienced either moderate or strong anxiety concerning comprehension (see Section 1.2 for further discussion).

These anxiety variables are detailed in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3 Levels²³ of classroom-based anxiety, classes-related anxiety, in-class anxiety and its components

Measure	N / %				
	Low (incl. relatively low, very low)		Moderate	High (incl. relatively high, very high)	
Classroom-based anxiety	62 / 35.0	(58 / 32.8, 4 / 2.3)	101 / 57.1	14 / 7.9	(14 / 7.9, –)
In-class anxiety	59 / 33.3	(57 / 32.2, 2 / 1.1)	102 / 57.6	16 / 9.0	(16 / 9.0, –)
Speaking-orientated anxiety	67 / 37.9	(61 / 34.5, 6 / 3.4)	91 / 51.4	19 / 10.7	(19 / 10.7, –)
Negative comparative self-evaluation	63 / 35.6	(58 / 32.8, 5 / 2.8)	76 / 42.9	38 / 21.4	(30 / 16.9, 8 / 4.5)
classes-related anxiety	88 / 49.7	(77 / 43.5, 11 / 6.2)	78 / 44.1	11 / 6.2	(11 / 6.2, –)
Fear of negative evaluation	104 / 58.8	(94 / 53.1, 10 / 5.6)	60 / 33.9	13 / 7.4	(12 / 6.8, 1 / 0.6)
Comprehension-orientated anxiety	18 / 10.0	(18 / 10.0, 0 / 0.0)	51 / 28.8	108 / 61.0	(90 / 50.8, 18 / 10.2)

²³ Each participant's anxiety level was obtained by putting his/her averaged anxiety score into one of the following categories:

- Very low: 0-1.49
- Low: 1.50-2.49
- Moderate: 2.50-3.49
- High: 3.50-4.49
- Very high: 4.50-5.00

The results presented in Table 7.3 are consistent with those in Table 7.2, that is, classroom-based anxiety, in-class anxiety and speaking-orientated anxiety in more than half of the participants were moderate, and in more than one third were low; the opposite was found for both classes-related anxiety and fear of negative evaluation; however, most of them experienced high levels of comprehension-orientated anxiety.

A specific item was used to measure general anxiety in class. The results show that 63.3% of the participants disagreed with the statement about generally feeling nervous in class, while 12.4% of them agreed with it. 24.3% were unsure. A comparison between this and the results presented in Table 7.3 (i.e., in-class anxiety in 57.6% of them was average and in 33.3% was low) suggests that some of the participants did feel in-class anxiety to a certain extent, but failed to report it when answering an explicit question.

The following sections 2.1-2.7 report specific results related to the participants' anxiety in classroom-based learning.

2.1 Speaking-orientated anxiety

In the section, the anxiety which they experienced in specific speaking-orientated situations in class is examined. The results are presented in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4 Responses to the item statements for speaking-orientated anxiety

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
<i>Feeling anxious when...</i>			
giving a formal speech in front of the whole class	135 / 76.3	26 / 14.7	16 / 9.0
taking part in a group discussion	135 / 76.3	30 / 16.9	12 / 6.8
speaking English in front of the other students	130 / 73.5	30 / 16.9	17 / 9.6
volunteering answers	108 / 62.1	40 / 22.6	29 / 16.4
responding to questions	104 / 58.8	44 / 24.9	29 / 16.4
contributing to a whole class discussion	97 / 54.8	62 / 35.0	18 / 10.2
being called by the teacher to answer questions	74 / 41.8	37 / 20.9	66 / 37.3
saying something without preparation	70 / 39.5	41 / 23.2	66 / 37.3
taking part in a dialogue in front of the class	62 / 35.0	50 / 28.2	65 / 36.7
giving a presentation	36 / 20.3	32 / 18.1	109 / 61.6

Most of the participants disagreed about the first six statements, showing that they neither felt anxious when speaking English in front of others nor in discussions. More than one third of them disagreed that they felt anxious when called on by the teacher to answer questions, speaking without preparation, or taking part in a dialogue, whereas a similar amount of them agreed with these statements. Most of them agreed that they felt anxious when giving a presentation. These results are explicated below.

The findings that most of the participants did not feel anxious in discussions or when speaking in front of others suggest that they were not afraid of being evaluated by other students. However, many of them felt anxious when interacting with the teacher (e.g., knowing they were soon to be called on by the teacher), suggesting that the teacher's evaluation could be a source of anxiety to them in class.

Fewer participants felt anxious in group or class discussions than in other speaking-orientated situations, maybe because they felt they were less observed when speaking English in a group or class discussion. This is also consistent with the findings of Woodrow (2006a) and Liu (2006) that taking part in a group discussion was not a stressor to most L2 learners.

Giving a presentation was the most anxiety-provoking, also consistent with the finding of Koch and Terrell (1991) and Woodrow (2006a). This might be owing to: (a) an imbalance: their limited English knowledge and ability compared with the advanced English required for delivering a presentation; (b) being evaluated by the teacher; (c) being observed by the whole class; (d) having to use English formally and accurately for a longer time slot.

In summary, many of the participants might feel anxious when their oral English was evaluated by the teacher, but not by other students. Most of them did not feel anxious in discussion-related situations, while giving a presentation was more anxiety-provoking.

2.2 Comprehension-orientated anxiety

In the section, the participants' responses regarding comprehension-orientated anxiety are examined. The results are presented in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5 Responses to the item statements for comprehension-orientated anxiety

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
<i>Worrying about...</i>			
not understanding some words the teacher has spoken	47 / 26.6	32 / 18.1	98 / 55.3
not understanding what the teacher is teaching	23 / 13.0	41 / 23.2	113 / 63.8

More than half of the participants agreed about being worried when not understanding some English input or class contents. This implies that they took English learning seriously, consistent with the previous findings (see Chapter 6 Section 1).

Apart from comprehension, both item statements shared another common factor: teaching activities, suggesting that this also affected participants' anxiety in class, supporting the finding that teacher/teaching activities might play a role in provoking anxiety in speaking activities or situations (see Section 2.1 above).

A significant positive correlation ($r = .521, p < .01$) was found between these two items, suggesting that when the participants worried about not understanding what the teacher was teaching, they also worried about not understanding what the teacher was saying.

2.3 Fear of negative evaluation by others

In the section, the participants' responses regarding the fear of negative evaluation by others are examined. The results are presented in Table 7.6.

Table 7.6 Responses to the item statements for fear of negative evaluation by others

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
<i>Experience anxiety when...</i>			
being continually corrected by the teacher	134 / 75.7	23 / 13.0	20 / 11.3
being laughed at by other students when speaking English	113 / 63.8	45 / 25.4	19 / 10.7

Most of the participants disagreed that they were anxious when the teacher continually corrected their mistakes. Although this seems to contradict the finding that most of them felt anxious when being evaluated by their teacher (see Section 2.1 above), it is likely that they had a positive attitude towards learning English – believing that they could improve their English by learning from their mistakes. Therefore, they were not anxious when being corrected by the teacher, and maybe even welcomed it.

Most of the participants disagreed that they felt anxious about being laughed at by other students when speaking English, indicating they were not fearful of negative evaluation by others. This is consistent with the finding that they did not feel anxious when speaking English in front of other students or in discussions (see Section 2.1).

A weak correlation coefficient of .153 ($p < .05$) found between these two items ($r = .153, p < .05$) indicates that they possessed more difference than similarity, which give rise to a question regarding the suitability of placing these two items into the same category (see Chapter 8 Section 2.1 for further discussion).

2.4 Negative comparative self-evaluation

In the section, the participants' responses regarding negative comparative self-evaluation are examined. The results are presented in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7 Responses to the item statements for negative comparative self-evaluation

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
<i>Always thinking that...</i>			
others speak better English than I do	94 / 53.1	49 / 27.7	34 / 19.2
others are better at learning English than I am	72 / 40.7	63 / 35.6	42 / 23.7

More than half of the participants disagreed that they thought other students were better at speaking English than they were, and more than a quarter were unsure. 40.7% of them disagreed that they thought others were better at learning English than they were, and more than one third were unsure.

Both items show that many of them did not negatively evaluate themselves in comparison with others, implying that they believed they were able to learn and speak English in class as well as others, consistent with the findings that the participants believed that they were able to learn English well (see Chapter 6 Section 5.3).

A significant positive correlation found between these two items ($r = .572, p < .01$) suggesting that when the participants thought that they were not as good as others at learning English, they also thought the same about speaking.

2.5 Additional in-class anxiety items

This section focuses on some in-class anxiety items which could not be placed into any previously discussed categories. The results are presented in Table 7.8.

Table 7.8 *Responses to specific in-class anxiety statements*

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Worrying about making mistakes	87 / 49.2	34 / 19.2	56 / 31.6
Being nervous so forgetting things already known	70 / 39.5	33 / 18.6	74 / 41.8
Feeling overwhelmed by learning English grammar and rules	64 / 36.2	51 / 28.8	62 / 35.0

Nearly half of the participants disagreed that they worried about making mistakes, whereas nearly one third said they did, supporting the finding that most of the participants had positive attitude towards making mistakes rather than fear of making mistakes (see Sections 2.3 and 5.2).

They responded differently to the second and last items: 39.5% of them disagreed that they become nervous so they forgot things they already knew, but an approximately equal number of participants agreed with this statement; similarly, the group was almost equally split between those participants who felt overwhelmed by learning English grammars and rules and those who did not.

The findings suggest that some of the participants felt more anxious than others in classroom-based learning. It might be difficult to pinpoint specifically why, since classroom-based anxiety is a complex with multidimensional aspects (e.g., Young, 1986; Dornyei, 2005) (see Chapter 3 Section 1).

2.6 Classes-related anxiety

This section examines the participants' responses regarding classes-related anxiety, as presented in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9 *Responses to the item statements for classes-related anxiety*

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Feeling nervous on the way to English classes	147 / 83.1	21 / 11.9	9 / 5.1
Feeling more nervous in English classes than in other classes	142 / 80.2	29 / 16.4	6 / 3.4
Feeling anxious after being well prepared for English class	89 / 50.3	47 / 26.6	41 / 23.1
Worrying about not following English classes	68 / 38.4	34 / 19.2	75 / 42.4

Most of the participants disagreed with the first three statements, suggesting that they did not treat English any differently from other academic subjects. 42.4% of them agreed that they worried about not following English classes, implying that they took their English learning seriously, consistent with previous findings (see Chapter 6 Section 1). This is also consistent with the findings that most of them valued English and English learning (see Chapter 6 Sections 5.2 and 6.3).

2.7 Relationships between classroom-based anxiety and its components

In the section, the relationships between classroom-based anxiety and its components are examined. The results are presented in Table 7.10-7.12.

Table 7.10 *Correlation between classroom-based anxiety, in-class anxiety and classes-related anxiety*

Variable	1	2	3
1 Classroom-based anxiety	–	.990**	.779**
2 In-class anxiety		–	.691**
3 Classes-related anxiety			–

Note. ** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 7.10, all the correlations were highly significant, indicating that these variables were very closely linked with each other. The correlation coefficient of .990 ($p < .01$) indicates a large amount of the similarity shared between classroom-based anxiety and in-class anxiety, suggesting in-class anxiety could be used to explain classroom-based anxiety.

It was found that classroom-based anxiety was closely correlated with in-class anxiety than with classes-related anxiety. This is predictable, since most of the items in the scale of classroom-based anxiety were used to measure in-class anxiety rather than classes-related anxiety.

Table 7.11 *Correlation between classrooms-based anxiety, in-class anxiety and its components*

Components of in-class anxiety	classroom-based anxiety	in-class anxiety
Speaking-orientated anxiety	.929**	.942**
Negative comparative self-evaluation	.648**	.640**
Fear of negative evaluation	.549**	.568**
Comprehension-orientated anxiety	.508**	.511**

Note. ** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 7.11, all the components were strongly correlated with classroom-based anxiety ($p < .01$), suggesting that when the participants were anxious in classroom-based learning, they also felt anxious when speaking or comprehending English, having negative perceptions of their English, or fearing being negatively evaluated by others.

The fact that the correlation coefficient between speaking-orientated anxiety and classroom-based anxiety was very close to that between speaking-orientated anxiety and in-class anxiety indicates that (a) classroom-based anxiety, in-class anxiety and speaking anxiety had large amount of similarity; (b) both classroom-based anxiety and in-class anxiety could be largely explained by speaking-orientated anxiety. Therefore, speaking-orientated anxiety plays an important role in classroom-based anxiety, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999).

Table 7.12 *Correlation between the components of in-class anxiety*

Variable	1	2	3	4
1 Speaking-orientated anxiety	–	.393**	.440**	.539**
2 Comprehension-orientated anxiety		–	.221**	.165*
3 Fear of negative evaluation			–	.324**
4 Negative comparative self-evaluation				–

Note. ** $p < .01$,
* $p < .05$

As shown in table 7.12, all the correlations were significantly positive, suggesting that those participants who were anxious in speaking might also feel anxious in comprehending English, having negative perception of their English, or fearing of negative comments from others, and vice versa.

Correlations involving speaking-orientated anxiety were stronger than those not involving it, indicating a closer relationship between it and the other components of in-class anxiety. This is consistent with the finding presented in Table 7.11, that is, that speaking-orientated anxiety plays a more important role than the other anxiety variables.

2.8 Summary

Over one third of the participants reported being anxious concerning 6 out of the 24 anxiety item statements, and over half of them reported that they were anxious regarding 3 of the item statements. This suggests that many of them experienced anxiety in some aspects of classroom-based English learning, consistent with their overall anxiety levels, as summarised in Table 7.13.

Table 7.13 Levels of anxiety in various aspects of classroom-based learning

Variable	N / %		
	Low	Moderate	High
Classroom-based anxiety	62 / 35.0	101 / 57.1	14 / 7.9
In-class anxiety	59 / 33.3	102 / 57.6	16 / 9.0
Speaking-orientated anxiety	67 / 37.9	91 / 51.4	19 / 10.7
Classes-related anxiety	88 / 49.7	78 / 44.1	11 / 6.2

As shown in Table 7.13, most of the participants had either low or moderate levels of anxiety in classroom-based English learning.

Figure 7.2 illustrates the relationship between classroom-based anxiety and its components.

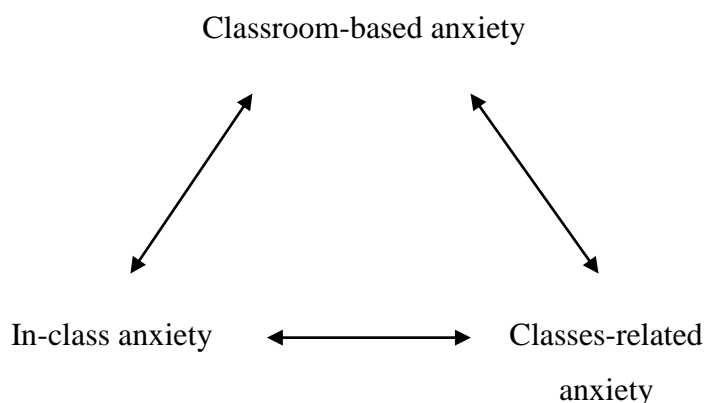


Figure 7.2 Relationship between classroom-based anxiety, in-class anxiety and classes-related anxiety

Figure 7.3 further develops the concept of classroom-based anxiety by showing the relationships between in-class anxiety and its four components as well as between classroom-based anxiety and these components.

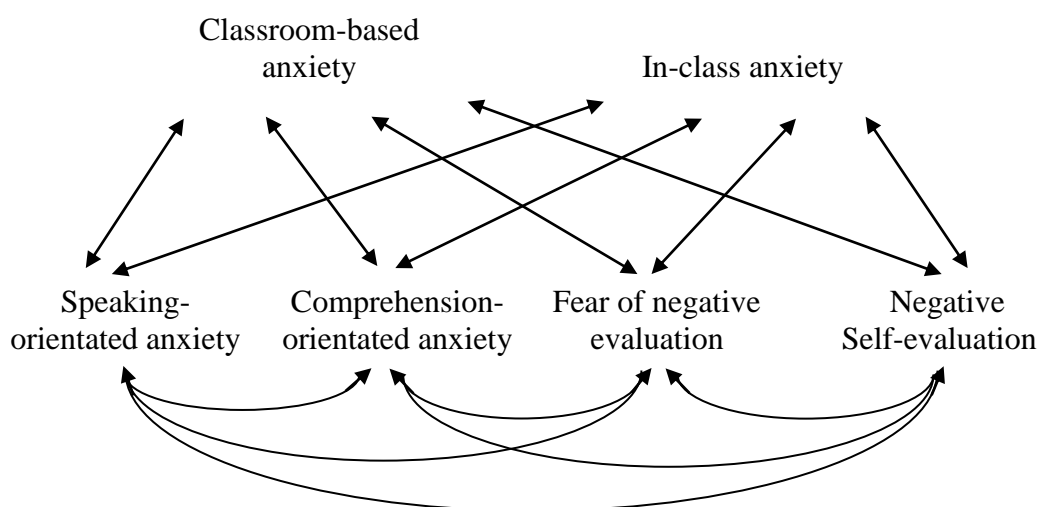


Figure 7.3 Relationship between classroom-based anxiety, in-class anxiety and its components

As shown in Figures 7.2 and 7.3, most of the classroom-based anxiety variables are related.

3 Anxiety out of Class

This section examines the anxiety which the participants experienced when using English out of class. The results are presented in Table 7.14 and 7.15.

Table 7.14 Descriptive statistics: anxiety out of class

Measure	<i>N</i> of items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	<i>Mdn</i>	Mode	Max.
Anxiety out of class	11 ^a	2.77	.57	1.07	2.79	2.64	4.14

Note. ^a Three items were excluded owing to missing values.

Table 7.15 *Levels of anxiety out of class*

Measure	<i>N / %</i>		
	Low (incl. relatively low, very low)	Moderate	High (incl. relatively high, very high)
Anxiety out of class	49 / 27.7 (46 / 26.0, 3 / 1.7)	109 / 61.6	19 / 10.7 (19 / 10.7, –)

The results shown in Table 7.14 and 7.15 are consistent: most of the participants might experience moderate levels of anxiety when using English out of class.

Furthermore, a specific item was used to measure speaking anxiety out of class. The result shows that 52.0% of the participants disagreed they felt uncomfortable when speaking English in most situations out of class, while 16.9% of them agreed with the statement. 31.1% were unsure.

The following sections 3.1 and 3.2 report the participants' specific anxiety experience out of class.

3.1 Anxiety in specific situations

This section focuses on the anxiety which they experienced when using English in specific situations. The results are presented in Table 7.16.

Table 7.16 Responses to the item statements for anxiety out of class

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
<i>Feeling anxious when...</i>			
chatting with friends	135 / 76.3	29 / 16.4	13 / 7.3
asking for street directions	127 / 71.8	28 / 15.8	22 / 12.4
having conversations with the teacher	113 / 63.8	37 / 20.9	27 / 15.3
communicating with a salesman in a shop	105 / 59.3	42 / 23.7	30 / 17.0
describing an object to others	70 / 39.5	58 / 32.8	49 / 27.7
speaking to an administrator at the university	78 / 44.1	45 / 25.4	54 / 30.5
being asked a question by an unknown person	70 / 39.5	46 / 26.0	61 / 34.5
making an oral request at a bank	38 / 21.5	60 / 33.9	79 / 44.6
speaking English on the phone	49 / 27.7	47 / 26.6	81 / 45.8
Ordering a meal in an English restaurant	52 / 29.4	40 / 22.6	85 / 48.0
joining a conversation amongst English people	35 / 19.8	52 / 29.4	90 / 50.8

Most of the participants disagreed that they felt anxious in the first four situations. More than one third of them disagreed about being anxious when describing an object to others, speaking to an administrator at the university, or being asked a question by

an unknown person, whereas around one third agreed. Nearly half of them agreed with the last four statements. These results are explicated below.

It is always easier to speak to a familiar person than to a stranger. Therefore, it was expected that more participants felt relaxed when chatting with friends than being asked a question by a stranger.

Asking for street directions generally seems to be an easy task, as it only requires simple English. In some cases, it might not even matter if the participants did not understand what they were told, as the conversation could be carried on with gestures or help from a map.

Conversations with the teacher after classes are less formal than in class. Most of the participants might not feel stressed in this type of situations, since the teachers were trained to speak to their students in a friendly way rather than as authority figures.

Going shopping is normally informal and enjoyable. Communicating with a salesman is an easy task, since most of them are trained to be friendly and communicative when serving customers.

Making an oral request at a bank might be a relatively formal and serious task for the participants. This could be difficult and might trigger anxiety for the following reasons: (a) the participants would be required to use specific terms or formal words; (b) they might also need to understand what the member of staff said in detail; (c) the banking information they received might be complicated and difficult to understand; (d) more importantly, getting it wrong could result in negative and serious consequences.

Conducting a conversation through a phone might be difficult for many of the participants, because this relies purely on their speaking and listening skills without any additional help (e.g., facial expression, gestures or body language).

Lack of experience with English food and being unfamiliar with a restaurant environment might lead to discomfort in many of the participants when they were ordering a meal. For example, they might worry about getting something different from what they expected, or not enjoying the food they had ordered.

More participants reported feeling anxious in joining a conversation among English people than in any other situations. This is because: (a) it is possible that the participants worried about making mistakes or being unable to speak English as perfectly as the English people; (b) some of them might simply be afraid of speaking in front of several listeners; (c) sometimes they might be unable to completely follow the conversation, which consequently lead to anxiety.

There might also be various reasons for the participants to feel/not to feel anxious in some situations. For example, the fact that some of the participants felt anxious when speaking to an administrator might be because they were worried about not fully understanding the conversation, whereas the fact that others did not feel anxious in this situation might be because they frequently had this type of conversation. Therefore, it is possible that having repeated routine conversation might reduce anxiety levels.

In summary, half of the participants felt anxious when...

- making an oral request at a bank;
- speaking English on the phone;
- ordering a meal in an English restaurant;
- joining a conversation started by a group of English people;

However, most of them did not feel anxious when...

- chatting with a friend;
- asking for street directions;
- having conversations with my language teacher out of classes;
- communicating with a salesman in a shop;

Therefore, the participants might feel more anxious in some situations than in others. The criteria used to assess whether or not a conversational context was anxiety-provoking are summarised as follows:

- A conversation was important or serious;
- A conversation took place only once in a while;
- Conversation environment was unfamiliar;
- The topic of a conversation was uncommon;
- The contents of a conversation were complicated or difficult to understand;
- The contents of a conversation required a high level of understanding;
- The purpose of a conversation was to receive a large amount of detailed information;
- Advanced English was required;
- English had to be used accurately;
- The partner in a conversation was deemed to be an authority figure or an expert (e.g., a lecturer);
- The partner in a conversation was a stranger or an unfamiliar person;
- It was a conversation without any additional support or help (e.g., gestures, facial expression), such as speaking on the phone;

In brief, the more criteria from the above list apply to a specific conversational context, the more anxious the participants might become when using English in that context.

3.2 Anxiety in speaking with native English speakers and foreigners

This section focuses on the anxiety which the participants experienced when speaking English with native speakers and foreigners and the relationship between them. The results are presented in Tables 7.17 and 7.18.

Table 7.17 Anxiety in speaking with native English speakers and foreigners

Description of item statement	N / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Speaking English with native speakers	69 / 39.0	48 / 27.1	60 / 33.9
foreigners	120 / 67.8	34 / 19.2	23 / 13.0

More than one third of the participants disagreed that they felt nervous when speaking with native speakers of English, but a relatively equal number of them agreed so. By contrast, most of them disagreed about feeling uncomfortable when communicating with foreigners. This suggests that many of the participants felt differently between speaking with native speakers and foreigners.

Table 7.18 Correlation between anxiety in speaking with native speakers, anxiety in speaking with foreigners, and anxiety out of class

Variable	1	2	3
1 Anxiety out of class	–	.642**	.476**
2 Anxiety in speaking with native speakers (AiSwN)		–	.180*
3 foreigners (AiSwF)			–

Note. ** $p < .01$,
 * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 7.18, all the correlations were significantly positive, indicating that anxiety out of class was linked with AiSwN and AiSwF. 41.2% of its variance could be explained by AiSwN, whereas only 22.7% of it could be explained by AiSwF. This indicates that out-of-class anxiety had more similarity with AiSwN than with AiSwF. Therefore, the AiSwN played a more important role than AiSwF. Furthermore, a weak correlation between AiSwN and AiSwF ($r = .180, p < .01$) suggests that there were more difference than similarity between them.

In summary, the participants felt differently when speaking with native English speakers and with foreigners: more participants reported feeling more anxious when speaking with native speakers than with foreigners.

4 Relationship between Classroom-based Anxiety and Anxiety out of Class

The relationship between classroom-based and out-of-class anxiety was analysed using Spearman’s *rho* correlation, since they were not normally distributed, as presented in Table 6.19 and Figure 7.4.

Table 7.19 Tests of normality: classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	
	Statistic	Sig.
Classroom-based anxiety	.070	.033
Anxiety out of class	.066	.058

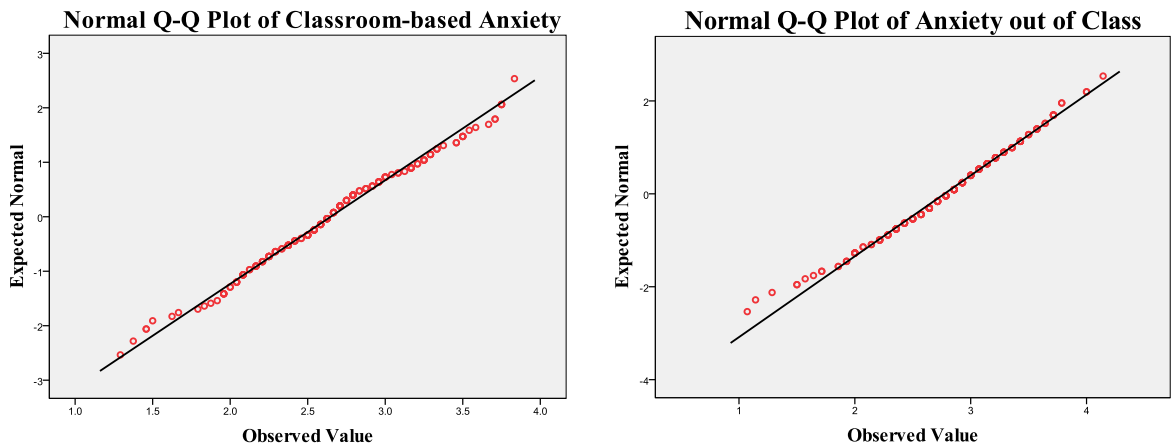


Figure 7.4 Normal Q-Q Plots: classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class

The correlation between these two variables is presented as follows:

Table 7.20 *Correlation between classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class*

	Anxiety out of class
Classroom-based anxiety	.683**

Note. ** $p < .01$

As shown above, these two variables were significantly positively correlated, indicating that they were different but had similarity, consistent with the finding in Woodrow's (2006) that in-class and out-of-class speaking anxiety were highly correlated (p. 320).

5 General Discussion

5.1 Chinese learners' classroom-based anxiety

The present study found that many of the participants felt anxious in classroom-based English learning, which is consistent with the findings of a large number of studies (e.g., Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Aida, 1994; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999).

In order to discover whether there were any differences between the learners' classroom-based anxiety experience in China and in the U.K., the anxiety findings of the present study are compared with those of Liu (2006), which investigated Chinese learners' anxiety experienced in English classrooms in China. The relevant results are presented in Tables 7.21 and 7.22.

Table 7.21 *Descriptive statistics: classroom-based anxiety in Liu (2006) and that in the present study*

Study	Anxiety measure	<i>N</i> of items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	Mode
Liu (2006)	The foreign language classroom anxiety scale	36	2.81	.52	2.81	2.97
The present study	Classroom-based anxiety scale	24	2.65	.52	2.63	2.70

Note. In order to compare these two studies, all the original figures in Liu (2006) presented above were divided by the number of items ($N = 36$).

The learners in both studies had either low or moderate levels of classroom-based anxiety. However, a comparison of mean, median, and mode shows that the participants in the U.K. possessed lower levels of anxiety than those in China.

The comparison with regard to the learners' responses to identical anxiety item statements in both studies²⁴ suggests that the participants in the present study generally felt less anxious than those in China. However, this was not the case for some specific situations, as shown in Table 7.22.

²⁴ The researcher conducted this comparison manually.

Table 7.22 Percentages of the responses to some specific anxiety item statements in the present study and those in Liu (2006)

Item statement	Study	StD	D	N	A	SA
I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	W	5.6	30.5	28.8	30.5	4.5
	L	8.2	53.7	18.6	16.8	2.7
I get so nervous I forget things I know.	W	6.2	33.3	18.6	38.4	3.4
	L	15.5	53.9	11.2	17.6	1.8
Because English classes move so quickly, I worry about getting left behind.	W	9.6	28.8	19.2	39.0	3.4
	L	10.6	51.4	15.2	20.1	2.7

Note. W = the present study, L = Liu (2006) (p. 307-308)

StD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, N = Neither Agree nor Disagree, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree.

The highlighted figures show that the percentages of participants who agreed they felt anxious in the above situations in the U.K. were higher than those learners in China, indicating that more participants in the U.K. felt anxious than those in China in these particular situations.

To sum up, the participants in the U.K. generally experienced slightly lower levels of anxiety than those in China in English classroom-based learning, although in some specific aspects/situations, more of the U.K. participants felt anxious than those in China. This could be explained by the following reasons:

Firstly, the students in the U.K. might be slightly braver and more self-determined and-prepared for learning English than those in China, since deciding to study abroad is a big step to take and also means a dramatic life change. Having these qualities might make them feel less anxious.

Secondly, exposure to English in the U.K. might help decrease the participants' anxiety levels (see Chapter 9 Section 6.2 for the discussion related to the relationship between classroom-based anxiety and exposure to English out of class). Onwuegbuzie, Bailey and Dailey (1999) also argue that 'exposure to different cultures, particularly those where people speak the target language, helps to reduce their levels of foreign language anxiety' (p. 230). Similarly, Aida (1994) found that Japanese (L2) learners with experience in Japan tended to feel less anxious than those without. Since it is reasonable to assume that the participants in the present study had been exposed to more English than those in Liu (2006), it is likely that their anxiety levels were slightly lower than those in China.

Thirdly, it is possible that different L2 contexts outside the classroom were responsible for the difference in anxiety experience between the participants in the present study and those in Liu (2006).

Another reason relates to the role of teacher. It is possible that the anxiety which students experience in class where the teacher can only speak the L2 (e.g., in the U.K.) is different from the anxiety which they experience in class where the teacher can communicate with them using their L1 as well as L2 (e.g., in China). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the participants in the U.K. felt more anxious when not understanding what the teacher said in class. This point is discussed further in the following Section 5.2.

5.2 Role of teacher or teaching activities in classroom-based anxiety

In the present study, the participants' feelings about the teacher/teaching activities, particularly on the teacher's negative evaluation, were complicated, as detailed below.

On the one hand, the facts that most of the participants did not feel anxious when answering questions asked by the teacher and being continually corrected suggest that they did not experience anxiety when interacting with the teachers in class.

On the other hand, the facts that more than one third of the participants worried about being called on to answer questions by the teacher, and most of them felt anxious

when giving an oral explanation or when not understanding what the teacher was saying or teaching in class suggest that they experienced anxiety when being evaluated by the teacher in some situations. It seems that the teacher/teaching activities play a role in their anxiety to some extent.

In order to examine the role of teacher/teaching activities, the facts listed above are discussed further by being compared with Liu’s (2006) findings, as presented below.

The finding that most of the participants in the present study did not feel anxious when answering questions asked by the teacher is different from the finding of Liu (2006) that ‘the students felt the most anxious when they responded to the teacher’ (p. 301). According to Liu (2006), this was because the students were worried about their poor English and about making mistakes. However, this may not have been the case for the participants in the present study, as many of them were neither worried about making mistakes, nor anxious about being continually corrected by the teacher. Table 7.23 presents the findings obtained in both studies.

Table 7.23 *Percentages of the responses regarding the anxiety which they might experience when making mistakes in the present study and those in Liu (2006)*

Item statement	Study	StD	D	N	A	SA
I worry about making mistakes. ²⁵	W	9.0	40.1	19.2	28.8	2.8
	L	3.3	18.6	10.8	58.3	9.0
I am afraid that my teacher would continually correct the mistakes I made.	W	19.2	56.5	13.0	10.7	0.6
I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	L	12.2	59.2	14.6	12.3	1.7

(p. 307-308)

²⁵This item statement was negatively worded as ‘I don’t worry about making mistakes in the English class’ in Liu (2006, p. 307). Therefore, relevant results were reversed before being presented in Table 7.23.

As shown in Table 7.23, more than half of the learners in both studies were not anxious about being corrected by the teacher, suggesting that they had a positive attitude towards learning English – learning from corrected mistakes.

As also shown in the above table, Liu (2006) found that 58.3% of the learners worried about making mistakes, whereas in the present study, only 28.8% of the participants worried about it. It seems that the participants in the present study were more active than those in China. This might be explained by their stronger characteristics (e.g., they were more strongly motivated than those in China (see Chapter 6 Section 6.3)).

More than one third of the participants worried about being called on to answer questions in class, and most of them felt anxious when giving a presentation, consistent with the findings in Liu (2006). One of the reasons might be related to their fear of being negatively evaluated by their teacher. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) suggest that L2 learners felt more anxious when conducting activities which involved the teacher's negative evaluation (see Sections 1.1 and 4.5).

Most of them felt anxious when not understanding what the teacher was saying or teaching. A comparison between this and the relevant findings in Liu (2006) indicates that the participants in the present study felt much more anxious than those in Liu (2006), as detailed in Table 7.24.

Table 7.24 Percentages of the responses regarding comprehension-orientated anxiety in the present study and those in Liu (2006)

Item statement	Study	StD	D	N	A	SA
I am worried when I don't understand all the words the teacher has spoken. ²⁶	W	3.4	23.2	18.1	54.2	1.1
	L	7.5	50.3	13.3	24.7	4.2
I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is teaching us.	W	0.6	12.4	23.2	53.1	10.7
It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	L	15.9	49.0	13.7	19.6	1.8

(p. 307-308)

The highlighted percentages indicate that in the present study around half of the participants were worried when they did not understand all the words the teacher said, whereas around half of the Chinese learners in Liu (2006) were not worried about it.

Since most English teachers in China are Chinese, if students do not understand what the teacher has just said in English, the teacher can explain it again in Chinese. However, this is not the case in the U.K.

It is possible that teacher/teaching activities play a much more important role in classroom-based English learning in the U.K. than in China. For example, the learners in China could communicate with the teacher in Chinese after English classes, so the teacher could explain any English contents or words which they did not fully understand again in Chinese. However, the learners in the U.K. did not have this advantage. Nonetheless, it was not expected that the U.K. participants would feel much more anxious in this situation, since they appeared to be more active and braver in general.

²⁶This item in Liu (2006) was worded as 'I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says' (p. 308).

To sum up, it seems that the role of teacher/teaching activities was subtle.

5.3 Negative evaluation by other students

The present study found that the participants did not feel anxious when interacting with other students or receiving negative feedback from them, as supported by the following facts: (a) most of them did not feel anxious when speaking in front of others or taking part in group or class discussion; (b) they did not feel anxious about being laughed at by other students when speaking English. Therefore, these findings do not support Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's (1986) argument that activities which expose L2 learners to their classmates' negative evaluation might provoke their anxiety in class. However, these findings are consistent with those of Liu (2006), who even found that some of the learners were actually supporting each other using body language or by making positive comments in English classes. A comparison of relevant findings between the present study and Liu (2006) was made. The results are presented in Table 7.25.

Table 7.25 *Percentages of the responses regarding being negatively evaluated by other students in the present study and those in Liu (2006)*

Item statement	Study	StD	D	N	A	SA
I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	W	14.7	49.2	25.4	7.3	3.4
	L	12.6	51.9	12.2	21.7	1.6

(p. 307-308)

As shown in Table 7.25, most of the learners in both studies were not fearful of being laughed at when speaking English. The highlighted figures indicate that fewer participants in the present study felt anxious about this than in Liu (2006), suggesting that the participants in the present study had slightly stronger personalities (e.g., being more self-determined). This is consistent with the previous finding that the learners in the U.K. experienced slightly lower levels of classroom-based anxiety than those in China (see Section 5.1 above). Furthermore, this also explains why a majority of them were confident about being able to learn English well (see Chapter 6 Section 5.3).

5.4 Negative comparative self-evaluation

A comparison was made between the participants' responses regarding self-evaluation in the present study and in that of Liu (2006). The results are presented in Table 7.26:

Table 7.26 *Percentages of the responses regarding being evaluated by themselves or other students in the present study and those in Liu (2006)*

Item statement	Study	StD	D	N	A	SA
I always feel that other students speak better English than I do.	W	7.9	45.2	27.7	15.8	3.4
	L	6.0	35.6	19.2	33.6	5.6
I keep thinking that other students are better at learning English than I am.	W	5.6	35.0	35.6	20.3	3.4
	L	6.0	33.3	22.1	32.2	6.4

(p. 307-308)

The highlighted figures indicate that compared with the learners in China, fewer participants in the present study thought that other students were better at English than they were, suggesting that more participants in the present study believed they were able to learn English as well as the other students than in Liu (2006). This might be because the participants in the U.K. had stronger personalities, as discussed in Sections 5.1 and 5.3 above. Therefore, this finding is consistent with the previous findings (e.g., a vast majority of the participants in the present study were confident about being able to learn English well (see Chapter 6 Section 5.3).

5.5 Speaking-orientated anxiety

The present study found that some of the participants felt anxious when speaking English in class. This is consistent with the findings of numerous studies (e.g., Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Aida, 1994; Woodrow, 2006a).

A comparison of learners' speaking anxiety reactions in Liu (2006)²⁷ and in the present study seems to suggest that the U.K. participants were generally less anxious than those in China. As an example, the learners' responses to identical item statements in both studies are presented in Table 7.27.

Table 7.27 *Percentages of the responses regarding speaking-orientated anxiety in the present study and those in Liu (2006)*

Item statement	Study	StD	D	N	A	SA
I feel self-conscious when speaking English in front of the other students. ²⁸	W	13.6	59.9	16.9	9.0	0.6
	L	10.8	53.2	16.1	18.3	1.6
It embarrasses me to volunteer answers.	W	13.6	47.5	22.6	14.1	2.3
	L	11.9	39.1	22.9	24.3	1.8
I feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on.	W	14.1	27.7	20.9	32.8	4.5
	L	4.4	29.3	15.3	43.5	7.5
I will panic if I say anything in English without preparation. ²⁹	W	7.3	32.2	23.2	35.0	2.3
	L	5.1	34.9	18.1	36.2	5.7

(p. 307-308)

The highlighted figures suggest that compared with those in Liu (2006), more participants in the present study disagreed that they felt anxiety in most of the situations presented in the table above. There might be various reasons for this. For

²⁷ The researcher conducted some manual calculation based on the descriptive statistical results presented in Liu (2006).

²⁸ This item in Liu (2006) was worded as 'I feel very anxious about speaking English in front of other students' (p. 308).

²⁹ This item in Liu (2006) was worded as 'I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in the English class' (p.307).

example, the U.K. learners might have more opportunities to speak English (see Chapter 9 Section 6.2 for a discussion of the relationship between classroom-based anxiety and exposure to English out of class), and they might had slightly more strong personalities than those in China, which is consistent with the findings presented earlier in this section.

5.6 Anxiety in various speaking-orientated classroom activities

The present study found that some classroom activities were more anxiety-provoking than others, based on the following facts: most of the participants did not report being anxious when responding to questions, volunteering answers, speaking English in front of the other students, or in group or class discussion, whereas many of them did report being anxious when providing a presentation or dialogue. The reasons behind these facts are discussed below:

(1) Fear of negative evaluation by the teacher

As discussed in Section 4.2 above, it is possible that the learners felt anxious when being evaluated by the teacher because they were worried about not doing well, or about receiving negative comments from the teacher, although they also liked the teacher to correct the mistakes they made.

(2) Limited English proficiency and advanced English requirement

According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993a), anxiety occurs ‘...when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient’ (p. 5). It seems that the learners might easily feel frustrated if the English they were required to use was beyond their current proficiency level.

Additionally, a comparison made between learners’ anxiety levels in different classroom activities in the present study and in Liu (2006) indicates that (a) most of the learners in both studies did not report being anxious in either group or class discussion; (b) the fact that most of the participants in the present study felt anxious

when giving a presentation but not when answering a question or speaking English in front of the other students partly contradicts Liu's (2006) finding that '[b]eing singled out to answer questions and giving presentations... were the most anxiety-provoking activities in class' (p. 311).

5.7 Anxiety out of class

This section discusses the participants' anxiety experience out of class by comparing it with Woodrow (2006a), since these two studies had similarities: they both focused on L2 learners' anxiety experience within and outside the classroom in an English-speaking country.

In the present study, most of the participants reported being anxious when speaking with native speakers (AiSwN) but not with foreigners (AiSwF), consistent with the interview results in Woodrow (2006a). The present study also found that the context of joining a conversation among English people was more anxiety-provoking than other contexts (e.g., speaking English on the phone), which is also consistent with Woodrow's (2006a) finding that the L2 learners felt anxious when involved in a conversation with a group of Australians.

The consistency of these results was also supported by the finding of a weak correlation ($r = .180, p < .05$) between AiSwN and AiSwF in the present study, which suggests that these two variables possessed more difference than similarity. This might be explained by the following two points:

The first is that learners might consider native speakers to be experts in English. When speaking with an English expert, they might be worried or even embarrassed if they made mistakes. However, when speaking with a foreigner, who is a non-expert, they might feel more relaxed. Similarly, Woodrow's (2006a) interview results show that some learners felt anxious because they worried about the listeners (native speakers) being unable to understand them owing to the mistakes they made.

The second point is that when the participants were speaking to a foreigner, English served as a lingua franca, suggesting that they concentrated more on the content of the conversation than on grammatical correctness. However, when they spoke to a native speaker, they might focus on the English as well as the content. This might cause more difficulties or frustration, which could result in anxiety.

In the present study, most of the participants did not feel anxious when speaking with their English teacher out of class, whereas the learners in Woodrow (2006a) felt stressed when answering questions or asking for advice from a lecturer. This difference might be explained by the differences between the role of lecturers and teachers and conversational contexts. Speaking to or asking for advice from a lecturer might take place in an office, and the tone of the conversation could be serious and important, since it might relate to the learners' future academic study. By contrast, learners might feel easier speaking to their teacher with whom they were familiar, and the conversation could often be in the form of an informal chat.

In summary, speaking with native speakers was found to be a main stressor to L2 learners, suggesting it played an important role in anxiety out of class, whereas speaking with foreigners appeared to be less anxiety-provoking.

6 Summary

This chapter has documented the participants' English language anxiety experience in both general and specific contexts in and out of class in the U.K.

The present study found that most of the participants experienced low or moderate levels of anxiety both within and outside the classroom. The levels of classroom-based anxiety in the participants were lower than the levels of out-of-class anxiety. Other major findings on these two variables are summarised as follows:

(1) With regard to classroom-based anxiety:

The participants felt more anxious in some classroom activities than in others, that is, most of them did not feel anxious when responding to questions, volunteering answers, speaking English in front of the other students, or in group or class discussion, whereas they did feel anxious when delivering a presentation.

Teacher/teaching activities play an important role in classroom-based anxiety. For example, most of the participants felt anxious when not understanding what the teacher said or taught. The participants might also have mixed feeling about the teacher's evaluation: on the one hand, they felt anxious when being evaluated by the teacher (e.g., giving a presentation); on the other hand, they welcomed corrections from the teacher.

The comparison between the learners' classroom-based anxiety experience in the present study and in Liu (2006) suggests that the participants in the U.K. experienced slightly lower levels of English classroom-based anxiety than those in China in a general context and in most of the specific contexts (e.g., speaking-orientated anxiety, fear of negative evaluation by other students, negative comparative self-evaluation and anxiety in making mistakes), although in some of the specific contexts (e.g., when not understanding what the teacher was teaching or saying in class), the learners in the U.K. might feel more anxious than those in China. This suggests that L2 contexts play an important and complex role in classroom-based anxiety.

Although it is acknowledged by the researcher that the research settings in Liu (2006) were different from the setting in the present study, this comparison will still be useful in revealing the role of L2 context in classroom-based anxiety through Chinese learners' anxiety experience in learning English.

(2) With regard to anxiety out of class:

The participants felt more anxious in some specific contexts than in other contexts. Joining a conversation started by a group of English people was found to be the most anxiety-provoking for them. In order to assess whether or not a specific

conversational situation was anxiety-provoking, the criteria were developed from various aspects of conversations (e.g., the familiarity/unfamiliarity of topic, the levels of content comprehension required, the levels of English required for carrying on the conversation).

The participants felt differently about speaking to English native speakers and to foreigners. They felt more anxious when speaking with native speakers. This might be because they felt pressure when speaking to a native speaker as an English expert. Moreover, no comparisons related to Chinese learners' English anxiety experience out of class were made between the present and previous studies, since little research has focused on anxiety out of class in Chinese learners of English.

(3) Relationships between the anxiety variables:

Most of the anxiety variables are interconnected: (a) a positive relationship was found between classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class; (b) classroom-based, in-class and classes-related anxiety are correlated; (c) in-class anxiety and its components (i.e., speaking-oriented anxiety, comprehension-orientated anxiety, fear of negative evaluation and negative self-evaluation) are also interrelated.

In classroom-based anxiety, speaking-orientated anxiety plays an important role, based on two facts: (a) both classroom-based and in-class anxiety can be explained by speaking-orientated anxiety; (b) the correlations between in-class anxiety components involving speaking-orientated anxiety are stronger than the ones without it.

In the following chapter, the conceptual models of language anxiety are evaluated.

Chapter Eight

Chapter Eight

Towards the Building of A model of Language Anxiety

The chapter addresses the following two research questions:

RQ3: What is the validity of the measure of language anxiety developed in this study?

RQ4: Which model of language anxiety best captures this construct?

The chapter includes six sections: Sections 1, 3 and 4 present the results obtained from factor analyses, and Section 2 compares the models of classroom-based anxiety developed in the current and previous studies, followed by a discussion in Section 5 and a summary in Section 6.

1 Exploratory Factor analysis Results Related to Classroom-based Anxiety

In order to build a model of classroom-based anxiety, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used. This statistical technique is used for clustering variables together into factors. In other words, it reduces the number of variables by re-grouping similar ones into a single category (or a factor).

In the present study, classroom-based anxiety was measured using 24 items with a sample size of 177. By using the EFA, these items (as variables) were re-grouped into several categories (called factors) based on their similarity. These factors shown in the EFA results were then considered as the components of classroom-based anxiety.

This section contains the following parts: Part 1 describes the EFA major assumptions, and how well they were fulfilled; Part 2 presents the EFA results and their suggestions; and Part 3 summarises the major findings.

1.1 Assumptions

Various tests were applied on the data in order to show how well they fulfilled the major assumptions of the EFA, as detailed below:

The coefficient of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)³⁰ measure of sampling adequacy was 0.891, indicating that the factors identified would be ‘...distinct and reliable’ (Field, 2009, p 647).

The result of Bartlett’s test of sphericity³¹ (i.e. $\chi^2(276) = 1518.145, p = .000$) was statistically significant, indicating that the data was factorable (Field, 2005).

All the on-diagonal values³² in the anti-image correlation matrix were greater than 0.6, indicating that every item was suitable for this analysis, as according to Brace et al. (2006) on-diagonal values had to be more than 0.5 to be acceptable.

Since the EFA clusters variables based on the correlations with them, according to Field (2005), it is important for these correlations to fulfil the following two conditions: (a) the variables should be fairly strongly correlated with the others (i.e., the correlation coefficients should not be less than 0.3); (b) However, they should neither be too highly nor perfectly correlated (i.e., the coefficient should not be higher than 0.9).

³⁰ ‘KMO measure of sampling adequacy is a test of the amount of variance within the data that could be explained by factors’ (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2006, p. 318). In other words, it is a measure of factorability (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2006).

³¹ Bartlett's test of Sphericity ‘indicates whether data is factorable or not’ (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2006, p. 318).

³² This is the KMO value for each individual item (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2006, p. 319).

In the present research, both conditions were fulfilled: in the correlation matrix, all the items were correlated, and most of the correlation coefficients between these items were greater than 0.3, and none of them had correlation coefficients greater than 0.9.

In addition, all the data were manually checked for outliers. No outliers were found except coding errors, which were immediately corrected.

1.2 Results

The research data were analysed using the extraction procedure of principal components (one of the EFA methods) with Varimax rotation. The results are presented in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 presents a rotated components matrix, including factor loadings after the rotation, communalities (h^2), Eigenvalues, and the total percentages of variance (accounted for by the factors). A factor loading is the correlation coefficient between a factor and a variable. They are also useful for labelling the factors. A communality of a variable indicates how much the variance of this variable can be explained by the solution provided by the EFA (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2006). An Eigenvalue indicates how much variance can be explained by a single factor (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2006). The total percentage of variance indicates how much a factor accounted for the overall solution.

This table contains five parts:

- The items (as variables) are listed in the column on the left side.
- The factor loadings are placed in the middle.
- The communalities (h^2) are listed in the right-side column.
- The Eigenvalues are placed at the bottom part.
- The total percentages of variance are presented right below the Eigenvalues.
- No outliers were found.

Table 8.1 only presents the factors loadings greater than 0.3, since the loading less than 0.3 is too low to be taken into account.

Table 8.1 *Rotated component matrix: a six-factor solution for classroom-based anxiety (the 1st test)*

Description of the item statement	Factors loading						h ²
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	
Feeling uncomfortable when giving an oral presentation	.706						.632
Worrying about being laughed by other students when speaking up	.676						.573
Getting nervous so forgetting things already known	.644						.472
Feeling embarrassed when volunteering answers	.590						.473
Being panicked when saying something in English without preparation	.561						.521
Feeling unsure when taking part in a dialogue in front of the class	.527						.491
Feeling anxious although have well prepared for English class	.522						.317
Feeling nervous when responding to questions	.481						.549
Feeling more nervous in English class than in other classes		.785					.690
Feeling nervous on my way to English class		.743					.598
Feeling nervous in English classes in general		.695					.680
Feeling self-conscious when speaking English in front of the other students		.560					.678
Feeling heart pounding when knowing to be called to answer questions	.511	.521					.633
Avoid formally speaking English in front of the whole class.		.480					.514
Always thinking that other students are better at learning English than I am.			.842				.770
Always thinking that others speak better English are than I do			.691				.640
Feeling nervous when taking part in group discussion			.534				.599
Feeling nervous when contributing to a whole class discussion			.497			.479	.671
Worry about not understanding what the teacher is teaching us				.828			.704
Worry about being unable to understand some English words the teacher has spoken				.799			.684
Worrying about getting left behind because English classes moved so quickly			.428	.508			.609
Worrying about making mistakes							.507
Being afraid of being continually corrected by the teacher					.764		.661
Feeling overwhelmed by learning grammar and rules						.685	.565
Initial Eigenvalues	7.799	1.735	1.305	1.258	1.153	1.035	
Total % of variance	32.498	7.227	5.439	5.242	4.804	4.311	
% of the total variance accounted for by the solution							59.521

Table 8.1 shows a six-factor solution for these 24 items. The Eigenvalues for these six factors were all greater than 1. This solution was evaluated through the following two points: (a) the total variance accounted for by the solution was 59.5%, suggesting that this solution was good, according to Comrey and Lee (1992) that 55-63% could be considered as good (cited in Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007); (b) the communalities of most items were greater than 0.5, suggesting that this solution represented them at a reasonable level, based on Hair et al. (2006), communalities of items had to be greater than 0.5 to be acceptable. However, the communality of the 7th item (0.371) was too low to be retained. Due to this, another EFA was carried out on the remaining 23 items.

The data related to these 23 items fulfilled the EFA major assumptions, as presented in Table 8.2:

Table 8.2 *Requirement for the major EFA assumptions and relevant results*

	Requirement	Results in the present study
KMO	> .60	.895
On-diagonal values	> .60	> .80
Barlett's test of sphericity	$p > .05$	$\chi^2 (253) = 1443.691, p = 0.000$
Correlation coefficients	$.90 > r > .30$	$.90 > r > .30$
Outliers	None	None

The above results indicate that it was suitable to use a principal component analysis with Varimax rotation³³ on these data. The results are presented in Table 8.3:

³³ Field (2005) claimed that 'the interpretability of factors can be improved through rotation' (p. 3). There are two main types of rotations: (a) orthogonal (e.g., Varimax) rotation, which should be applied with uncorrelated factors; (b) oblique (e.g., direct oblimin and promax) rotation, which should be used with correlated factors. (Field, 2005)

Various rotations have been used in language anxiety research. For example, Varimax rotation was used in Aida (1994) and Matsude and Gobel (2004), whereas direct oblimin rotation was applied in Tóth (2008) and promax rotation in Le (2004). Since no particular method is generally preferred in the field, according to Field's (2005) recommendation, Varimax rotation was used in the present study.

Table 8.3 *Rotated component matrix: a six-factor solution for classroom-based anxiety (the 2st test)*

Item description	Factors loading						h ²
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	
Feeling uncomfortable when giving an oral presentation	.743 ^{***}						.673
Getting nervous so forgetting things already known	.655 ^{***}						.491
Worrying about being laughed by other students when speaking up	.630 ^{**}						.545
Feeling embarrassed when volunteering answers	.598 [*]						.492
Being panicked when saying something in English without preparation	.543 [*]						.517
Feeling unsure when taking part in a dialogue in front of the class	.530 [*]						.496
Feeling heart pounding when knowing to be called to answer questions	.526 [*]	.522 [*]					.648
Feeling nervous when responding to questions	.480 [*]	.398					.557
Feeling more nervous in English classes than in other classes		.788 ^{***}					.692
Feeling nervous on the way to English classes		.747 ^{***}					.601
feeling nervous in English classes		.696 ^{***}					.684
Feeling self-conscious when speaking English in front of other students	.325	.564 [*]	.329		.364		.677
Avoiding formally speaking English in front of the whole class.	.352	.480 [*]			.309		.515
Always thinking that other students are better at learning English than I am			.846 ^{**}				.774
Always thinking others speak better English than I do	.314		.699 ^{***}				.643
Feeling nervous when taking part in group discussion		.380	.534 [*]			-.361	.601
Feel nervous when contributing to a whole class discussion		.394	.495 [*]			-.481 [*]	.669
Worrying about being unable to understand what the teacher is teaching				.829 ^{***}			.706
Worry about being unable to understand all the words the teacher has spoken				.793 ^{***}			.675
Worrying about getting left behind because English classes moved so quickly			.432 [*]	.522 [*]			.607
Worrying about making mistakes			.318	.419 [*]	.348		.513
Being afraid of being continually corrected by the teacher					.756 ^{***}		.649
Feeling overwhelmed by learning grammar and rules						.680 ^{***}	.563
Initial Eigenvalues	7.526	1.734	1.304	1.250	1.140	1.034	
Total % of variance	32.720	7.539	5.668	5.435	4.955	4.496	
% of the total variance accounted for by the solution			60.812				

Note. ** = high loading (>0.6), including very high loadings (>0.8),

* = appreciable loading (0.4-0.6).

The figures highlighted in grey show a general pattern of the EFA results.

The figures highlighted in yellow are the most important, and are specifically explained in the following texts.

Table 8.3 shows a six-factor solution, with the Eigenvalues for these six factors all greater than 1.³⁴ This solution was evaluated from two points: (a) the total variance accounted for by the solution was 60.8%, suggesting that this solution was good; (b) the communalities of 20 out of the 23 items were greater than 0.5, suggesting that this solution represented most of the items to a reasonable level. Although the communalities of the 2nd, 4th and 6th items (highlighted in yellow) were less than 0.5 (0.491, 0.492, and 0.496, respectively), these three were retained because of the relatively high loadings they provided for Factor I (0.655, 0.598, and 0.530, respectively).

In the solution, Factor I accounted for over half of the total variance (i.e., 32.7% of out of the 60.8%), indicating that it was the most important component of classroom-based anxiety and was much more important than the other factors. Factor II accounted for 7.5%. Except Factors I and II, the contribution of the others was fairly similar: Factors III, VI, V and VI accounting for 5.7%, 5.4%, 5.0% and 4.5%, respectively. This indicates that they were not main components of classroom-based anxiety.

Each factor in this solution is explained further by firstly pointing out the number of the items with acceptable loadings (>0.3), secondly presenting the items with high (>0.6) or appreciable loadings (0.4-0.6), thirdly discussing the common features shared amongst them, and finally labelling the factor based on these features.

³⁴ The rotation converged in 8 iterations.

1.2.1 Factor I

Factor I received acceptable loadings from 11 out of the 23 items. The items with high or appreciable loadings are presented in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4 *Items with high or appreciable loadings on Factor I*³⁵

Description of the item statement	Loading
Feeling uncomfortable when giving an oral presentation	.743**
Getting nervous so forgetting things already know	.655**
Worrying about being laughed by other students when speaking up	.630**
Feeling embarrassed to volunteer answers	.598*
Being panicked when saying something in English without preparation	.543*
Feeling unsure when I take part in a dialogue in front of the class	.530*
Feeling heart pounding when knowing to be called to answer questions	.526*
Feeling nervous when responding to questions	.480*

In Table 8.4, all of the item statements were indicative of anxiety in class. Most of them were reflective of anxiety in English speaking, except for the 2nd and 3rd statements. The former one described the cognitive effects of anxiety, and the latter one focused on the participants' anxiety reactions to negative comments from other students. Therefore, Factor I was labelled as *In-class anxiety* mainly with *speaking-orientated anxiety*.

³⁵ Items are listed in descending order according to their loading values. This rule also applies to subsequent tables in this chapter.

1.2.2 Factor II

Factor II received acceptable loadings from 9 out of the 23 items. The items with high appreciable loadings are presented in Table 8.5.

Table 8.5 *Items with high or appreciable loadings on Factor II*

Description of the item statement	Loading
Feeling more nervous in English class than in other classes	.788**
Feeling nervous on the way to English class	.747**
Feeling nervous in English classes in general	.696**
Feeling self-conscious when speaking English in front of other students	.564*
Feeling heart pounding when known to be called on	.522*
Avoiding formally speaking English in front of the whole class	.480*

The first three item statements focused on the participants' anxious feeling with regard to English classes in general. The last three item were indicative of the anxiety which they experienced in relation to English speaking in class. Factor II was labelled as *classes-related anxiety* (with some reflection on speaking-orientated anxiety), based on their common features of the first three items, since they provided much higher loadings on this factor than the other items.

1.2.3 Factor III

Factor III received acceptable loadings from 7 out the 23 items. Table 8.6 presents the items with high or appreciable loadings.

Table 8.6 *Items with high or appreciable loadings on Factor III*

Description of the item statement	Loading
Always thinking that other students are better at English learning than I am	.846**
Always thinking others speak better English than I do	.699**
Feeling nervous when taking part in group discussion	.534*
Feeling nervous when contributing to a whole class discussion	.495*
Worrying about getting left behind because English classes moved so quickly	.432*

The first two item statements focused on the participants' negative comparative self-evaluation in learning and speaking English respectively. It is possible that the participants felt nervous during group discussions (the 3rd statement) or whole class discussions (the 4th statement), because they thought their English was not as good as others. Factor III was labelled as *negative comparative self-evaluation* based on the first two items, since they much more highly loaded on this factor than the other items. Furthermore, this also supports Horwitz, Horwtiz, and Cope's (1986) argument that 'anxious students also fear being less competent than other students...' (p. 130).

1.2.4 Factor IV

Factor IV received acceptable loadings from 4 out of the 23 items. Table 8.7 presents the items with high or appreciable loadings.

Table 8.7 *Items with high or appreciable loadings on Factor IV*

Description of the item statement	Loading
Worry about not understanding what the teacher is teaching	.829**
Worry about unable to understand some words the teacher has spoken	.793**
Worrying about getting left behind because English classes moving so quickly	.522*
Worrying about making mistakes	.419*

The common factor shared by all of the above item statements was comprehension. The first two statements focused on the participants' worry with regard to English comprehension. The penultimate one described the worry which the participants experienced when they thought that they were being left behind, where a lack of understanding could prevent them from following the class contents. The last statement was indicative of the anxiety which the participants experienced with regard to making mistakes, where the lack of understanding could also result in making mistakes. Therefore, Factor IV was labelled as *comprehension-related anxiety*.

1.2.5 Factor V

Factor V received acceptable loadings from 4 out of the 23 items, with only one high loading, as presented below.

Table 8.8 *Item with the high loading on Factor V*

Description of the item statement	Loading
Being afraid of being continually corrected by the teacher	.756**

Factor V was labelled as *fear of negative evaluation by teachers*, since the item statement above was indicative of the participants' fear with regard to their teachers' negative comments.

1.2.6 Factor VI

Factor VI received acceptable loadings from 3 out of the 23 items, with one high loading, as presented below:

Table 8.9 *Item with the high loading on Factor VI*

Description of the item statement	Loading
Feeling overwhelmed by learning grammar and rules	.680**

Therefore, Factor VI was named as fear of learning English grammar and rules.

1.3 Summary

The 23 items used to measure classroom-based anxiety were analysed using the EFA. This analysis provided a six-factor solution explaining approximately 61% of the total variance: Factor I accounted for over half of the total variance, indicating that it was

vital. Except for Factors I and II, the contributions of the others was fairly similar, with Factor III accounting for the most and Factor VI the least.

Table 8.10 presents the labels of these factors and relevant items with the highest loadings.

Table 8.10 *Factors labels and relevant items with the highest loadings*

Factor label	Item with the highest loading
In-class anxiety (mainly with speaking-orientated anxiety)	Feeling uncomfortable when giving an oral presentation
Classes-related anxiety	Feeling more nervous in English class than in other classes
	Feeling nervous on my way to English classes
Negative comparative self-evaluation	Always thinking that others are better at English learning than I am
Comprehension-related anxiety	Worrying about not understanding what the teacher is teaching
	Worrying about unable to understanding some words the teacher has spoken
Fear of negative evaluation by teachers	Being afraid of being continually corrected by the teacher
Fear of learning English grammar and rules	Feeling overwhelmed by learning English grammar and rules

Therefore, the model of classroom-based anxiety is illustrated in Figure 8.1:

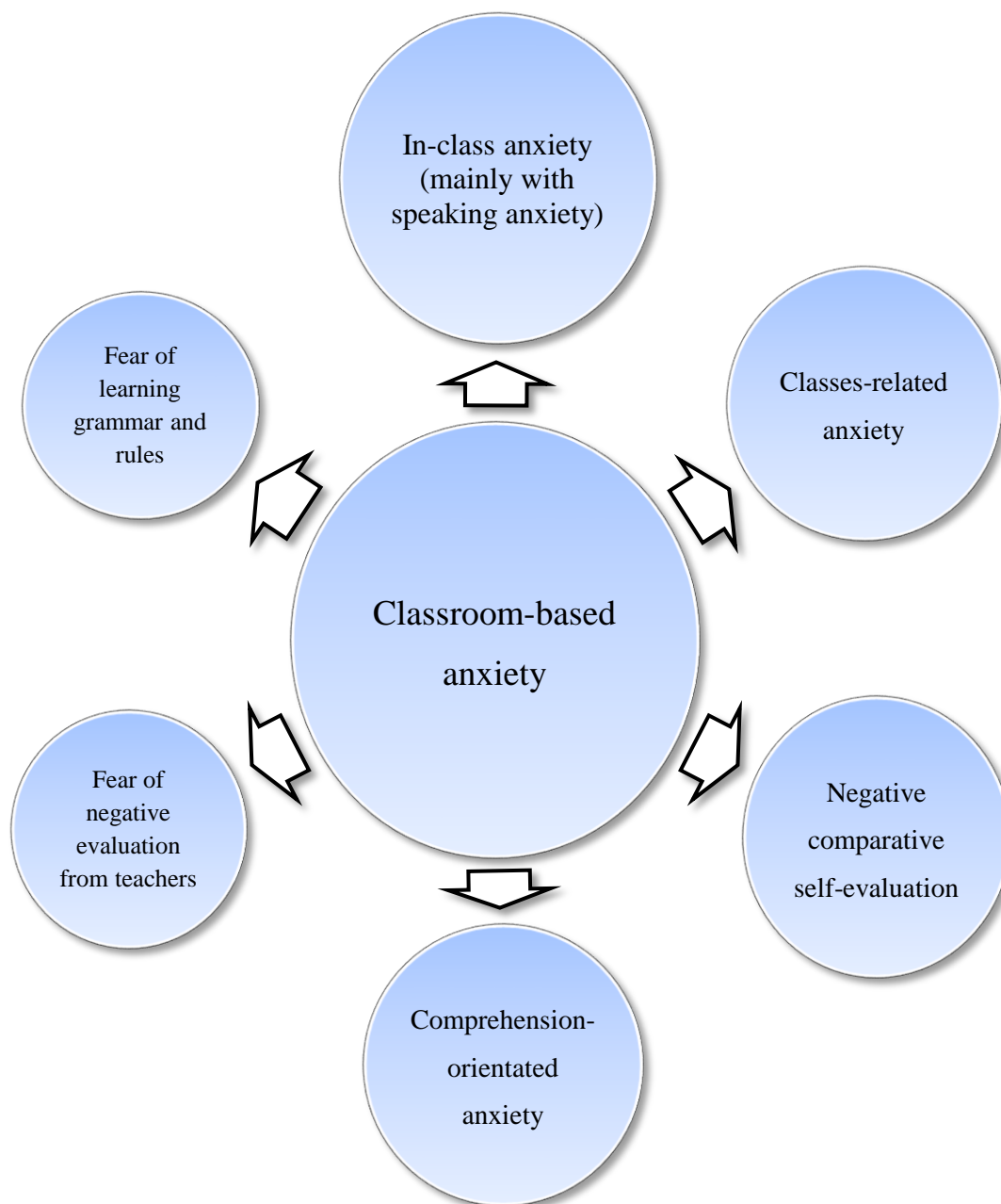


Figure 8.1 Model of classroom-based anxiety

To summarise, a large proportion of classroom-based anxiety was formed by speaking anxiety in class, suggesting that the participants were more likely to experience anxiety in speaking than in other situations.

2 Evaluation of the Construct of Classroom-based Anxiety

2.1 Comparison of the construct and model of anxiety in the present study

This section compares the model of classroom-based anxiety suggested by the EFA results and the construct of classroom-based anxiety developed in literature review and methodology chapters (see Chapters 3 and 5), as illustrated in Figure 8.2.

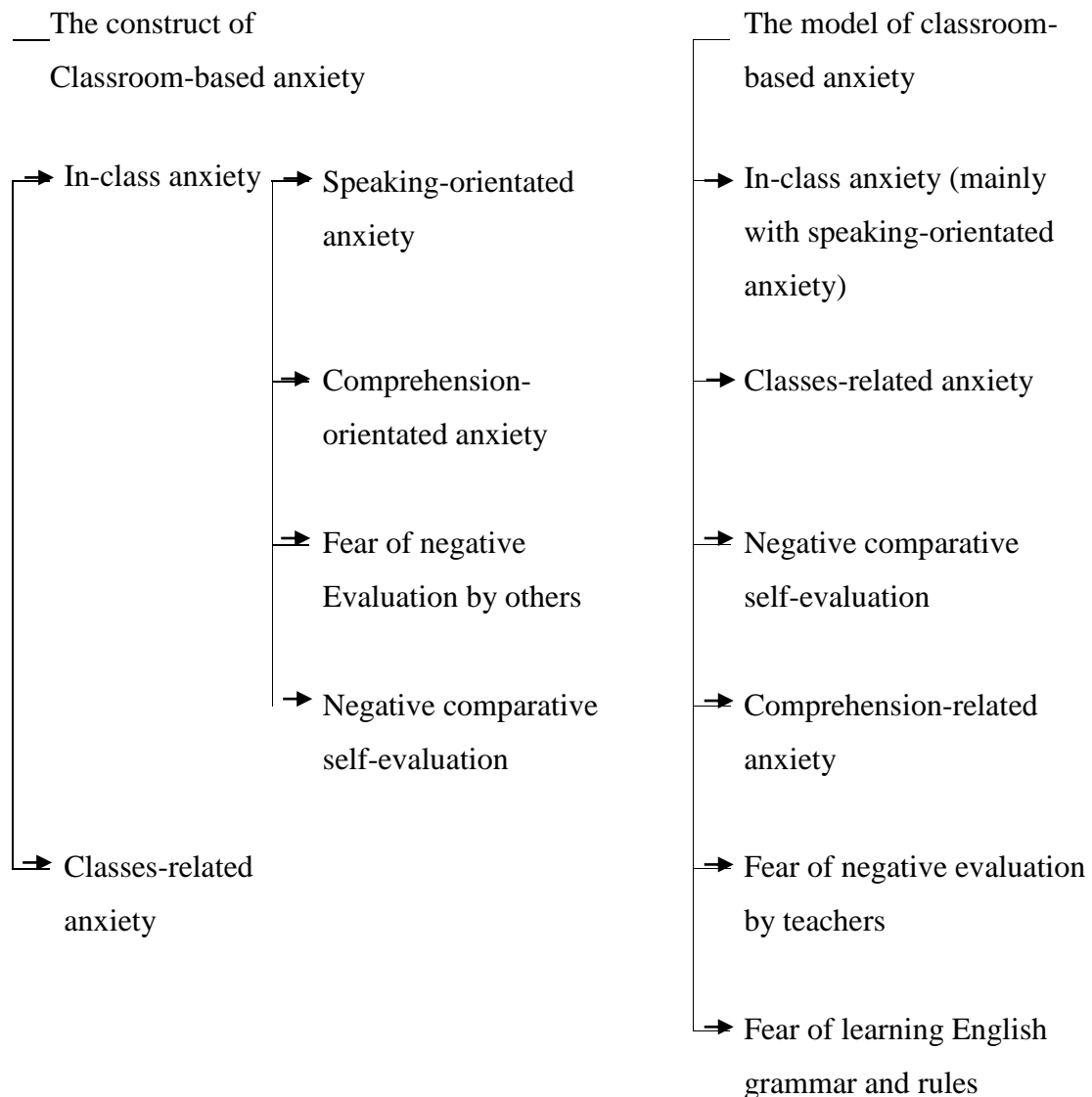


Figure 8.2 Construct of anxiety developed in literature review and methodology chapters and the model of anxiety suggested by the EFA results

There are some similarity and difference between these two, as presented below:

Similarity:

- In-class anxiety is an underlying component, with the large proportion of it formed by speaking anxiety.
- The construct of anxiety consists of two sub-categories: in-class anxiety and classes-related anxiety. In the model of anxiety, in-class anxiety and classes-related anxiety were the most important components.
- The other similar components included in them are negative comparative self-evaluation, comprehension- orientated anxiety, and negative evaluation by teachers.

Difference:

- Fear of learning English grammar and rules was found to be a component in the anxiety model; however, it was not proposed to be a component in the anxiety construct.
- In the anxiety construct, fear of negative evaluations from others was deemed as a component, whereas in the anxiety model, only negative evaluation by teachers was discovered to be a component. This supports to the previous argument that it might not be suitable to place both variables into the same category (see Chapter 7 Section 3).

It seems that these two structures have more similarity than difference, suggesting that the construct of classroom-based anxiety developed in literature review and methodology chapters is generally supported by the findings in this chapter. In other words, the model of classroom-based anxiety suggested by the EFA results captures most of the features of the construct of classroom-based anxiety developed in literature review and methodology chapters. Furthermore, this consistency also suggests that the scale used to measure classroom-based anxiety was valid.

2.2 Comparison of the anxiety models in the present study with that in previous studies

This section compares of the model of classroom-based anxiety suggested by the EFA results in the present study with that in Aida (1994) and in Tóth (2008). Table 8.11 presents the reliability of relevant anxiety scales in these three studies.

Table 8.11 *Reliability of the anxiety scales in Aida (1994), Tóth (2008) and the present study*

Study	Scale of anxiety	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Aida (1994)	The FLCAS (English)	33	.94
Tóth (2008)	The FLCAS (Hungarian)	33	.93
The present study	The scale of classroom-based anxiety (Chinese)	23	.90

As shown in Table 8.11, all the Cronbach's Alpha scores were 0.9 or above, indicating that these scales were reliable. This also implies that these three studies were well conducted.

Figure 8.3 presents the anxiety models suggested by the EFA results in these studies.

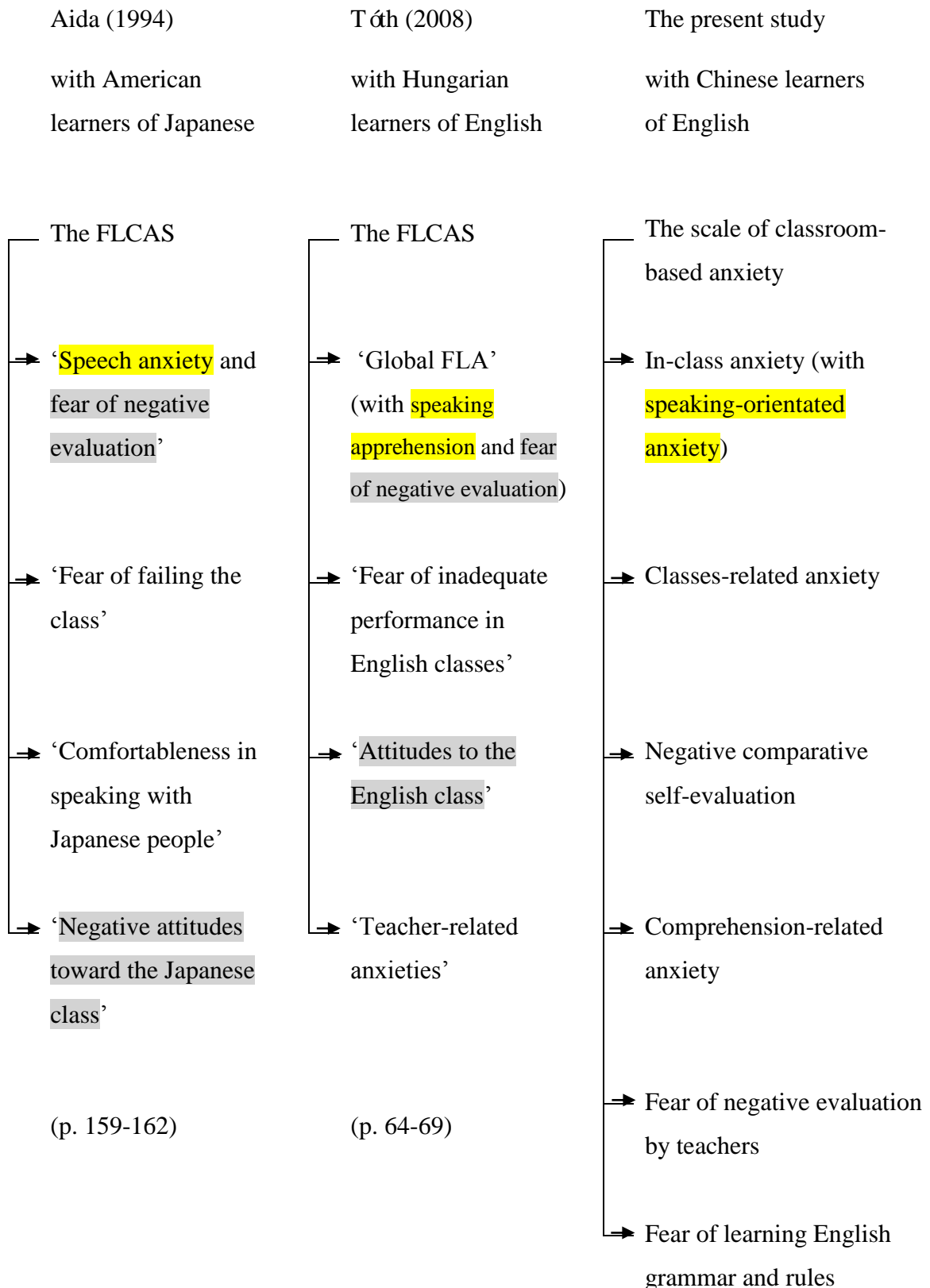


Figure 8.3 Anxiety models in Aida (1994), Tóth (2008) and the present study

Notes. The same component found in the three studies was highlighted in yellow. The same components found in the two studies were highlighted in grey.

As illustrated in Figure 8.3 above, speaking anxiety as the most important component was found in all three anxiety models. However, fear of negative evaluation was only found in Aida (1994) and Tóth (2008), but not in the present study. Specifically, the present study only found fear of negative evaluation by teachers to be a component, whereas fear of negative evaluation by other students was not.

The other components in these models were different. This might be caused by various reasons. For example, attitude towards L2 class was found to be a component in Aida (1994) and in Tóth (2008), because the FLCAS includes items used to measure attitude (see Chapter 3 Section 2.2.1.4). However, the classroom-based anxiety scale developed in the present study did not include any attitude items.

It is also possible that the complexity of the EFA lead to various results. It is likely that the anxiety model discovered in one study is different from others to some extent, since various standards are used to evaluate the quality of EFA results.

In addition, apart from Aida (1994) and Tóth (2008), other studies have also examined anxiety scales using the EFA (e.g., Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Kim, 2000; Le, 2004; Matsude & Gobel, 2004). A comparison of the results in these studies shows that only speaking anxiety has consistently been found as a component in anxiety, suggesting its importance in anxiety.

2.3 Comparison of the anxiety components in the present study with that offered by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986)

The components of classroom-based anxiety suggested by the EFA results in the present study is compared with those introduced in Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), as pretend in Table 8.12.

Table 8.12 *Anxiety components in Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) and in the present study*

Study	Components
Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986)	<p>Communication apprehension</p> <p>Fear of negative evaluation</p> <p>Test anxiety</p> <p>Fear of error-making</p> <p>Anxiety with regard to L2-classes in general</p> <p>Anxiety with regard to comprehending L2 input</p> <p>Fear of being less competent than peers</p>
The present study	<p>In-class anxiety (mainly with speaking-orientated anxiety)</p> <p>Classes-related anxiety</p> <p>Negative comparative self-evaluation</p> <p>Comprehension-related anxiety</p> <p>Fear of negative evaluation by teachers</p> <p>Fear of learning English grammar and rules</p>

Note. The same components were highlighted in grey.

As shown in Table 8.12, most of the other anxiety components suggested in the present study matches those introduced in Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986). There are two points worth mentioning:

According to Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), communication apprehension is the most important component (see Chapter 2 Section 1 for further discussion). Similarly, the present study also found speaking-orientated anxiety to be an underlying component.

The present study only found fear of negative evaluation by teachers to be a component, but not fear of negative evaluation by peers, whereas Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) argued that both concepts were important in anxiety.

This difference may be caused by the way how anxiety components were obtained. In the present study, the anxiety components were suggested by the EFA results. However, this was not the case in Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), in which the anxiety components might be proposed by analysing the FLCAS item statements.

3 Exploratory Factor Analysis Results Related to Anxiety out of Class

In order to build a model of anxiety out of class, the EFA was initially applied to the 13 items used to measure anxiety out of class with a sample size of 177. However, the item ‘feeling uncomfortable when describing an object’ had to be eliminated due to its very low communality value. Therefore, a subsequent EFA was applied on the remaining 12 items. Relevant data fulfilled the major EFA assumptions fulfilled, as presented in Table 8.13.

Table 8.13 *Requirement for the major EFA assumptions and relevant results*

	Requirement	Results in the present study
KMO	> .60	.895
On-diagonal values	> .60	> .80
Barlett’s test of Sphericity	$p > .05$	$\chi^2 (66) = 647.848, p = .000$
Correlation coefficients	$.90 > r > .30$	$.90 > r > .30$
Outliers	None	None

The above results indicate that it was appropriate to conduct the EFA.

3.1 Results

Table 8.13 presents the results obtained from a principal component analysis with Varimax rotation.

Table 8.14 Rotated component matrix: a three-factor solution for anxiety out of class

Description of the item statement	Factor loadings			h ²
	I	II	III	
<i>Feeling anxious when...</i>				
talking to a native speaker of English	.738**			.563
joining a conversation among English people	.707**			.594
speaking English on the phone	.691**			.562
making an oral request at a bank	.691**			.565
talking to an administrator at the university	.589*	.466*		.582
having conversations with the teacher	.563*		.324	.474
ordering a meal in an English restaurant	.546*	.494*		.617
asking for street directions		.753**		.623
communicating with a salesman in a shop		.742**		.619
being asked a question by an unknown person	.396	.531*		.444
chatting with friends			.781**	.700
communicating with foreigners		.475*	.620**	.613
Initial Eigenvalues	4.845	1.097	1.012	
Total % of variance	40.375	9.142	8.437	
% of the total variance accounted for by the solution			57.954	

Note. ** = high loading (>0.6),

* = appreciable loading (0.4-0.6).

The figures highlighted in grey show a general pattern of the EFA results.

The figures highlighted in yellow are the most important, and are specifically explained in the following texts.

Table 8.14 shows a three-factor solution, with the Eigenvalues greater than 1.³⁶ This solution was evaluated from two points: (a) the total variance of 58.0% was accounted for by this solution, suggesting that it was good; (b) the communalities of 10 out of the 12 items were greater than 0.5, suggesting that this solution represented most of the items to a reasonable level. Although the communalities of highlighted two items were less than 0.5 (0.474 and 0.444), these two were retained because of the relatively high loadings they provided for Factors I (0.563) and II (0.531) respectively.

In the solution, Factor I accounted for over half of the total variance (i.e., 40.4% of out of the 58.0%), indicating that it was the most important component of anxiety out of class and was much more important than the other factors. Factors II and III accounted for 9.1% and 8.4% respectively. These three factors are specified further in the following sections.

³⁶ The rotation converged in 8 iterations.

3.1.1 Factor I

Factor I received acceptable loadings from 8 out of the 12 items. The items with high or appreciable loadings are presented in Table 8.15.

Table 8.15 *Items with high or appreciable loadings on Factor I*

Description of the item statement	Loading
<i>Feeling anxious when...</i>	
talking to a native English speaker	.738 ^{**}
joining a conversation among English people	.707 ^{**}
making an oral request at a bank	.691 ^{**}
speaking English on the phone	.691 ^{**}
talking to an administrator at the university	.589 [*]
having conversations with the teacher	.563 [*]
ordering a meal in an English restaurant	.546 [*]

Most of the item statements described the anxiety which the participants experienced when dealing with a relatively difficult task using English (e.g., speaking to a native English speaker or making), except the penultimate item. Factor I was labelled based on the common features shared by the first four items, as *anxiety experienced in handling difficult conversations*, since they provided much higher loadings than the other items.

3.1.2 Factor II

Factor II received acceptable loadings from 6 out of the 12 items. Table 8.14 presents the items with high or appreciable loadings.

Table 8.16 *Items with high or appreciable loadings on Factor II*

Description of the item statement	Loading
<i>Feeling anxious when...</i>	
asking for street directions	.753**
communicating with a salesman in a shop	.742**
being asked a question by an unknown person	.531*
ordering a meal in an English restaurant	.494*
communicating with foreigners	.475*
talking to an administrator at the university	.466*

The types of conversations described in most of the item statements were relatively easy to deal with and were frequently experienced (e.g., asking for directions). They were also routine conversations. Therefore, Factor II was named as *anxiety in routine conversations*.

3.1.3 Factor III

Factor III received acceptable loadings from 3 out of the 12 loadings, including high loadings from two items, as presented below:

Table 8.17 *Items with high or appreciable loadings on Factor III*

Item description	Loading
<i>Feeling anxious when...</i>	
chatting with friends	.781**
communicating with foreigners	.620**

Therefore, Factor III was labelled as anxiety in conversations with friends or foreigners.

3.2 Summary

The EFA was used to analyse the 12 items used to measure anxiety out of class, showing a three-factor solution explaining approximately 58% of the total variance in them: Factor I accounted for most of the total variance (40% of out of the 58%), suggesting that it was vital. The contributions of the other two were relatively equal, with Factor II accounting for more than Factor III.

Table 8.18 presents the labels of these factors and relevant items with the highest loadings.

Table 8.18 Factor labels and relevant items with the highest loadings

Factor label	Items with the highest loading
	<i>Feel anxious when...</i>
Anxiety in handling difficult conversations	talking to a native English speaker joining a conversation among English people making an oral request at a bank speaking English on the phone
Anxiety in routine conversations	asking for street directions communicating with a salesman in a shop
Anxiety in conversations with friends or foreigners	having a conversation with a friend communicating with foreigners

Therefore, the model of anxiety out of class is illustrated in Figure 8.4.

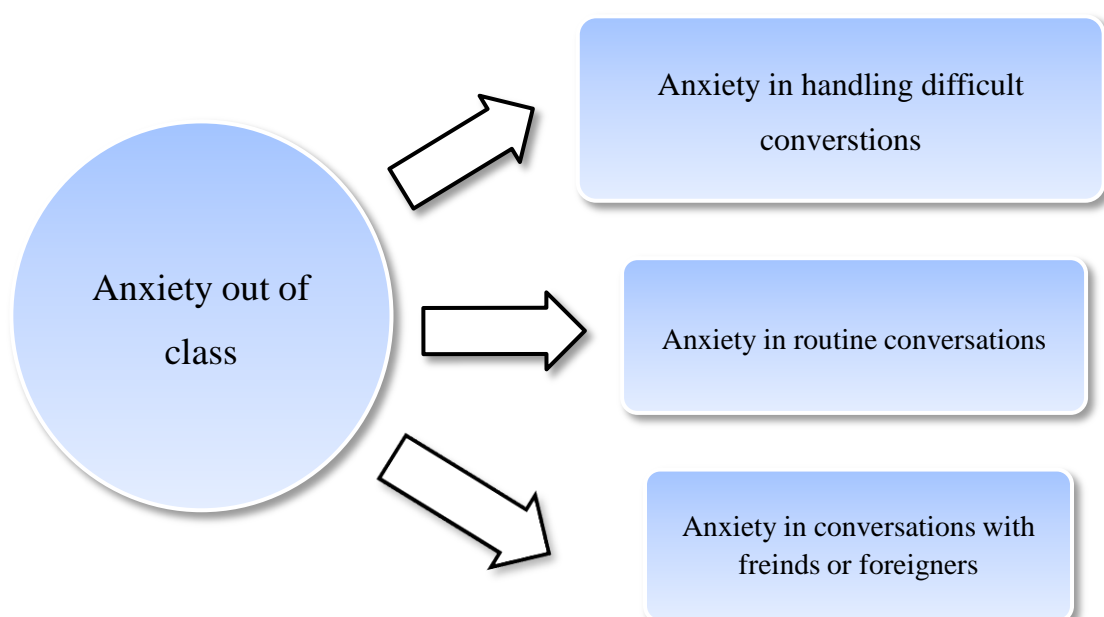


Figure 8.4 Model of anxiety out of class

To summarise, a large proportion of anxiety out of class were formed by anxiety in handling difficult conversations, suggesting that The participants experienced anxiety more often in handling difficult tasks than in other conversational situations.

4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results Related to Language Anxiety

In order to evaluate the model of language anxiety proposed in the present study, that is, language anxiety is a combination of classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class (see Chapter 2 Section 1), a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used. This statistical technique is used to verify hypothesised variable construct. The data in the present study fulfilled the major assumptions of CFA related to sample size, missing data, normality³⁷, linearity, outliers and singularity.³⁸

Therefore, the data were analysed using maximum likelihood estimation. The results are presented in Figure 8.5 and Table 8.19.

³⁷ Normality is a complicated issue. In Chapter 7, the normality of the data was analysed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Together with Q-Q plot, the data on both classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class were determined to be non-normally distributed (see Chapter 7 Section 4). However, before applying the CFA, these data were checked again using skewness and kurtosis. Since none of them were either significantly skewed or highly kurtotic, they were considered to be suitable for the CFA.

³⁸ Various tests were applied on the data in order to assess how well they fulfil these assumptions. Since they were too complicated to be explained, and were also not a focus of the present study, they were not reported in detail in this thesis. The results are available upon request.

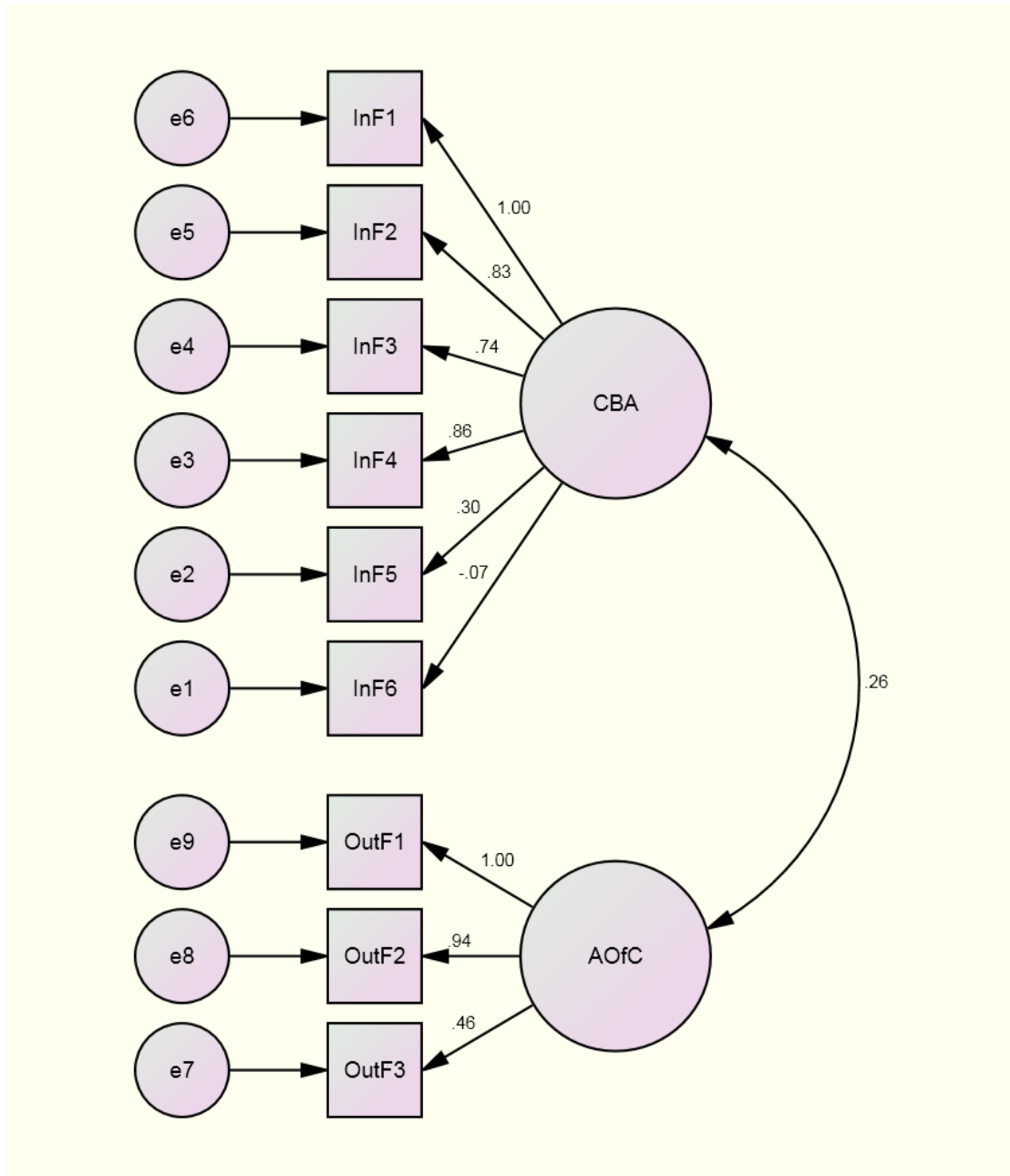


Figure 8.5 CFA results: a two-factor model of language anxiety

Note. CBA = classroom-based anxiety, AOFC = anxiety out of class, InF1 = in-class anxiety (mainly with speaking-orientated anxiety), InF2 = classes-related anxiety, InF3 = negative comparative self-evaluation, InF4 = comprehension-related anxiety, InF5 = fear of negative evaluation by teachers, InF6 = fear of learning English grammar and rules, OutF1 = anxiety in handling difficult conversations, OutF2 = anxiety in routine conversations, OutF3 = anxiety in conversations with friends or foreigners.

Table 8.19 summarises the fit indices of this model.

Table 8.19 *Selected fit indices for the two-factor CFA of language anxiety*

Index	Current level	Required level	A good fit
χ^2	$p = .998^a$	$p > .05$	$p > .01$
χ^2/ df	.376	< 3.00	– ^b
CFI	1.000	> .90	> .95
RMSEA	.000	< .05	0
GFI	.988	> .90	> .95
AGFI	.979	> .90	> .95
NFI	.914	> .90	> .95

Note. χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, CFI = comparative fit index, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation, GFI = goodness of fit index, AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index, NFI = normal fit index.

^a. This might be caused by a small sample size.

^b. Various standards were given from different books. The researcher was unable to find the most appropriate one.

The above results indicate that the model (as shown in Figure 8.5) is acceptable, suggesting that the conceptualisation of language anxiety (i.e., a combination of both classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety) proposed in the present study captures the characteristics of the participants' anxiety in the U.K. as a L2-dominated environment.

Figure 8.5 indicates several points: (a) both classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class are positively interrelated. (b) The first four factors (i.e., in-class anxiety, classes-related anxiety, negative comparative self-evaluation, comprehension-related anxiety) contribute much more to classroom-based anxiety than the last two factors (i.e., fear of negative evaluation by teachers and fear of learning English grammar and rules), with the first factor (in-class anxiety mainly with speaking-orientated anxiety) contributes the most. This suggests a need to reconsider having fear of negative

evaluation by teachers as a main component in the construct of classroom-based anxiety in theory. (c) Out-of-class anxiety is more contributed by the first two factors (i.e., anxiety in handling difficult conversations and anxiety in routine conversations) than the last factor (anxiety in conversations with friends or foreigners). It seems that out-of-class anxiety might often be experienced by the participants in handling conversations with specific purposes. Furthermore, the findings above are consistent with what were found previously (see Chapter 7 Section 4 and Chapter 8 Sections 1-3).

5 General Discussion

5.1 Model of classroom-based anxiety

The present study found a six-component model for classroom-based anxiety. *In-class anxiety* (with *speaking-orientated anxiety*) was identified to be the most important component, consistent with findings from various studies (e.g., Aida, 1994; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Matsude & Gobel, 2004; Tóth, 2008). *Classes-related anxiety* was found to be the second important component. However, this was not supported by other studies (Aida, 1994; Kim, 2000; Tóth, 2008). Instead, some of these studies (Aida, 1994; Tóth, 2008) suggested fear of negative evaluation to be the second important component, consistent with the foreign language anxiety concept introduced by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) (Chapter 3 Section 2.2.1.3).

However, in the present study, only fear of negative evaluation by teachers was found to be a component, but not fear of negative evaluation by peers. Furthermore, the CFA results suggest that it might not be suitable to consider fear of negative evaluation by others (including both fear of negative evaluation by teachers and peers) as a main component in classroom-based anxiety construct in theory.

By comparing the anxiety models offered in the present study, in Aida (1994) and in Tóth (2008) with the construct of classroom-based anxiety (as illustrated in Figures 8.2 and 8.3), it seems that the anxiety model in the present study best captures the

construct of classroom-based anxiety, and the anxiety model in Tóth (2008) captures more features of the construct of in-class anxiety than the other models.

The difference the anxiety models in Aida (1994) and that in Tóth (2008) suggests that the FLCAS in Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) was not created precisely based on the conceptualisation of anxiety, supporting the argument made in Chapter 3 Section 2.2.1.4.

In summary, the model suggested by the EFA results is similar to the construct of classroom-based anxiety. However, the fact that the present study did not find fear of negative evaluation by peers to be a component may raise a question on whether it is appropriate or not to consider this as an element in classroom-based anxiety construct in theory.

5.2 Model of anxiety out of class

The present study found a three-component model for anxiety out of class. These components were named as (a) anxiety experienced in handling difficult conversations, (b) anxiety experienced in routine conversations, and (c) anxiety experienced in conversations with friends or foreigners.

This suggests that the anxiety which the participants experienced in handling difficult conversations was distinctive from the anxiety which they experienced in routine conversations. This also implies that these two types of anxiety were caused by different sources. For example, it is possible that the former type of anxiety more often occurs when unfamiliar conversational contexts, topics were involved, whereas the latter anxiety might relate more to low proficiency levels.

Anxiety with regard to speaking to a friend or foreigner was different from the two types of anxiety above. For example, it seems relatively easy for the participants to communicate with a friend or foreigner regardless of conditions (e.g., conversational contexts, topics, or English proficiency).

Therefore, it seems reasonable to argue that the participants' anxiety out of class was mainly affected by conversational contexts and the people who they were communicating with.

Although out-of-class anxiety has been investigated by some empirical studies (e.g., Woodrow, 2006a), little research has been conducted in order to examine the construct of this variable, and no published studies have used the EFA for it. Therefore, future studies are needed in order to evaluate the model of out-of-class developed in the present study using different L2 learners and contexts.

6 Summary

The following research questions have been addressed in this chapter:

RQ3: What is the validity of the measure of language anxiety developed in this study?

RQ4: Which model of language anxiety best captures this construct?

The fact that the construct developed in literature review and methodology chapters has more similarity than difference with the model built from the EFA results suggests the scale of classroom-based anxiety is valid.

The construct of classroom-based anxiety is best captured by the model suggested by the EFA results, whereas further studies are needed in order to evaluate the model of out-of-class anxiety in different L2 contexts.

The proposed model of language anxiety was assessed using the CFA, and the results indicate that it is appropriate to use this model to describe the participants' anxiety in the present study. This model of language is illustrated below:

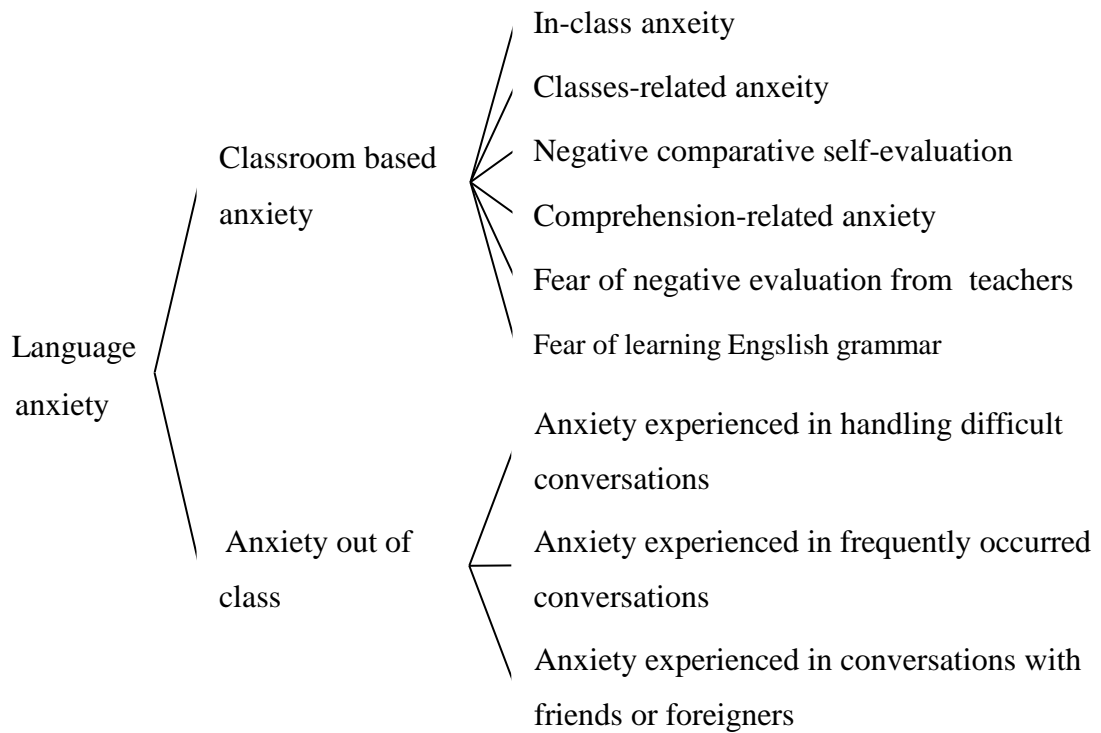


Figure 8.1 Model of language anxiety

The following chapter examines the relationship between language anxiety and other learner variables.

Chapter Nine

Chapter Nine

Relationship between Language Anxiety and Selected Learner Variables

This chapter addresses the following research questions, where language anxiety includes both classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety.

- RQ5: What is the relationship between language anxiety and English proficiency?
- RQ6: What is the relationship between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class?
- RQ7: What is the relationship between language anxiety and language preferences when learning and using English?
- RQ8: What is the relationship between language anxiety and selected demographic variables?
- RQ9: What is the relationship between language anxiety and second language motivation, attitude towards English learning, and self-confidence in learning and using English?

The chapter includes eight sections: Sections 1-5 present the results for the above research questions respectively, followed by a discussion in Sections 6-7 and a summary in Section 8.

Since the values of most of the variables were found to be non-normally distributed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, only non-parametric tests could be used for the analyses presented in this chapter (e.g., Spearman's rank correlations, Kruskal-Wallis analyses and Mann-Whitney tests) (see Chapter 5 Section 4.1 for further details).

The data were collected from 177 participants. Wherever missing values appear, the specific sample sizes are provided.

1 English Proficiency

This section examines the relationship between language anxiety (both classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety) and English proficiency, including actual English proficiency measured by IELTS scores and perceived English proficiency measured by self-ratings. The results are presented in Table 9.1:

Table 9.1 *Correlations between language anxiety and proficiency*

Proficiency variable	Classroom-based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
IELTS scores: overall	-.294**	-.255**
speaking	-.274**	-.248**
listening	-.213*	-.198*
reading	-.182*	-.179*
writing	-.133	-.143
Self-ratings: overall	-.443**	-.452**
speaking	-.474**	-.460**
reading	-.307**	-.409**
listening	-.192*	-.272**
writing	-.180*	-.189*

Note. $N = 124$.

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

The most important figures are highlighted in yellow.

Language anxiety (both classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class) was found to be significantly negatively correlated with proficiency scores (both IELTS scores

and self-ratings) in overall, speaking, listening and reading scores. This suggests that those participants with higher English proficiency generally felt less anxious both in and out of class. The inverse relationship found between classroom-based anxiety and proficiency scores is consistent with the findings of numerous studies (e.g., MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Cheng, 2001; Kitano, 2001; MacIntyre, Clément, & Donovan, 2002; Perales & Cenoz, 2002; Liu, 2006; Liu & Jackson, 2007).

No significant correlations were found between language anxiety and IELTS writing scores. This finding seems to contradict those of Cheng, Horwitz, and Schallert (1999), who reported an inverse relationship between classroom-based anxiety and writing course grades (see Section 6 below for further discussion).

The correlations between language anxiety and self-ratings were stronger than those between language anxiety and IELTS scores for overall, speaking, reading and writing. This suggests that language anxiety was more strongly related to perceived proficiency than to actual proficiency, as found in other studies (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Cheng, 2002).

The correlations between language anxiety and overall proficiency scores were similar to those between language anxiety and speaking proficiency scores. This suggests that language anxiety was strongly associated with L2 speaking, as pointed out in other studies (e.g., Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 2001).

These two pairs of correlations were slightly stronger than those between language anxiety and listening, reading and writing scores, suggesting that language anxiety might be more closely associated with overall English and speaking skills than with listening, reading and writing, consistent with the finding above. The finding that classroom-based anxiety was more strongly correlated with speaking than with listening, reading or writing is consistent with the findings of many studies (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner 1991b; Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 2001). Furthermore, since different relationships were found between anxiety and each language-skill-specific

proficiency, it seems more appropriate to measure anxiety within each specific skill-related context, as argued in some studies (e.g., Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999; Elkhafaifi, 2005).

Most IELTS scores were slightly more strongly correlated with classroom-based than with out-of-class anxiety, whereas most self-ratings were slightly more strongly correlated with out-of-class than with classroom-based anxiety. This suggests that actual proficiency was slightly more strongly linked with in class than with out of class anxiety, but that the opposite was the case for perceived proficiency.

Table 9.2 presents the correlations between speaking-related anxiety and proficiency variables.

Table 9.2 *Correlations between anxiety and proficiency in speaking*

Proficiency variable	Speaking-orientated anxiety in class
IELTS scores: overall	-.224 ^{**}
speaking	-.309 ^{**}
listening	-.177 [*]
Self-ratings: overall	-.415 ^{**}
speaking	-.512 ^{**}
listening	-.170 [*]

Note. $N = 124$.

^{**}. $p < .01$, ^{*}. $p < .05$

Three of the results presented in Table 9.2 are important and thus worth mentioning: (a) all the correlation coefficients were found to be statistically significantly negative ($p < .05$), indicating an inverse relationship between speaking-orientated anxiety in class and proficiency in overall, speaking and listening; (b) speaking anxiety was

more strongly related to self-ratings than to IELTS scores; (c) this anxiety variable was also related more closely to proficiency in speaking than in overall and listening, supporting the arguments that speaking anxiety should be measured in speaking contexts rather than in general contexts (e.g., Phillips, 1992). Furthermore, all of these findings are consistent with the findings presented in Table 9.1.

A significant negative correlation was found between IELTS speaking scores and levels of anxiety with regard to giving an oral presentation ($r = -.291, p < .01$), supporting Woodrow's (2006a) argument that '...the correlational data indicated that "giving an oral presentation" was the only anxiety variable that was not significantly correlated with oral performance, [and] [t]his would be an interesting avenue for further research' (p. 322).

In summary, the present study found an inverse relationship between anxiety and proficiency. The other major findings are as follows:

- (1) Language anxiety was more strongly related to perceived proficiency than to actual proficiency;
- (2) Actual proficiency tended to be more strongly related to classroom-based anxiety than to out-of-class anxiety, whereas perceived proficiency tended to be more strongly related to out-of-class than to classroom-based anxiety;
- (3) The correlations between language anxiety and overall proficiency scores were similar to those between anxiety and speaking;
- (4) No correlation was found between language anxiety and IELTS writing scores;
- (5) Language anxiety is more strongly associated with speaking than with listening, reading and writing.

2 Exposure to English out of Class

In the section, the relationship between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class is examined. The results are presented in Table 9.3.

Table 9.3 *Correlations between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class*

	Classroom-based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
The amount of exposure to English out of class	-.288**	-.310**
The number of activities conducted using English	-.232**	-.167*

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Language anxiety (both classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety) was found to be significantly negatively correlated with the amount of exposure to English out of class and with the number of activities conducted using English. This suggests that the participants who felt more anxious were likely to conduct fewer activities using English or spend less time on English out of class.

Exposure to English out of class included the following variables: doing homework, conducting self-determined English learning, speaking English, listening to English (e.g., English songs), watching English films or TV channels, reading English materials, online-chatting with others, playing English online games, updating online blogs, and writing diaries.

The relationship between language anxiety and these variables³⁹ is presented in Table 9.4:

³⁹The present study also measured the length of time spent writing a diary and updating online blogs. Since only a few participants conducted these activities (13.0% and 10.2% respectively), the relationship between them and language anxiety was not investigated.

Table 9.4 *Correlations between language anxiety and exposure to English variables*

Skill(s) required	Variables of exposure to English out of class	Classroom based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Mixed	Time spent doing homework	.024	-.047
	learning English (self-determined)	-.149*	-.098
Speaking, or listening	speaking English	-.328**	-.382**
	listening to English (e.g., English songs)	-.109	-.124
	watching English films or TV channels	-.116	-.102
Reading and /or writing	chatting with others online	-.257**	-.237**
	reading English materials	-.181*	-.170*
	playing English online games	-.046	-.054

Language anxiety was found to be significantly negatively correlated only with the length of time spent speaking English and reading English materials, suggesting that the more time the participants spent speaking and reading English out of class, the less anxious they felt both in and out of class.

Language anxiety was also significantly negatively correlated with the time spent chatting with others online. Along with the fact that online chatting required the use of the participants' reading and writing skills (since they needed to exchange text-based messages instantaneously), this suggests that the more time they spent in English communication-based reading and writing, the less anxious they felt in and out of class.

Time spent conducting self-determined learning was found to be significantly negatively correlated with classroom-based anxiety ($r = -.149, p < .01$), but not with anxiety out of class ($p > .05$). This suggests that the more time the participants spent learning English out of class, the less anxious they felt in class.

No significant correlations were found between language anxiety and time spent doing homework, listening to English, watching English films or TV channels, and playing English online games. This implies that conducting these activities might offer little help to participants with high levels of anxiety.

To sum up, the present study found that the more English the participants were exposed to out of class every day, the less anxious they might feel both in and out of class, particularly in speaking.

3 Language Preferences

In the section, the relationship between language anxiety and language preferences when learning English out of class is examined. The results are presented in Tables 9.5-9.10.

Table 9.5 *Influence of using/not using English to assist English learning or reading on classroom-based anxiety*

Dependent variable: classroom-based anxiety					
Independent variable (group variable)	Option	Mean rank	Mann- Whitney U	Z	Asymp sig (p)
When learning new words, using English to explain them	Yes	76.04	2842.500	-2.679	.008
	No	96.93			
Using text books with English instructions for learning	Y	65.46	2105.500	-4.762	.000
	N	103.00			
When reading materials, using an English – English dictionary	Y	64.21	1558.000	-3.039	.002
	N	94.10			
When watching films, using English subtitles	Y	87.29	3541.000	-.398	.690
	N	90.43			

Note. N = 176.

Table 9.6 Influence of using/not using English to assist English learning or reading on anxiety out of class

Dependent variable: anxiety out of class					
Independent variable (grouping variable)	Groups	Mean rank	Mann- Whitney U	Z	Asymp sig (p)
When learning new words, using English to explain them	Y	74.01	2699.000	-3.104	.002
	N	98.30			
Using text books with English instructions for learning	Y	64.80	2060.500	-4.901	.000
	N	103.42			
When reading materials, using an English – English dictionary	Y	64.83	1578.500	-2.963	.003
	N	93.96			
When watching films, using English subtitles	Y	86.56	3463.000	-.636	.525
	N	91.57			

Note. N = 176.

As shown in Tables 9.5 and 9.6, using/not using English to explain new words, using/not using a text book with English instructions, or using/not using an English – English dictionary made significant differences to language anxiety (classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class) ($p < .01$). Language anxiety was found to be significantly different in those participants who used English out of class to assist their English learning and reading and those who did not. However, no significant difference was found in language anxiety of the participants who used English subtitles when watching films and those who did not ($p > .05$).

The groups who used English to assist learning or reading out of class had much lower mean rank values than those who did not, with the sole exception of the results relating to using/not using subtitles. This suggests that the participants who used English to assist learning or reading out of class felt less anxious both in and out of class than those who did not, which is consistent with the inverse relationship between exposure to English out of class and language anxiety reported in Section 2.

Since some of the participants used both English and Chinese to assist learning, in order to determine whether or not language preferences affected language anxiety, they were grouped according to their responses regarding language preferences. The results are presented in Tables 9.7 and 9.8:

Table 9.7 *Influence of language preferences on classroom-based anxiety*

Dependent variable: classroom-based anxiety				
Independent variable (grouping variable)	Groups	Mean rank	χ^2	Asymp sig (<i>p</i>)
Using which language(s) to explain new words	Chinese	96.93	9.367	.009
	English	66.60		
	Both	84.70		
Using which text book(s) for learning	with Chinese instructions	103.00	22.795	.000
	English instructions	64.07		
	Both types of books	68.80		
When reading materials, using which dictionaries	English – Chinese	102.74	21.818	.003
	English – English	42.50		
	English – Chinese bilingual	90.03		
	E – C and E – E	75.23		
	E – C and E – C bilingual	74.63		
	E – E and E – C bilingual	96.83		
	Three types of dictionaries	99.50		
None	57.80			
When watching films, using which subtitle(s)	Chinese	96.97	5.648	.130
	English	85.92		
	Both	91.60		
	None	59.88		

Note. *N* = 176.

Table 9.8 Influence of language preferences on anxiety out of class

Dependent variable: anxiety out of class				
Independent variable (grouping variable)	Groups	Mean rank	χ^2	Asymp sig (<i>p</i>)
Using which language(s) to explain new words	Chinese	98.30	10.114	.006
	English	69.66		
	Both	78.01		
Using which text book(s) for learning	with Chinese instructions	103.42	24.400	.000
	English instructions	67.27		
	Both	58.88		
When reading materials, using which dictionaries	E – C	104.94	22.335	.002
	E – E	58.14		
	E – C bilingual	87.48		
	E – C and E – E	72.27		
	E – C and E – C bilingual	71.25		
	E – E and E – C bilingual	110.33		
	Three types	61.38		
None	47.70			
When watching films, using which subtitle(s)	Chinese	98.70	7.736	.052
	English	83.65		
	Both	95.77		
	None	58.33		

Note. *N* = 176.

As shown in Tables 9.7 and 9.8, significant differences were found between various groups with regard to the first three variables in each table ($p < .01$), suggesting that using English, Chinese or both to assist English learning or reading did make

significant differences to language anxiety. In other words, language preferences when learning or reading English out of class were significantly associated with levels of anxiety both in and out of class.

According to the mean ranks presented in both tables, the rank values found for the groups employing both languages were lower than those for the groups which used only Chinese, suggesting that those participants who used both languages might feel less anxious than those who used Chinese alone.

As shown in Table 9.7, no differences to classroom-based anxiety were found between the groups with regard to subtitles ($p > .05$). However, as shown in Table 9.8, significant differences were found in anxiety out of class with regard to this variable ($p = .052$). This indicates that watching films with/without English and/or Chinese subtitles did not make any differences to classroom-based anxiety, but that it did affect out-of-class anxiety. According to the mean ranks, the group who used English subtitles experienced less anxiety out of class than the groups using either Chinese or both languages. Therefore, watching films with/without Chinese and/or English subtitles might help reduce anxiety out of class, but made no differences to anxiety in class. However, using/not using dictionary or subtitles did affect language anxiety significantly, as shown in Tables 9.9 and 9.10.

Table 9.9 *Influence of using/not using dictionaries or subtitles on classroom-based anxiety*

Dependent variable: classroom-based anxiety					
Independent variable (grouping variable)	Groups	Mean rank	Mann- Whitney U	Z	Asymp sig (p)
When reading materials, using dictionaries	Yes	90.35	523.000	-1.963	.050
	No	57.80			
When watching films, using subtitles	Y	90.59	640.500	-2.017	.044
	N	59.88			

Table 9.10 *Influence of using/not using dictionaries or subtitles on anxiety out of class*

Dependent variable: anxiety out of class					
Independent variable (grouping variable)	Groups	Mean rank	Mann- Whitney U	Z	Asymp sig (p)
When reading materials, using dictionaries	Y	90.96	422.000	-2.610	.009
	N	47.70			
When watching films, using subtitles	Y	90.71	622.000	-2.127	.033
	N	58.33			

According to Tables 9.9 and 9.10, using/not using dictionaries or subtitles made significant differences to both classroom-based and out-of-class anxiety ($p < .01$), suggesting that the amount of language anxiety experienced by the participants who used dictionaries or subtitles differed significantly from those who did not.

According to the mean ranks shown in both tables, the groups who used dictionaries or subtitles felt more anxious than the groups who did not both in and out of class. It seems that those participants with additional help (e.g., using dictionaries or subtitles) felt more anxious than those without.

In summary, the present study found that language preferences made significant differences to language anxiety. The main findings in this section are listed below:

- (1) Those participants who preferred using only English to assist learning out of class might have lower levels of anxiety both in and out of class than those who preferred using either Chinese or both languages;
- (2) Those participants who did not use dictionaries or subtitles out of class might feel less anxious both in and out of class than those who did.

4 Demographic Variables

This section focuses on the relationship between language anxiety and the following demographic variables: gender, age, age of starting English learning, level of education (i.e., having been/not been to Chinese universities), length of English learning, length of English learning in the U.K., length of English learning in China, previous overseas living experience, and other language learning experience. The results are presented in Tables 9.11-9.13.

Table 9.11 *Influence of some demographic variables on classroom-based anxiety*

Dependent variable: classroom-based anxiety					
Independent variable (group variable)	Group	Mean rank	Mann- Whitney U	Z	Asymp sig (<i>p</i>)
Gender	Male	86.97	3711.000	-.472	.637
	Female	90.63			
Having been to Chinese universities	Yes	90.61	2311.500	-.826	.409
	No	82.71			
Having previous overseas living experience	Y	81.75	762.500	-.461	.645
	N	89.43			
Having other language learning experience	Y	84.00	2583.000	-.713	.476
	N	90.51			

Table 9.12 *Influence of some demographic variables on anxiety out of class*

Dependent variable: anxiety out of class					
Independent variable (group variable)	Group	Mean rank	Mann- Whitney U	Z	Asymp sig (<i>p</i>)
Gender	M	87.68	3767.000	-.307	.759
	F	90.06			
Having been to Chinese universities	Y	89.18	2512.000	-.095	.924
	N	88.28			
Having previous overseas living experience	Y	109.75	627.500	-1.320	.187
	N	87.76			
Having other language learning experience	Y	84.85	2618.000	-.725	.469
	N	91.53			

As shown in Tables 9.11-9.12, none of these variables were found to make significant differences to either classroom-based anxiety or anxiety out of class ($p > .05$). The results concerning gender are consistent with the findings of some studies but not others. For example, Aida (1994) reported no significant gender difference in classroom-based anxiety in Japanese (L2) American university learners in America, whereas Kitano (2001) did find a difference. Regarding previous overseas living experience, the present result was inconsistent with those of previous studies. For example, Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (1999) reported a negative relationship between anxiety and this variable. These points are discussed further in Section 6.

Table 9.13 *Correlations between language anxiety and age and length of English learning*

Demographic variable	Classroom based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Age	-.005	.046
Age of starting learning English	.044	.103
Length of English learning	-.066	-.049
Length of English study in the U.K.	-.113	-.094
Length of English learning in Chinese universities ^a	-.131	-.120

Note. ^a $N = 141$

As shown in Table 9.13, none of the variables were found to be correlated with either classroom-based or out-of-class anxiety. With regard to age, this result conflicts with those of previous studies, which indicate a significant relationship between these two variables (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Zhang, 2001; Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008). With regard to length of L2 learning, this result is consistent with some previous findings, but not others. For example, Cheng (2002) did not find that years of English study at university made any difference to anxiety, while Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (1997) and Elkhafaifi (2005) did find a relationship between these two variables (see Section 6 below for further discussion).

To sum up, the present study did not find that language anxiety was associated with gender, age, educational levels, length of English learning, and having/not having previous overseas experience or other language learning experience.

5 Psychological Variables

5.1 Second language motivation

This section examines the relationship between language anxiety and second language motivation, which was measured from the following perspectives: integrative and instrumental motivation, ideal-self, ought-to-self in English learning, and intrinsic motivation (including enjoyment and accomplishment). The results are presented in Table 9.14-9.16.

Table 9.14 *Correlations between language anxiety and motivation variables*

	Classroom-based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Ought-to-self in English learning ^a	.356**	.208**
Intrinsic motivation: overall	-.194**	-.255**
enjoyment	-.240**	-.332**
accomplishment	-.005	.046
Ideal self	-.068	-.098
Integrative and instrumental motivation	.059	-.085

Note. ^a. $N = 172$.

** $p < .01$

Language anxiety was found to be significantly correlated with ought-to-self and with intrinsic motivation (as specified below), but not with ideal-self and integrative and instrumental motivation.

The positive relationship between language anxiety and ought-to-self suggests that the more participants wanted to meet parental expectations or avoid possible negative outcomes, the more anxious they felt both in and out of class. It seems that parental expectations or negative outcomes could put more pressure on learners. Although a

certain amount of pressure can aid learning, too much pressure might lead to debilitating anxiety. Furthermore, the relationship between anxiety and ought-to-self is detailed in Table 9.15.

Table 9.15 *Correlations between language anxiety and ought-to self items*

	Classroom- based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Failing to learn English would disappoint my parents.	.343**	.277**
Failing to learn English would have negative impacts on my life.	.230**	.044

Note. ** $p < .01$

The fact that most of the participants (79.7%) were aged 23 or younger (see Chapter 6 Section 1) implies that they probably came over to the U.K. with parental support (particularly financial). This might explain why parental expectations could motivate them to learn, and why this variable plays an important role in their English learning.

Both items were slightly more strongly correlated with classroom-based anxiety than with out-of-class anxiety. Since these items were designed with a focus on learning English rather than usage, it is unsurprising that ought-to-self was more strongly related to anxiety experienced in academic study than in daily use.

Both anxiety variables were slightly more strongly correlated with the first item than with the second, indicating that the participants' language anxiety tended to be more strongly linked to parental disappointment than to the possibility of negative outcomes in their own lives. This suggests that the participants were more concerned about disappointing their parents than facing other negative outcomes.

As shown in Table 9.14 above, both classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety were negatively correlated with intrinsic motivation ($r = -.213$ and $-.259$, $p < .01$).

Specifically, both anxiety variables were only correlated with enjoyment of English ($r = -.272$ and $-.341$, $p < .01$), suggesting that those participants who enjoyed English felt less anxious both in and out of class than those who did not. This might be because the more the participants enjoyed English, the more they would be inclined to focus on it in class or be exposed to it out of class. In fact, the present study found a positive relationship between exposure to English out of class and enjoyment of English ($r = .249$, $p < .01$). Together with the finding of an inverse relationship between exposure to English and anxiety (see Section 2 above), it is reasonable to claim that enjoyment of English might reduce levels of anxiety.⁴⁰ A more detailed analysis was conducted on the relationship between language anxiety and enjoyment (as a sub-component of intrinsic motivation). The results are presented in Table 9.16.

Table 9.16 *Correlations between language anxiety and enjoyment items*

	Classroom-based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Enjoyment of English speaking	-.227**	-.326**
learning	-.205**	-.289**
listening	-.157*	-.207**

Note. ** $p < .01$,
 * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 9.16, all the correlations were found to be significantly negative ($p < .05$), suggesting that the more the participants enjoyed English, the less anxious they felt both in and out of class.

The finding that both anxiety variables were slightly more strongly correlated with enjoyment of English speaking than with listening to English is unsurprising, since language anxiety focuses is more closely associated with speaking than with listening.

Furthermore, enjoyment of English in speaking, learning and listening were slightly more strongly correlated with out-of-class anxiety than classroom-based anxiety.

⁴⁰ Due to the fact that the values of exposure to English out of class were not normally distributed, it was difficult to analyse the specific cause – effect relationship between these three variables.

5.2 Attitude towards learning English

In the section, the relationship between language anxiety and attitude towards learning English is examined. The results are presented in Table 9.17. (The participants' responses to negatively worded attitude statements were reversed; in other words, the higher the score, the more positive the attitude.)

Table 9.17 *Correlations between language anxiety and attitude items*

	Classroom based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Preferring learning English to other subjects	-.343**	-.373**
Learning English is boring.	-.277**	-.270**
Learning English is a waste of time.	-.147	-.039

Note. ** $p < .01$

Both anxiety variables were found to be significantly negatively correlated with the first two items, suggesting that those participants who preferred learning English to other subjects or who were interested in English felt less anxious than the other participants both in and out of class, supporting the finding of an inverse relationship between language anxiety and enjoyment of learning, speaking and listening to English (see Section 5.1 above). Furthermore, it seems reasonable to claim that those participants who enjoyed English might also have positive attitude towards learning English.

No significant correlation was found between language anxiety and the last item, suggesting that there were no connection between anxiety and positive attitude with regard to the usefulness of English learning.

The findings presented above seem to suggest that language anxiety was not linked to all types of positive attitude but to certain types only, depending on their source. In the present study, the positive attitude linked with anxiety was produced by the

participants' personal preference or interest in learning English rather than their view of the usefulness of English learning.

5.3 Self-confidence in English learning and use

In the section, the relationship between language anxiety and self-confidence is examined. The results are presented in Table 9.18.

Table 9.18 *Correlations between language anxiety and self-confidence*

	Classroom-based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Self-confidence: overall	-.461**	-.629**
in general	-.399**	-.438**
with limited proficiency	-.492**	-.632**

Note. ** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 9.18, all the correlations were found to be significantly negative ($p < .01$), suggesting that the more confident the participants became, the less anxious they felt both in and out of class. Self-confidence was correlated more strongly with out-of-class than with classroom-based anxiety. Since in-class contexts seem to be more familiar, more controllable, and less complex than out-of-class contexts, the participants might feel less anxious in class than out of class (see Chapter 7 Section 1). This might explain why the relationship between self-confidence and out-of-class anxiety was stronger than the relationship between it and classroom-based anxiety.

Table 9.19 presents the results for the relationship between language anxiety and self-confidence items:

Table 9.19 *Correlations between language anxiety and self-confidence items*

	Classroom- based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Confident about English in most contexts and at most times	-.393**	-.581**
Confident about using English regardless of English levels	-.385**	-.558**
Confident about speaking with native English speakers regardless of errors	-.356**	-.577**
Confident about communicating with foreigners regardless of errors	-.360**	-.426**
Confident about being able to learn English well	-.221**	-.156*

Note. ** $p < .01$,

* $p < .05$

The first four items were found to be more strongly related to out-of-class anxiety than to classroom-based anxiety. However, the last item appeared to be different from the other items in two ways: (a) it was less strongly correlated with language anxiety than the other items; (a) it was slightly more strongly related to classroom-based than to out-of-class anxiety.

This might be explained by the construct of self-confidence: according to Yashima (2002) ‘communication confidence in a L2 was defined as a lack of L2 communication anxiety and perceived communicative competence in a L2’ (p. 59), it was therefore predictable that language anxiety would be more strongly correlated with the items reflecting anxiety than with the items reflecting beliefs related to English learning ability. Furthermore, the last item was designed with a focus on learning, which might explain why it tended to show a slightly stronger link with classroom-based than with out-of-class anxiety.

A comparison was made between anxiety and self-confidence in speaking with native English speakers and foreigners, as presented in Table 9.20.

Table 9.20 *Anxiety and self-confidence in speaking with native speakers and foreigners*

	<i>N</i> / %		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Anxiety in speaking with native English speakers	69 / 39.0	48 / 27.1	60 / 33.9
Confident about speaking with native English speakers (regardless of errors)	38 / 21.5	54 / 30.5	85 / 48.0
Anxiety in speaking with foreigners	120 / 67.8	34 / 19.2	23 / 13.0
Confident about communicating with foreigner (regardless of errors)	14 / 7.9	39 / 22.0	124 / 70.1

More participants felt confident and experienced little anxiety when speaking English with foreigners than with native speakers, as discussed previously (see Chapter 6 Section 5.3 and Chapter 7 Section 3.2).

More participants claimed to feel confident than to feel little anxious when speaking with others. For example, the facts that nearly half of the participants (48.0%) agreed about being confident when speaking with native speakers, whereas only 39.0% disagreed about being anxious in the same situation suggests that self-confidence is not a direct converse of anxiety, although they were found to be inversely related in the present study.

The relationship between self-confidence and anxiety was examined in more details by comparing the correlations between these two variables in speaking with foreigners or with native English speakers. The results are presented in Table 9.21.

Table 9.21 *Correlations between anxiety and self-confidence in speaking with foreigners or native English speakers*

	1	2	3	4
1 Anxiety in communicating with foreigners	–	.180*	-.447**	–
2 Anxiety in talking to native English speakers		–	–	-.515**
3 Self-confidence in communicating with foreigners (regardless of errors)			–	.499**
4 Self-confident of speaking to native speakers (regardless of errors)				–

Note. ** $p < .01$,
* $p < .05$

As expected, negative correlations were found between anxiety and self-confidence in speaking with native English speakers and with foreigners. The correlation coefficients of -.447 and -.515 indicate that anxiety is not a total converse of self-confidence. This is consistent with the findings presented in Table 9.20.

Since the correlation found between self-confidence in speaking with native English speakers and with foreigners was stronger than that found between anxiety in speaking with native speakers and with foreigners, and self-confidence is constructed by both anxiety and perceived communication ability (Yashima, 2002), it is possible to assume that those participants who believed they were able to communicate with native speakers were also likely to believe that they were able to communicate with foreigners.

The following Section 6-7 discusses the findings presented in Sections 1-5 above.

6 Discussion: Relationship between Language anxiety and Selected Learner Variables

6.1 English proficiency

The present study found that an inverse relationship existed between language anxiety and English proficiency scores, suggesting that those participants with lower proficiency tended to feel more anxious, supporting the description of language anxiety as ‘the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient’ (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a, p. 5).

The present study found that language anxiety was more strongly related to perceived proficiency than to actual proficiency, which is consistent with the findings of many studies (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Cheng, 2002). According to Gardner & MacIntyre (1993a), this is because anxiety ‘[reflects] concern over perceptions of inadequacy’ (p. 185). Since anxiety has been described as ‘...a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviours related to classroom learning...’ (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128), the finding in the present study that anxiety was more closely linked with perceived proficiency seems reasonable.

Self-ratings tended to be slightly more strongly correlated with anxiety out of class than with classroom-based anxiety, while the converse was found for the correlation between IELTS scores and classroom-based and out-of-class anxiety. One of the reasons may be that IELTS scores are more academic-orientated than daily-use orientated, and therefore IELTS scores as a measure of actual proficiency is more closely linked with classroom-based than with out-of-class anxiety.

No correlation was found between language anxiety and IELTS writing scores. The fact that language anxiety in the present study was not measured in any specific writing situations might explain why little connection was found between these variables.

The findings that anxiety was one of the best predictors of achievement (Gardner, 1985; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991), but a poor predictor of proficiency (Kondo, 2001) suggest that anxiety has a closer relationship with achievement than with proficiency. This also explains why a negative relationship has consistently been reported between anxiety and achievement (e.g., Cheng, Horwitz, & Schaller, 1999).

A comparison was made with regard to the relationship between classroom-based anxiety and proficiency in the present and previous studies. The results are presented in Table 9.22.

Table 9.22 *Relationship between classroom-based anxiety and proficiency in the present and previous studies*

General L2 proficiency	Relationship with classroom-based anxiety		
	Positive	Negative	None
Actual levels	None	MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b; Zhang, 2001; Elkhafaifi, 2005	Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1997; 1999; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Bailey, Onwuegbuzie, & Daley, 2000a
Actual scores	None	Young, 1986 The present study	None
Perceived levels	None	MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Cheng, 2001; Kitano, 2001; MacIntyre, Clément, & Donovan, 2002; Perales & Cenoz, 2002; Liu, 2006; Liu & Jackson, 2008; etc. The present study	None

Two points are worth noting: (a) In both the present and previous studies, a significant negative correlation was found between anxiety and actual proficiency scores,

supporting the argument that a negative relationship exists between these two variables (see Chapter 4 Section 2.3). However, since in the present study there was an inadequate number of participants at each course level (i.e., beginning, intermediate and advanced levels), it was not possible to analyse the relationship between anxiety and proficiency levels. Since mixed results were obtained with regard to this relationship, further research is still required (see Chapter 10 Section 2).

(b) Both the present and previous studies have consistently found a negative relationship between language anxiety and perceived proficiency levels, suggesting that learners who perceive their proficiency to be poorer than that of others tend to feel more anxious.

In summary, the more proficient the participants become, the less anxious they might feel. Language anxiety is more strongly linked with perceived proficiency than with actual proficiency.

6.2 Exposure to English out of class

The present study found a significant negative relationship between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class, suggesting that the more English the participants were exposed to out of class every day, the less anxious they felt both in and out of class. This is consistent with the findings of some previous studies (e.g., Cheng, 2002; Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008; Liu & Jackson, 2008), which have found an inverse relationship between anxiety and frequency of using a L2 out of class (see Chapter 4 Section 2.4).

This may be because the more a learner is exposed to a L2, the more familiar and certain he/she will become when learning or using English in similar contexts, which may consequently lead to a decrease in anxiety levels. This is also supported by the finding that the participants felt less anxious in a familiar conversational situation than in an unfamiliar one (see Chapter 7 Section 3.1).

The detailed findings related to the relationship between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class are summarised as follows: (a) both classroom-based

anxiety and out-of-class anxiety were correlated with the length of time spent speaking English ($r = -.328$ and $-.382$, $p < .01$), chatting with others online ($r = -.257$ and $-.237$, $p < .01$), and reading English materials ($r = -.181$ and $-.170$, $p < .05$); (b) the time spent on self-determined learning was only found to be negatively correlated with classroom-based anxiety ($r = -.149$, $p < .05$), but not with out-of-class anxiety; (c) no relationship was found between language anxiety and the time spent doing homework, listening to English, watching English films and TV channels, and playing English online games. Several points related to these results are worth discussing:

Firstly, an inverse relationship was between language anxiety and length of time spent on English communication-related activities, suggesting that the more the participants communicated with others in English, the less anxious they felt. This could be explained by risk-taking, as argued in Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986): ‘...second language communication entails risk taking’ (p. 128). It seems that the more anxious the participants felt, the less risk they wanted to take when communicating with others. Therefore, they might try either spending less time or avoiding doing so. In fact, Saito and Samimy (1996) did report a positive correlation between anxiety and time spent on study, but a negative correlation between anxiety and risk-taking in class in L2 beginners.

According to MacIntyre and Charos’ (1996) model, the relationship between language anxiety and length of time spent on communication-related activities could also be affected by L2 learners’ willingness to communicate. Figure 9.1 shows an excerpt from this model:

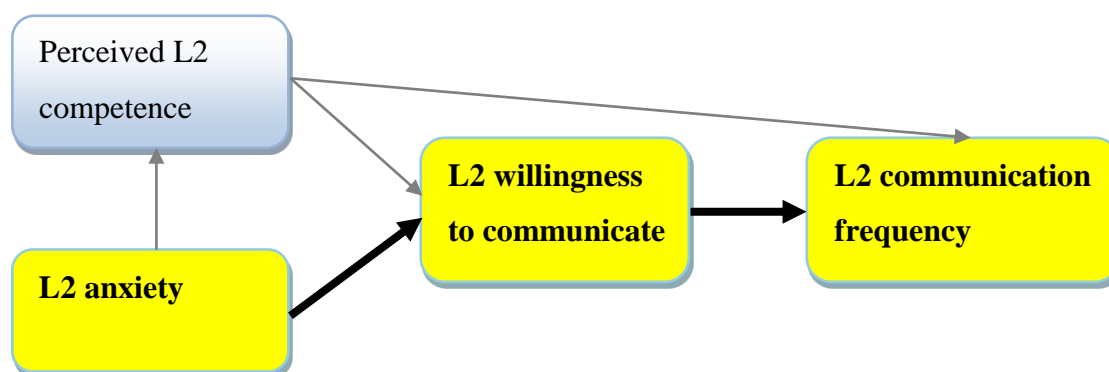


Figure 9.1 Excerpt from MacIntyre and Charos’ (1996) model of L2 willingness to communicate

As shown in Figure 9.1, L2 learners with lower levels of anxiety might be more willing to communicate, which might consequently lead to their engagement in communication-related activities, or to more time spent on these activities.

Secondly, communicative activities seem to be more strongly related to language anxiety than non-communicative activities, as suggested by the results of many studies (e.g., Daly, 1986). Particularly, language anxiety seems to be more strongly correlated with time spent speaking English than with the time spent on the other activities involving English, suggesting speaking English is more strongly associated with anxiety than other activities. This is consistent with the finding that language anxiety is associated more with speaking than with listening, reading and writing (see Section 1 above).

Thirdly, activities requiring English productive skills seem to be more strongly related to language anxiety than other activities requiring receptive skills. This might also be explained by risk-taking. Ehrman (1996) argues that anxious learners ‘tend to endorse activities that limit risk’ (p. 96). Comparing with activities requiring receptive skills, it seems that conducting activities using productive skills could involve more risk-taking, which might lead to higher levels of anxiety. Those participants who are willing to spend longer on activities using productive skills might be willing to take more risk. Therefore, they might feel less anxious than those unwilling to do so.

In summary, it seems that the more English the participants used to communicate, the less anxious they felt.

6.3 Language preferences

The present study found that language anxiety was significantly influenced by language preferences when learning and using English. It was also found that the more English the participants preferred using out of class, the less anxious they might feel both in and out of class. This is consistent with the findings of inverse relationships found between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class, and between language anxiety and preference to learn English rather than other subjects (see Sections 2 and 5 above).

It was found that the participants who preferred to use only English when learning English out of class might experience lower levels of anxiety than those who preferred using either Chinese or both languages. This might be explained by risk-taking and tolerance of ambiguity (Oxford, 1999). It seems that those participants who preferred English might take more risk or feel ambiguous than those who did not. For instance, it is likely that Chinese learners might not understand a new word if it is explained in English, but will understand it much better if it is explained in Chinese. Therefore, it is possible that those participants who preferred to have new words explained only in English or use text books only with English instructions took more risk or tolerant more uncertainty than those who preferred to use either Chinese or both languages. On the other hand, anxious participants might try to minimise the risk and confusion by using Chinese or both languages to assist their English learning.

The present study also found that the participants who did not use dictionaries or subtitles when reading materials or watching films tended to feel less anxious than those who did, suggesting that the participants who did not seek additional help (e.g., dictionary or subtitles) felt less anxious than those who did. This might also be explained by willingness to take risk and tolerance of ambiguity (Oxford, 1999). It seems likely that the participants who used dictionaries or subtitles understood better than those who did not. The more English they understood, the less risk or uncertainty they might be involved in. On the other hand, anxious participants would like to avoid risk and uncertain feelings by seeking additional help.

In summary, it seems that the more risk the participants took or the more uncertainty they could accept when learning and using English, the less anxious they might feel. Since no previous studies have examined the relationship between language preferences and anxiety, further research may be required in order to investigate the relationship between these two in different L2 contexts.

6.4 Demographic variables

In the present study, no significant relationship was found between language anxiety and the following demographic variables: gender, levels of education, age, age of

starting to learn English, length of English learning, and having/not having previous overseas living experience or other language learning experience. This suggests that demographic variables had little effect on the participants' language anxiety. This was compared with findings from other studies, as presented in Table 9.23.

Table 9.23 *Relationship between classroom-based anxiety and demographic variables in the present and previous studies*

Demographic variable	Relationship between classroom-based anxiety	
	Significant	None
Gender	Kitano, 2001; Cheng, 2002; Abu-Rabia, 2004, etc.	Aida, 1994; Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Woodrow, 2006a, etc.; the present study
Age	P ^a : Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Zhang, 2001, etc. N: Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008	The present study
Age of starting to learn English	P: Liu & Jackson, 2008; Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham (2008)	The present study
Year at university	P: Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1997; Levine, 2003 N: Elkhafaifi, 2005	Cheng, 2002; the present study
Previous overseas experience	N: Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Dailey, 1999; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004	The present study
Other language experience		Aida, 1994; the present study

Note. ^a P = positive relationship, N = negative relationship.

As shown in Table 9.23, mixed results have been obtained with regard to the relationship between classroom-based anxiety and demographic variables. This can be explained in various ways; however, it is difficult to pinpoint specifically why the findings in the present study are consistent with some previous findings but not with others, since this relationship can be affected by a number of factors. Therefore, it would be more approachable to explain this inconsistency, if the demographic variables and language anxiety could be placed into a larger picture, where the effects of other external and internal variables are taken into consideration, and also into a similar context, where the effects of these variables can be compared.

Furthermore, the researcher has not come across any published studies with a focus on the relationship between anxiety and length of L2 learning.

6.5 Psychological variables

6.5.1 *Self-confidence*

It was unsurprising that the present study found a negative relationship between language anxiety and self-confidence, consistent with the findings of many previous studies (e.g., Clément, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Cheng, 2002).

It seems more reasonable to examine anxiety as either a distinct learner variable or a component of self-confidence, since self-confidence was not found to be a component in classroom-based anxiety using the exploratory factor analysis (see Chapter 8 Section 3). This contradicts the finding of Cheng (2002), who also used exploratory factor analysis, and found that self-confidence explained 34% of the variance in writing anxiety.

6.5.2 *Second language motivation*

Complicated relationships were found between language anxiety and motivation variables: language anxiety was negatively correlated with enjoyment of English

(intrinsic motivation), but was positively correlated with ought-to self; no significant correlations were obtained between language anxiety and integrative and instrumental motivation, ideal-self and accomplishment (intrinsic motivation).

The facts that nearly all the participants were both integratively and instrumentally motivated, had a strong desire to understand, use and speak English as native speakers, and were motivated by accomplishment in English learning (see Chapter 6 Section 5) seems to suggest that these motivation variables did not result in any of the participants experiencing higher levels of language anxiety than others.

A comparison was made between the relationship found between classroom-based anxiety and motivation in the present study and that in Liu and Huang (2011), which investigated these variables using 980 university students of English in China. The results of this comparison are presented in Table 9.24.

Table 9.24 Correlations between anxiety and motivation in Liu and Huang (2011) and those in the present study

Study	Measure of anxiety	Motivation variable	N of items	Correlation	
				Classroom-based anxiety	In-class speaking anxiety
Liu & Huang (2011)	Foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) (36 items)	Integrative motivation	12	-.210**	-.214**
		Instrumental motivation	11	-.017	-.061
		Intrinsic motivation	6	-.470**	-.435**
	FLCAS2: ‘apprehension of speech communication’ (p. 2) (7 items)				
The present study	Scale of classroom-based anxiety (24 items)	Integrative and instrumental motivation	9	.059	.009
		Intrinsic motivation	5	-.194**	-.231**
	Speaking anxiety in class (10 items)				

Note. ** .p < .01

Both studies reported an inverse relationship between anxiety and intrinsic motivation. According to Liu and Huang (2011), conducting English-related activities out of class could increase intrinsic motivation, which would consequently make learners more willing to use English. As a result, this might reduce anxiety levels. This seems to support the previous findings that the more the participants were willing to communicate in English, the less anxious they felt when learning and using it (see Sections 6.2 and 6.3 above).

Liu and Huang (2011) also found that classroom-based anxiety was significantly negatively correlated with integrative and instrumental motivation; however, the present study did not find such correlations. This might be explained by sample features, that is, the learners studying in the U.K. were more strongly motivated than those in China (see Chapter 6 Section 3).

Since the relationship between speaking anxiety and motivation is consistent with that between classroom-based anxiety and motivation, no further discussion is needed.

Therefore, their summary that ‘[t]he analyses so far clearly support the conclusion that foreign language anxiety and English learning motivation were closely related to each other...’ (p. 5) is not supported by the findings in the present study. This might be because of the characteristics of participants in the present study conducted in the U.K. were different from those in Liu and Huang’s study, which were undertaken in China.

The present study did not measure overall motivation, although this was assessed in Liu and Huang (2011). This seems inappropriate, as intrinsic motivation and instrumental and integrative motivations are not, as Liu and Huang (2011) proposed, ‘the dimensions of motivation’ (p. 2); rather, they are the different perspectives used to conceptualise motivation. In other words, intrinsic motivation and instrumental and integrative motivation are used to measure the same object (i.e., motivation), but from different angles. Although in some circumstances it seems useful to examine the effects of motivation as a whole, before doing so, it might be important for researchers to clarify how these facets contribute to the same motivation construct.

7 General Discussion

The research questions and major findings in this chapter are summarised below:

Table 9.25 *Research questions and related findings*

Research question	Major finding
5 What is the relationship between language anxiety and English proficiency?	An inverse relationship was found between language anxiety and English proficiency.
6 What is the relationship between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class?	An inverse relationship was found between language anxiety and exposure to English out of class.
7 What is the relationship between language anxiety and language preferences?	Language preferences were found to affect language anxiety. Specifically, the participants who used English to assist learning English out of class felt less anxious than those who did not.
8 What is the relationship between language anxiety and selected demographic variables?	Language anxiety was not related to any demographic variables.
9 What is the relationship between language anxiety and motivation, attitude, and self-confidence?	Language anxiety was correlated with enjoyment, preference in English learning, ought-to-self and self-confidence.

Several points in these major findings are worth discussing further:

Firstly, the fact that anxiety was significantly correlated with exposure to English and language preference but not with demographic variables suggests that the participants' daily experience and their choices regarding using/not using English in various situations were a better explanation of language anxiety than their demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender and length of English learning). In order to reduce anxiety, it might be more useful for learners to focus on their daily experience when learning and using English than to consider their personal conditions.

Secondly, certain sample characteristics might play an important role in determining the relationship between language anxiety and learner variables. For example, since most of the participants in the present study were found to have little to no experience of living abroad (see Chapter 6 Section 7), it was predictable that their anxiety would not be affected by previous overseas experience. Another example concerns motivation. Some studies have found this to be a source of language anxiety, affecting it negatively, for L2 learners in L1-dominated contexts (not including classrooms) (e.g., Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Yamashiro & McLaughlin, 2001). Compared to the learners of English in China (e.g., Liu & Huang, 2011), it would appear that the learners in the U.K. might be slightly more self-determined and more highly motivated in their English learning. Since the present study found no relationship between anxiety and integrative and instrumental motivation, it seems that the sources of anxiety in the present study are different from those in previous studies. Similarly, nearly all of the participants in the present study had strong beliefs about the importance and usefulness of learning English and about their ability to learn and use English well. Although some of them felt more anxious than others, it is difficult to suggest that their anxiety was related to any of those belief-related variables (e.g., accomplishment (intrinsic motivation) and ideal self). Moreover, since in the present study, a vast majority of the participants could be classified into a homogeneous group, the lack of variety in this sample could also explain why little association could be found between demographic variables and language anxiety.

Therefore, these findings suggest that the role of anxiety needs reconsideration when the participants are learning a L2 abroad, since they might possess different characteristics from those who were learning a L2 in a L1-dominated context. Further

research is required in order to compare the differences to anxiety between L2 learners studying in their home country and those overseas.

Thirdly, several of the findings in the present study could be explained by risk-taking and/or willingness to communicate. For example, communicative activities (e.g., online-chatting with others) could be more anxiety-provoking than non-communicative situations (e.g., watching English films or TV channels); anxiety seems to be more easily triggered in activities involving productive skills (e.g., speaking to others) than in activities involving receptive skills (e.g., reading newspapers); the more the participants preferred using English or chose to do so, the less anxious they felt. In order to explain the role of anxiety, risk-taking, and willingness to communicate in L2 learning and use, the researcher has proposed a model, illustrated in Figure 9.2.

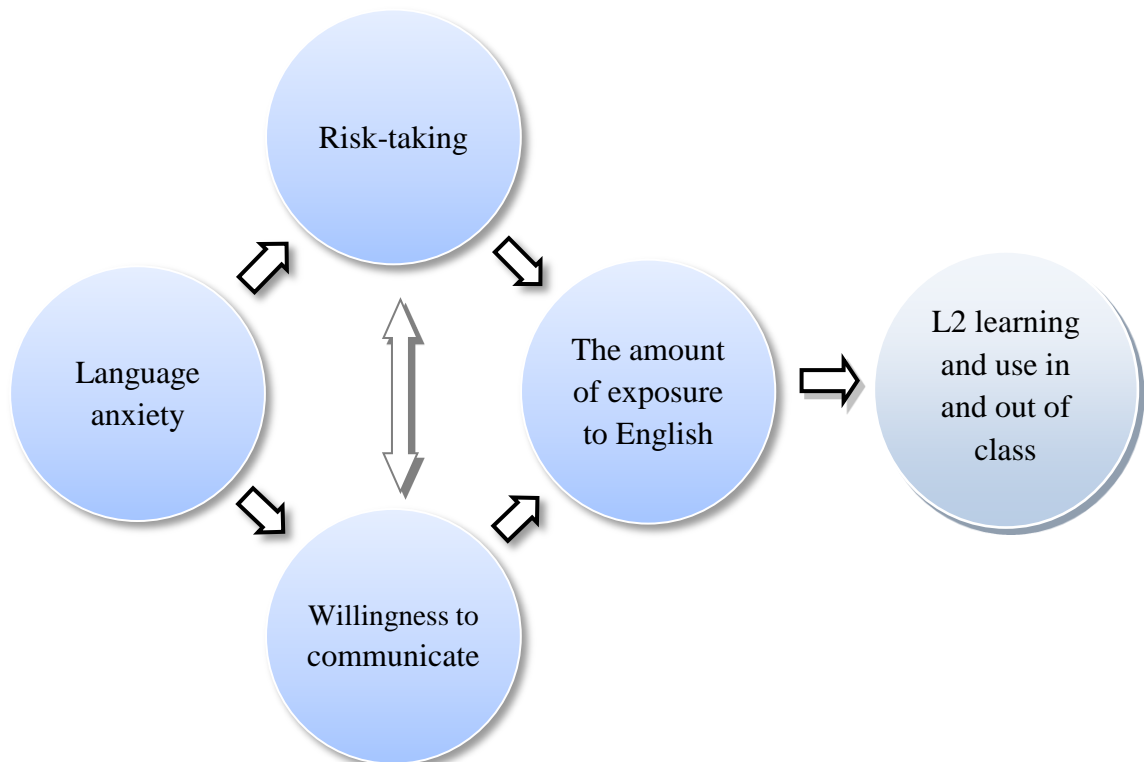


Figure 9.2 Model of language anxiety and English learning and use in and out of class

As illustrated in Figure 9.2, anxious learners may be unwilling to take risks or to engage in communication. This may decrease the amount of time they spend on English, which may gradually prevent effective English learning and use. As a result, they are likely to encounter more difficulties, which would possibly make them feel more anxious.

In order to break this cycle, some scholars (e.g., Oxford, 1999; Brown, 2002) suggest encouraging learners' risk-taking in L2 learning. Another possible way for learners to reduce anxiety levels is to spend more time on a L2. The more they are exposed to it, the more familiar and confident they may become when learning and using it in similar contexts. Based on the fact that the participants felt less anxious in familiar than in unfamiliar contexts (see Chapter 7 Section 3.1), spending more time on the L2 would result in a decrease of anxiety levels.

Fourthly, classroom-based anxiety was found to be positively related to ought-to self, consistent with the findings of Papi (2010). According to Papa (2010), the strong link between these two variables can be explained by the conceptualisation of foreign language anxiety, in which fear of negative evaluation as a component is defined as 'an apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively' (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128). However, the present study did not find fear of negative evaluation from teachers and peers to be a main component in classroom-based anxiety (see Chapter 8 Section 4). A conjunction of these two results seems to imply the possibility that factors outside the classroom can become the main source of negative evaluation which the participants might fear in English learning in class. For example, it could be a possibility that some of the participants were more fearful of the negative evaluation by their parents than by the teacher or other students. In general, there are also other possibilities: L2 learners may fear the negative evaluation given by an authority (e.g., the board of examinations in the university). They might even experience anxiety when they feel they do not meet the requirement of foreign/second language learning set by community or society (which could just be vague norms). Further research on this point is clearly needed.

Fifthly, a comparison of the correlations between learner variables and classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class was made. This is presented in Tables 9.26 and 9.27.

Table 9.26 *Similar levels of correlations between learner variable(s) and classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class*

Learner variable(s)	Classroom-based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Length of time spent speaking English	-.328 [*]	-.382 [*]
chatting with others online	-.257 [*]	-.237 [*]
reading English materials	-.181 [*]	-.170 [*]
Preferring learning English to other subjects (an item in attitude)	-.343 ^{**}	-.373 ^{**}
Learning English is boring. ^a (an item in attitude)	-.277 ^{**}	-.270 ^{**}
Language preference when learning and use English ^b	$p < .01$	$p < .01$

Note. ^{**}. $p < .01$, ^{*}. $p < .05$

^a. The participants' responses to this item were reversed.

^b. Since the relationship between language preference and anxiety was analysed using Mann-Whitney test and Kruskal-Wallis tests, only significance levels were useful in this comparison.

Both classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class were found to have similar relationships with the variables listed in the left-hand column. These variables could be classified into two categories: exposure to English and language preference. It seems that the more English the participants liked, enjoyed and were exposed to, the less anxious they felt both in and out of class. Therefore, increasing exposure to English and cultivating an interest in it would be effective ways to reduce anxiety levels.

Table 9.27 *Different levels of correlations between learner variable(s) and classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class*

Learner variable(s)	Classroom-based anxiety	Anxiety out of class
Ought-to-self in English learning	.356**	.208**
IELTS scores (overall, speaking, listening, reading and writing)	-.294** , -.274** , -.213* , -.182* , -.133	-.255** , -.248** , -.198* , -.179* , -.143
Length of time spent self-determined English learning	-.149*	.098
Self-confidence (overall, in general, and with limited proficiency)	-.461** , -.399** , -.492**	-.629** , -.438** , -.632**
Self-ratings (overall, speaking, listening, reading and writing)	-.443** , -.474** , -.307** , -.192* , -.180*	-.452** , -.460** , -.409** , -.272** , -.189*
Enjoyment of English (intrinsic motivation)	-.240**	-.332**

Note. ** $p < .01$,
* $p < .05$

As shown in Table 9.27, classroom-based anxiety was slightly more strongly correlated with motivation ought-to self (motivation), IELTS scores and the length of time spent learning English out of class than out-of-class anxiety. This might be because all these learner variables are more learning-orientated than other variables.

Out-of-class anxiety was slightly more strongly correlated with self-confidence, self-ratings in proficiency and enjoyment of English than in-class anxiety. It seems that self-perception is slightly more closely linked with out-of-class anxiety unless it is designed to be learning-orientated.

To sum up, classroom-based anxiety and anxiety out of class had similar relationship with exposure to English and language preferences, but not with other variables. Further research might be needed in order to clarify and explore this in more depth.

Additionally, since no published studies (to the researcher's knowledge) have examined the relationship between language anxiety and learner variables in a L2-dominated context, further research is also required in order to examine the relationship amongst these variables more closely or in a different context.

8 Summary

This chapter has examined the relationship between language anxiety and the following variables: English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language when learning and using English, selected demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, age of starting to learn English, levels of education, length of English learning, previous overseas living experience, and other language learning experience) and psychological variables (second language motivation, attitude towards learning English, and self-confidence in learning and using English).

In the present study, language anxiety was found to be significantly negatively correlated with proficiency, out-of-class exposure to English, intrinsic motivation, and self-confidence, significantly positively correlated with ought-to-self (motivation), but not correlated with the demographic variables (as listed above), integrative and instrumental motivation, ideal-self (motivation). Furthermore, language anxiety was negatively correlated with the positive attitude resulting from personal interest rather than from a perception of the usefulness of English learning.

Language preferences have significant effects on language anxiety. The present study found that the participants who only used English to explain new English words felt less anxious than those who used either Chinese or both languages. Additionally, the participants who do not use any dictionaries when reading English materials tended to experience lower levels of anxiety than the others.

The present study found that both classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety had similar correlations with the following variables: time spent speaking and reading English and online-chatting in English, enjoyment and interest in English (motivation and attitude), and language preferences.

The follow chapter summarises the main findings of this thesis, points out its contribution and provides recommendations for future studies.

Chapter Ten

Chapter Ten

Conclusion

1 Summary of the Main Findings

The present study has documented the Chinese learners' anxiety experience in learning and using English language in the U.K., as well as some of their learner variables (as listed below). It has also examined the conceptualisation of language anxiety and the relationship between language anxiety and these learner variables. The main findings of the study are summarised below.

1.1 Learner variables

In the present study, most of the participants could be classified into a homogeneous group. The findings related to their selected demographic variables, English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences when learning and using English, and selected psychological variables are summarised below.

Most of the participants were quite young (i.e., 17-23), having just finished either high-school or undergraduate studies, and had little to no experience of speaking a L3 or of living abroad before coming to the U.K. They started learning English when they were young (i.e., 11-13), and had studied it as an academic subject for a long time (i.e., around ten years).

Most of the participants had achieved an overall IELTS score of 6.0; they were good at reading and listening with their IELTS listening and reading scores being 6.0 or above, but not as good at speaking and writing with their speaking and writing scores being 5.5 or below. Most of them also believed that their overall English proficiency was *moderate*. They perceived their listening to be better than their reading, which was also perceived to be better than speaking, and they thought that writing was their weakest skill.

Most of the participant spent around five hours on 5-7 activities involving English outside the classroom every day. Specifically, of these five hours of English use: two hours or less were spent for homework and self-determined English learning, more than one hour was spent watching English TV or films, and around two hours were spent speaking, listening and reading English.

Most of them used Chinese rather than English to assist their English learning and use, with the exception of watching English TV or films. Nearly half of them chose to use English subtitles, while less than one third of them used Chinese.

The participants were found to be integratively and instrumentally motivated, and have positive attitudes towards leaning English. They believed in the importance and usefulness of learning English. Half of them were confident about using English, and most of them believed that they were able to learn English well. Compared with learners in China (i.e., Liu & Huang, 2011), the participants in the U.K. were more integratively, instrumentally and intrinsically motivated.

1.2 Language anxiety experience

Most of the participants experienced moderate anxiety in classroom-based English learning. They felt more anxious specifically when they were in class than when thinking of English classes as a whole.

They were anxious specifically when delivering a presentation and when not understanding what the teacher was saying or teaching in class. By contrast, they experienced little to no anxiety in group or class discussion, or when speaking in front of other students, consistent with the finding that the participants experienced little anxiety concerning being negatively evaluated by other students.

However, it was also found that the participants had mixed feelings about being negatively evaluated by the teacher: on the one hand, they felt anxious when being evaluated by the teacher (e.g., giving a presentation); on the other hand, they wanted to be corrected by the teacher when they made mistakes in class.

Compared with the learners in China (i.e., Liu, 2006), the participants in the U.K. generally possessed lower levels of anxiety in most aspects of classroom-based English learning. This may be because the participants in the U.K. had stronger personalities: they believed they were able to learn English as well as others, and were more self-determined, self-prepared and motivated. However, the participants in the U.K. felt more anxious when not understanding what the teacher said or taught in class than those in China. It seems that teacher/teaching activities affected anxiety in English language classrooms in the U.K. more than in China.

Most of the participants also experienced *moderate* anxiety out of class. Nearly half of them reported feeling anxious in four out of the 11 given situations, which are joining a conversation amongst English people, ordering a meal in an English restaurant, speaking English on the phone, and making an oral request at a bank. It seems that the more difficult a conversation appeared to be, the more anxious the participants may feel.

The participants reported being more anxious when speaking with native speakers than with foreigners, because (a) they felt more anxious when speaking to an expert (native speaker) than to a non-expert (foreigner); (b) when speaking to a foreigner, they were able to concentrate solely on the content of the conversation, whereas when speaking with a native speaker, they would feel they had to focus on both contents and grammars, which may consequently result in anxiety.

The participants felt slightly more anxious out of class than in class. Furthermore, a positive relationship was also found between these two variables, suggesting that those participants who felt anxious in class were also likely to experience anxiety out of class.

1.3 Relationship between language anxiety and learner variables

The relationship between language anxiety and English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences, selected demographic and psychological variables are summarised below.

A negative relationship was found between language anxiety and proficiency. More specifically, language anxiety was found to be associated more strongly with overall and speaking proficiency than with reading, listening and writing. In fact, language anxiety was not linked with actual writing proficiency (measured by IELTS writing scores). Language anxiety was more strongly related to perceived proficiency than to actual proficiency. Perceived proficiency tended to be slightly more strongly correlated with out-of-class than with classroom-based anxiety, while the converse was found for the correlation between actual proficiency and language anxiety.

A negative correlation was also found between language anxiety and out-of-class exposure to English, suggesting that the more English the learners were exposed to, the less anxiety they felt both in and out of class. More specifically, language anxiety was negatively correlated with the length of time spent speaking English, chatting online, reading English materials, but not with doing homework, listening to English (e.g., English songs), watching English films or TV channels, and playing English online games. It seems that language anxiety was associated more with communicative than with non-communicative activities, and activities requiring English productive skills seemed to be more strongly anxiety provoking than activities requiring receptive skills.

Willingness to communicate and/or take risk may also be involved in the relationship between language anxiety and out-of-class exposure to English. It is possible that anxious learners are unwilling to take risks or to engage in communication. This may reduce the amount of exposure to English, which may consequently hinder effective English learning and use. As a result, they are likely to feel more anxious. In order to break this cycle, it therefore seems to be important for the participants to be more exposed to English and/or take some risk in learning and using English.

Language preferences had significant effects on language anxiety. Specifically, those participants who were willing to take risk or tolerate uncertainty in English learning and use (e.g., using English rather than Chinese to explain new English words, and not using any dictionaries when reading English materials) seemed to experience lower levels of anxiety than those who did not.

No relationships were found between language anxiety and selected demographic variables (as listed in Section 1.1 above). This, together with the findings with regard to out-of-class exposure to English and language preferences above, suggests that it might be more useful for the participants to focus on their daily experience when learning and using English than on their personal conditions for the purpose of reducing anxiety.

The present study found that language anxiety was negatively correlated with enjoyment of English (intrinsic motivation) and self-confidence, positively correlated with ought-to self (motivational self system), but not correlated with ideal self (motivational self system), accomplishment (intrinsic motivation), or integrative and instrumental motivation. Language anxiety was also negatively correlated with the positive attitude produced by personal interest but not by the usefulness of learning English.

A comparison of the correlations between these learner variables, classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety indicates that both classroom-based and out-of-class anxiety had similar relationship with time spent speaking and reading English and online-chatting in English, interest in learning English (attitude), and language preferences, suggesting that the more English the participants liked or were exposed to, the less anxious they felt both in and out of class.

Classroom-based anxiety was slightly more strongly correlated with ought-to self (motivation), IELTS scores, and time spent learning English out of class than out-of-class anxiety, whereas out-of-class anxiety was slightly more strongly correlated with self-confidence, perceived proficiency and enjoyment of English (motivation).

1.4 Model of language anxiety

The present study revealed that the two-factor model of language anxiety (i.e., a combination of classroom-based anxiety and out of class) is useful for capturing the characteristics of the anxiety which the participants experienced in the U.K.

Furthermore, both classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety were found to be positively interrelated. This suggests that they share similarities.

The model of classroom-based anxiety consists of six components: in-class anxiety (mainly with speaking-orientated anxiety), classes-related anxiety, negative comparative self-evaluation, comprehension-orientated anxiety, fear of negative evaluation by teachers, and fear of learning English grammars. Furthermore, a large proportion of classroom-based anxiety was formed by speaking-orientated anxiety.

This is similar to the classroom-based anxiety construct offered in literature review and methodology chapters which consists of communication apprehension and negative evaluation by others. However, the facts that fear of negative evaluation by peers was not found to be component in anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation by teachers was not an important component in this model contradicts the construct of classroom-based anxiety in theory.

Out-of-class anxiety was found to consist of three facets: anxiety in handling difficult conversations, anxiety in routine conversations, and anxiety in conversations with friends or foreigners. A large proportion of out-of-class anxiety was formed by anxiety in handling difficult tasks than in other situations.

2 Recommendations for Further Research

Further research is required for the following areas:

- (1) To re-evaluate the construct of classroom-based anxiety:

Since fear of negative evaluation by teacher and students was not found to be important in classroom-based anxiety, future research should re-evaluate this in order to determine whether it is necessary to modify the conceptualisation of this anxiety variable.

- (2) To assess the model of language anxiety:

Further studies are required on the model of language anxiety (as a combination of classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety) using different learner samples and L2s for the following purposes: (a) to evaluate the model of out-of-class anxiety built in the present study; (b) to explore the relationship between out-of-class anxiety and learner variables in a different L2-dominated context; (c) to explore the differences and similarities between classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety by comparing the relationship between these two anxiety variables and other learner variables; (c) since out-of-class anxiety more refers to the anxiety which L2 learners experienced in L2 use outside the class, it seems necessary to examine the role of anxiety in L2 learning outside the classroom, and the relationship between these three anxiety variables.

- (3) To explore the role of out-of-class L2 context in language anxiety:

Specially, future research may need to focus on the differences between in-class and out-of-class contexts, and on how they may influence anxiety in various settings with learners who have different backgrounds and target L2s.

- (4) To conduct a comparative study on the anxiety experienced between Chinese learners in China and those in the U.K.:

Since a comparison between the findings of the present study and those of Liu (2006) and Liu and Huang (2011) revealed that the learners in the U.K. had different anxiety experience in classroom-based English language learning from those in China, in order to provide further evidence on this point, a comparative study is required, in which classroom-based anxiety and out-of-class anxiety in Chinese learners in both China and the U.K. can be investigated in the same research setting.

- (5) To conduct a longitudinal study in order to re-examine the relationship between language anxiety and achievement and proficiency:

Since the present study could not measure the participants' English achievement owing to limited access to classes, future studies are required in order to re-examine the relationship between language anxiety, achievement and proficiency; this would provide further evidence for a series of arguments with regard to this point made in Chapter 4 Section 2.3.

- (6) To explore the relationship between exposure to a L2 and language anxiety:

Since few previous studies have examined the relationship between these two variables, future studies may be required in order to examine these two in different L2 contexts. Since the present study has only measured exposure to English quantitatively, in order to explore this variable further, qualitative research is also required in the future. Future studies are also needed in order to provide further evidence regarding the relationship between this variable and anxiety, both in and out of class, with different research samples, L2s and L2 contexts.

- (7) To explore the role of language preferences in language anxiety:

Further studies are required in order to explore the influence of language preferences on language anxiety both quantitatively and qualitatively. Specifically, future research should identify other situations where L2 learners prefer using the L1 to the L2 in assisting their L2 learning and use, and how this may affect their anxiety.

- (8) To explore the role of other learner variables in language anxiety:

Since no published studies (to the researcher's knowledge) have compared the relationship between classroom-based anxiety and selected learner variables (e.g., English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences, second language motivation, attitude towards learning English, self-confidence, etc.) with the relationship between out-of-class anxiety and these variables in a L2-dominated

context, further research is required in this area. Furthermore, further studies are also needed in order to explore the relationship between the motivational self-system and language anxiety, particularly in a L2-dominated context.

- (9) To develop a model in order to demonstrate the relationship between anxiety, proficiency and selected learner variables in learning and using a L2:

Since no published studies (to the researcher's knowledge) have compared the relationship between classroom-based anxiety and selected learner variables (e.g., English proficiency, exposure to English out of class, language preferences, second language motivation, attitude towards learning English, self-confidence, etc.) with the relationship between out-of-class anxiety and these variables in a L2-dominated context, further research is required in this area. Furthermore, further studies are also needed in order to explore the relationship between the motivational self-system and language anxiety, particularly in a L2-dominated context.

In summary, language anxiety is a multi-dimensional construct which produces various, subtle and pervasive effects both within and outside the classroom. This, combined with the fact that a considerable number of students experience anxiety in L2 contexts (e.g., Horwitz, 2001; Liu, 2006; Liu & Jackson, 2008), suggests that future studies should focus on the conceptualisation and effects of anxiety on the various aspects of L2 learning and use, particularly outside the classroom in a L2-dominated contexts.

3 Contributions of the Study

The present study has extended the current language anxiety research in several ways:

Firstly, it has explored the model of language anxiety by identifying the components of classroom-based anxiety and of out-of-class anxiety, and also examining the relationship between them.

Secondly, it has explored the effects of exposure to English out of class, language preferences, ideal self and ought-to self on language anxiety, particularly on out-of-class anxiety, since little research has yet been conducted.

Thirdly, it has examined the relationship between language anxiety and other learner variables in a L2-dominated context, since very few previous studies have examined this relationship in particular.

Fourthly, it has also examined the role of other learner variables in language anxiety by comparing the strength of the correlations between classroom-based anxiety, out-of-class anxiety and a range of demographical, academic and psychological variables (e.g., gender, age, educational levels, English proficiency, second language motivation, attitude towards learning English, self-confidence, etc.).

Finally, it has compared the English language anxiety experienced by Chinese learners in U.K. and in China; no such comparison has previously been conducted or described in any published studies.

The present study has also provided new insights into current language anxiety research. It has revealed the importance of the role played by L2 contexts outside the classroom in both in-class and out-of-class anxiety variables. This may be useful for explaining some of the differences between the classroom-based English language anxiety experienced by the learners in China, who were living in a L1-dominated environment, and the learners in the U.K, who were in a L2-dominated environment. In other words, L2 contexts outside the classroom may be responsible for the differences between the anxiety experienced between learners learning a L2 in their home country and those learning the L2 abroad.

Appendix One
Questionnaire in Chinese

1. → 您的主要语言是否为普通话? · 是 否

如答案为否, 您的主要语言为 _____。

2. → 学号 _____

3. → 性别: · 男 女

4. → 年龄 _____ 岁

5. → 您现在正在学习的语言课程为:

Essential English Academic English Foundation

Diploma Graduated Diploma Pre-sessional

6. → 您曾参加过下列哪种语言测试? · INTO 语言测试 雅思

(1) → 您最近一次参加 INTO 语言测试的时间是在 _____ 年 _____ 月。

总分 _____; 口语 _____; 阅读 _____; 听力 _____; 写作 _____;

(2) → 您最近一次参加雅思考试的时间是在 _____ 年 _____ 月。

总分 _____; 口语 _____; 阅读 _____; 听力 _____; 写作 _____;

7. → 您在学习现在的英语课程之前,

(1) → 从小到大曾经学习过多长时间的英语? · _____ 年零 _____ 个月

(2) → 是否曾经在国内外上过大学? · 是 否

如答案为是, 您在上大学期间学习了多久的英语? · _____ 年零 _____ 个月

(3) → 是否曾经在英国的其他学校学习过英语? · 是 否

如答案为是, 您来英国之后并在上现在的语言课程之前, 学习了多长时间的英语? · _____ 年零 _____ 个月

8. → 您目前已经在英国居住了 _____ 年零 _____ 个月。

9. → 这是否为您的第一次出国 (不含旅游)? · 是 否

如答案为否, 您以前曾经居住过多少个国家? · _____ 个 (请详细列出)

在 _____ 国居住了 _____ 年零 _____ 个月;

在 _____ 国居住了 _____ 年零 _____ 个月;

10. → 您是否曾经学习过英语以外的其他语言? · 是 否

如答案为是, 除英语外您总共学习过多少种语言? · _____ 种 (请详细列出)

_____ 语, 共计 _____ 年零 _____ 个月, 是从 _____ 年开始学习的;

_____ 语, 共计 _____ 年零 _____ 个月, 是从 _____ 年开始学习的;

在回答下列问题之前, 请先花几秒钟想一想您在平常的一天当中都做些什么:

1. → 在平常的一天当中, 除了上英语课外, 您平均花多长时间学习和使用英语?

(1) → 做作业 (不包括写论文): · _____ 小时 _____ 分

(2) → 写论文 (包括查资料): · _____ 小时 _____ 分

(3) → 和别人说英语: · _____ 小时 _____ 分

(4) → 听英语 (例如: 听英文歌曲等): · _____ 小时 _____ 分

(5) → 英语阅读: · _____ 小时 _____ 分

(6) → 英语自学 (非学校要求): · _____ 小时 _____ 分

(7) → 做需要用到英语的事情 (可做选择性回答):

a. → 看英语电影或电视节目: _____ 小时 _____ 分

b. → 写英文日记: _____ 小时 _____ 分

c. → 更新网络上的英文日志: _____ 小时 _____ 分

d. → 用英语在线聊天: _____ 小时 _____ 分

e. → 打英文游戏: _____ 小时 _____ 分

f. → 其他: _____: · _____ 小时 _____ 分

2. → 在课堂之外, 当您…… (可多选)

(1) → 在学习英语时, 会选择有 a. 中文解释 b. 纯英文解释 的参考书。

(2) → 在学习新的英文单词时, 会用 a. 中文 b. 英文 来对它做出解释。

(3) → 在阅读英语材料时, 会选用 a. 英汉字典 b. 英英字典 c. 中英双解 d. 无字典。

(4) → 在看英文电影时, 如有字幕可选, 您会选择使用

a. 中文字幕 b. 英文字幕 c. 无字幕。

请根据您读题后的第一感受在右列相应的方框中填入合适的答案：	
0、没有经历过；	1、强烈反对；
3、没有意见（既不赞同也不反对）；	2、反对；
	4、赞同；
	5、非常赞同；
一、在学习英语的过程中：	
1. 我在英语课上都会紧张。	
2. 在课堂练习环节，当我快要被老师叫到时，我会觉得自己心跳加速。	
3. 当我在英语学习中的表现比自己预期的要好时，会感到满足和快乐。	
4. 课上我会避免在全班面前用英文发言。	
5. 跟上其他课程比起来，上英语课会令我紧张不安。	
6. 完成很难的英语练习会使我有成就感。	
7. 当我在课上听不懂老师在讲什么的时候，会变得担忧和不开心。	
8. 在课堂上被老师要求回答问题会让我变得紧张和手忙脚乱。	
9. 我会在课堂上因为紧张而忘记我与原本知道的东西。	
10. 我在去上英语课之前不会感觉到紧张。	
11. 我在英语课上参与全班讨论时会觉得轻松自在。	
12. 我对学习英语所需要掌握的语法规则有畏难情绪。	
13. 我害怕老师会不断纠正我在英语课上犯的错误。	
14. 要我在英语课上主动回答问题会使我觉得难为情。	
15. 我觉得其他同学的英语都学得比自己好。	
16. 我担心自己在英语课上出错。	
17. 当我不能完全理解老师使用的某些英文单词时，我会感到担心。	
18. 如果我在课堂上当着其他同学面说英语会觉得尴尬。	
19. 我认为班里其他同学的英语口语都比我好。	
20. 上英语课时，如果要我在没有准备的情况下讲英语，我会不由自主地慌乱。	
21. 我会担心跟不上英语课的进度。	
22. 我在全班面前做英语对话时会无法确定自己的表现好不好。	

0、没有经历过；	1、强烈反对；	2、反对；
3、没有意见（既不赞同也不反对）；	4、赞同；	5、非常赞同；
二、在日常生活中：		
23. 在英语课上做演讲会使我紧张。		
24. 英语课后我还会努力学英语，因为我担心自己在课上会跟不上。		
25. 当我在英语课上参与小组讨论的时候不会紧张。		
26. 虽然我提前为英语课做了充分的准备，但是我还是觉得焦虑。		
27. 我担心自己的家庭作业完成得不够好。		
28. 我害怕班里其他同学在我说英语的时候会笑我。		
二、在日常生活中：		
29. 我可以自信地加入英国人之间的交谈。		
30. 如果我得用英文在西餐厅点菜，我会觉得紧张。		
31. 我喜欢听英语。		
32. 在大学里用英语与行政人员交谈时，我不会感到紧张。		
33. 我觉得在大部分场合中说英语会使我感到不自在。		
34. 我希望能将英文说得和母语为英语的人一样好。		
35. 当我必须在电话里讲英文的时候不会感觉到紧张。		
36. 学习英语是在浪费时间。		
37. 如果我必须用英语和商店里的售货员交谈时，会感觉紧张。		
38. 英语学习是枯燥乏味的。		
39. 在同时有英国和中国人的非正式聚会上说英语不会使我感到不自在。		
40. 我希望能日常生活中流利地使用英语。		
41. 当陌生人用英语问我问题时，我会有紧张感。		
42. 我喜欢说英语。		
43. 我与英国人交谈时不会紧张。		
44. 无论我的英语程度如何，我都有信心使用它。		
45. 当我在签手机合约时，希望有懂中文的销售人员来为我服务。因为用英文咨询相关信息会使我感到不妥。		

0、没有经历过； 3、没有意见（既不赞同也不反对）；	1、强烈反对； 4、赞同；	2、反对； 5、非常赞同；
46. 我打算学习尽可能多的英语，直到自己的英语程度达到完美。		
47. 在课外用英语和朋友们聊天不会让我感觉紧张。		
48. 即使我在讲英语时会出错，我仍然能够自信地和其他国家的人（不包括英国人）进行交流。		
49. 在银行里用英语和银行职员打交道对我来说是件轻松的事情。		
50. 我喜欢学英语。		
51. 如果我单独去看病的时候必须说英语，我不会感到紧张。		
52. 我希望自己将来能够完完全全地听懂英文广播。		
53. 用英语和其他国家的人（不包括英国人）进行交谈会使我感到不自在。		
54. 我确定我有能力学好英语。		
55. 当我得用英语问路的时候会感到紧张。		
56. 如果可以选择的话，我情愿学的是其他的东西而不是英语。		
57. 在课下用英语和老师进行交谈不会使我紧张。		
58. 我觉得我在大部分的时间和场合下有信心使用英语。		
59. 尽管我在说英语时会犯错，但我和英国人说话的时候还是有自信的。		
60. 用英语向他人对某一物品做出解释说明会使我感到不自在。		
三、我个人学英语的原因：		
61. 我需要达到英国大学的入学标准。		
62. 这是我所需要接受的高等教育的一部分。		
63. 对我将来的事业有帮助。		
64. 可方便我在世界各地旅行。		
65. 能够使我交到说英语的朋友。		
66. 有利于我遇到更多有不同文化、族群和背景的人，并与他们进行交流。		
67. 能让我更多地了解西方文化。		
68. 我需要用英语学习其他学科。		

0、没有经历过； 3、没有意见（既不赞同也不反对）；	1、强烈反对； 4、赞同；	2、反对； 5、非常赞同；
69. 有助于我适应英国的生活。		
70. 会使我变得更有素质。		
四、其他：		
71. 我觉得学不好英语会对我的将来产生消极影响。		
72. 我担心如果没有学好英语，自己会让父母失望。		

我认为自己英语的总体水平____，口语水平____，听力水平____，阅读水平____，写作水平____。

A. 非常差 B. 差 C. 比较差 D. 中等 E. 比较好 F. 好 G. 非常好

填写日期_____

Appendix Two
Questionnaire in English

1 Is your dominant language Mandarin Chinese?

Yes No

2 Student No.: _____

3 Gender:

Male Female

4 Age: _____

5 What course are you attending at the moment?

Essential English Academic English Foundation

Diploma Graduated Diploma Pre-sessional

6 What exam have you taken?

INTO Exam IELTS exam

(1) When was the most recent INTO exam which you took?

Total score: _____

Speaking: _____ Listening: _____

Reading: _____ Writing: _____

(2) When was the most recent IELTS exam which you took?

Total score: _____

Speaking: _____ Listening: _____

Reading: _____ Writing: _____

7 Before attending the current English course,

(1) how long have you learnt English since beginning? _____

(2) have you been to the university in China?

Yes No

If yes, how long have you studied English in the university? _____

(3) have you learnt English in other institutions in the U.K.?

Yes No

If yes, how long have you learnt English there? _____

8 How long have you lived in the U.K. so far? _____

9 Is this the first time to be abroad (excluding travelling)?

Yes No

If no, how many countries have you lived in? Please provide further details below:

The country name: _____ The living length: _____

The country name: _____ The living length: _____

10 Have you learnt other languages except English?

Yes No

If yes, how many languages have you learnt except English? _____

Please provide further details below:

The language: _____ The learning length: _____

When did you start it? _____

The language: _____ The learning length: _____

When did you start it? _____

Could you please think about what you normally do out of class every day for a short moment before answering the following questions?

1 In average, how long do you normally spend learning and using English out of class every day?

(1) Doing homework: _____ hours _____ minutes

(2) Writing essay: _____ hours _____ minutes

(3) Speaking English: _____ hours _____ minutes

(4) Listening to English: _____ hours _____ minutes

(5) Reading English: _____ hours _____ minutes

(6) Learning English by yourself (unrequested by the teacher):
_____ hours _____ minutes

(7) Doing some other things (optional):

(a) Watching English films or TV programmes:

_____ hours _____ minutes

(b) Writing diary: _____ hours _____ minutes

(c) Updating blogs: _____ hours _____ minutes

(d) Chatting with others online: _____ hours _____
minutes

(e) Playing games: _____ hours _____ minutes

(f) Other things: please provide details below:

2 Outside classrooms...

- (1) when learning English, I would like to choose a textbook with Chinese instructions English instructions .
- (2) when learning new English words, I would like to use Chinese English to explain it.
- (3) when reading English materials, I would like to use English-English dictionary Chinese-English English-Chinese bilingual dictionary no dictionary .
- (4) when watching films in English, if subtitle is available, I would like to use Chinese subtitles English subtitles no subtitles.

Please note that the four questions above are multiple choices.

Please indicate how far you agree or disagree with the following statements based on your first reaction?

1 = strongly disagree

2 = disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = agree

5 = strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1 I generally feel nervous in English classes.					
2 During practice sessions, I feel my heart pounding when I know that I am going to be called on.					
3 In learning English, when what I achieve is better than I expected, I feel satisfied and happy.					
4 I avoid speaking English formally in front of the whole class.					
5 Compared with other classes, I feel nervous and uncomfortable when going to English classes.					
6 Completing difficult English exercises gives me a sense of accomplishment.					
7 When I do not understand what the teacher has taught, I am worried and upset.					
8 Answering the teacher's questions in English classes makes me nervous.					
9 In English classes, I get nervous so forget things I already know.					
10 I do not feel nervous before going to an English class.					
11 I feel at ease and relaxed when taking part in whole-class discussions in English classes.					

	1	2	3	4	5
12 I felt overwhelmed when learning English grammars and rules.					
13 I am afraid because the teacher is continually correcting my mistakes in English classes.					
14 I feel embarrassed when I have to volunteer answers in English classes.					
15 I think that other students are better at learning English than I am.					
16 I worry about making mistakes in English classes.					
17 I worry about being unable to understand some English words the teacher has spoken.					
18 I feel embarrassed if I speak English in front of other students.					
19 I think that the other students' oral English is better than mine.					
20 I panic if I have to say something in English without preparation.					
21 I worry about being unable to follow English classes.					
22 I feel unsure when performing a dialogue in front of the class.					
23 Delivering a presentation in English classes makes me nervous.					
24 I work hard on my English after classes, since I worry that I am unable to follow them.					
25 I do not feel nervous when taking part in group discussions in English classes.					
26 Although I am well prepared for English classes, I feel anxious about them.					
27 I worry that my homework is not good enough.					
28 I worry that when I speak English other students will laugh at me.					

	1	2	3	4	5
29 I am able to join in a conversation among British people with confidence.					
30 I feel nervous if I have to order a meal at a Western restaurant in English.					
31 I like hearing English spoken.					
32 I do not feel nervous when I talk to an administrator at the university.					
33 Speaking English on most occasions makes me feel uncomfortable.					
34 I would like to be able to speak English as well as a native speaker in the future.					
35 I do not feel nervous when I have to speak English on the phone.					
36 Learning English is a waste of time.					
37 I feel nervous when I have to communicate in English with a salesperson in a shop.					
38 Learning English is boring.					
39 I do not feel uncomfortable when I speak English at an informal gathering where both British and Chinese people are present.					
40 I wish that I could fluently speak English in my daily life.					
41 I feel nervous when a stranger asks me a question in English.					
42 I like speaking English.					
43 I am not nervous when I talk to British people.					
44 No matter how good or bad my English is, I am confident using it.					

	1	2	3	4	5
45	When I sign a mobile phone contract, I would prefer to be served by a salesperson who speaks Chinese, because I feel unsure when asking for relevant information in English.				
46	I intend to study English as much as possible, until my English is perfect.				
47	Chatting with my friends in English out of class does not make me feel nervous.				
48	Even if I make mistakes when speaking English, I am still confident communicating with other foreigners.				
49	Making an oral request at the bank in English is an easy thing for me.				
50	I like learning English.				
51	I do not feel nervous if I have to speak English when I see a doctor on my own.				
52	I would like to be able to understand English radio fully in the future.				
53	Using English to communicate with other foreigners makes me feel uncomfortable.				
54	I am sure that I am able to learn English well.				
55	I feel nervous when I have to ask for street directions in English.				
56	If I had been given a choice, I would have preferred to learn something other than English.				
57	Having a conversation with the teacher in English out of class does not make me nervous.				
58	I think I am confident using English at most times and on most occasions.				
59	Although I make mistakes when speaking English, I am confident when speaking with British people.				

- 60 Using English to describe an object to others makes me feel uncomfortable.

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The reasons I am learning English:

- 61 I have to reach the English level set by the university.
- 62 It is part of my higher education.
- 63 It will help me with my future career.
- 64 It will help me travel to various places in the world.
- 65 It will help me make friends with English-speaking people.
- 66 It will help me meet and communicate with more people from different cultures, ethnicities and backgrounds.
- 67 It will help me know more about Western culture.
- 68 I have to use English to study other subjects.
- 69 It helps me fit in with life in the U.K.
- 70 (a)
- 71 I think that failure to learn English will have a negative effect on my future.
- 72 I worry that if I fail to learn English, I could let my parents down.

	1	2	3	4	5
61					
62					
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71					
72					

- (a) Item 70 was not taken into account in the research at all, because it was not properly worded.

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