

# Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom

A One-Year Study Of The Connections Between Anxiety,  
Enjoyment, Performance and Individual Differences in  
Adult Education

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*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*



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## **ABSTRACT**

Emotions, both positive and negative, play an important role in foreign language learning. However, whereas a great number of studies have investigated the construct and sources of negative emotions such as foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) in second language learning, whereas less attention has been paid to the construct and sources of positive emotions such as foreign language enjoyment (FLE). The aims of this one-year longitudinal study are: (1) to determine the level of FLCA and FLE among adult EFL learners; (2) to explore the progress of the relationship between FLCA and FLE throughout the academic year; (3) to gauge the effect of FLCA and FLE on adult learners' performance in EFL, measuring their grammatical accuracy and communicative skills; (4) to examine the relationship between FLCA and FLE and a range of individual variables (age, gender, proficiency levels, study abroad experience, language repertoire, age they started learning English, educational levels and speaking English outside the classroom; and, (5) to explore the sources of FLCA and FLE that students experience in class from the point of view of students and their teachers. The data for the study was gathered at two public language schools (known in Catalan as *Escola Oficial d'Idiomes* or *EOI*) in the Barcelona area at the beginning and at the end of the academic year 2015-2016. In total, 237 bilingual Spanish/Catalan EFL learners at different proficiency levels (B1, B2, C1) with an age range between 16 to 68 participated. The quantitative and qualitative data was obtained through three sections of a questionnaire, a language test and a semi-structured interview. Results indicate that 1) Students experienced FLCA and FLE from time to time and they experienced more FLE than FLCA at the beginning and at the end of the year in addition, they experienced higher levels of anxiety at the beginning of the year than at the end, whereas there was no significant difference between

the level of FLE at the beginning and at the end of the year. 2) There was a significant negative relationship between FLCA and FLE that became weaker at the end of the academic year. 3) FLE had a significant positive effect on students' performance, and FLCA had a significant negative effect. 4) Regarding the individual variables, there were mixed results. Some variables were not significant at all, such as age and educational level; and others changed throughout the course, such as gender or speaking English outside the classroom. 5) The sources of FLCA and FLE reported by language learners and teachers were connected to classroom-related factors; learner-related factors or teacher-related factors. This current study extended several other previous studies and contributed new aspects to FLCA and FLE: while as speculated, FLCA had a detrimental effect on the language learning process, there was evidence that FLE can facilitate language learning. Language instructors must therefore be aware of the presence of FLCA and FLE so they can find various ways to minimise FLCA and increase students' FLE.

**Keywords:** *Positive emotions, negative emotions, individual differences, language skills, mixed-methods, foreign language anxiety, foreign language enjoyment*

## **RESUMEN**

Las emociones, tanto positivas como negativas, juegan un papel muy importante en el aprendizaje. A pesar de ello, la mayoría de estudios sobre las emociones en adquisición de lenguas se centran en las emociones negativas, con menos atención dedicada a las positivas. Por ello, el presente estudio pretende: (1) determinar el nivel de FLCA y de FLE entre estudiantes adultos de inglés como lengua extranjera; (2) explorar la relación entre estos dos constructos a lo largo de un curso académico; (3) medir su efecto en los resultados académicos de los estudiantes en un examen de corrección gramatical y competencia comunicativa; (4) examinar cómo se relacionan con otras variables individuales (edad, género, nivel de lengua, experiencias en otros países, repertorio lingüístico, edad a la que comenzaron a estudiar inglés, nivel educativo y uso del inglés fuera del aula); y, (5) explorar las fuentes de FLCA y FLE desde el punto de vista de profesores y estudiantes. Para ello contamos con los datos de 237 estudiantes de inglés como lengua extranjera y 3 de sus profesores en dos EOI del área metropolitana de Barcelona, recogidos durante el curso 2015-16 a través de un cuestionario, una prueba de nivel y entrevistas. Los resultados indican que (1) se reporta más FLE que FLCA al principio y al final del curso, y niveles más altos de FLCA al principio del curso, mientras que el nivel de FLE no cambia significativamente; (2) hay una relación significativa negativa entre FLCA y FLE, que se hace más débil al final de curso; (3) ambas emociones tienen un efecto significativo y opuesto sobre los resultados de los estudiantes; (4) la relación entre ambas emociones y otras variables individuales ofrece resultados poco concluyentes, ya que algunas variables no son significativas y otras cambian a lo largo del curso; y, (5) las emociones reportadas surgen del contexto, los propios aprendices y los profesores. A través de este estudio, hemos explorado los resultados de otros estudios en el contexto del



aprendizaje de adultos, y hemos contribuido a los datos aportados por otros autores: FLCA tiene un efecto negativo sobre el aprendizaje de lenguas, mientras que FLE contribuye a su mejora. Por tanto, es importante que los profesores sean conscientes del rol que juegan estas emociones y desarrollen estrategias para gestionarlas.

*Palabras clave:* Emociones positivas, emociones negativas, diferencias individuales, habilidades lingüísticas, métodos mixtos, ansiedad, disfrute

## **INTRODUCTION**

My interest in looking at the effect of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) and Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE) on language learning and performance relates to various personal experiences I have had in different language classrooms in my home country (Iran) and in Spain. As a language learner, I have experienced language anxiety many times and have observed on various occasions the feeling of anxiety and discomfort that my classmates felt when they participated in different activities, especially oral ones: rashes, shaky voice, refusal to participate in different activities, and such. In my own experience, high levels of FLCA can have a negative impact on language learning, just as low levels of anxiety can help students try harder or take more risks. On the other hand, I have also experienced FLE as a foreign language learner, especially in some activities such as working in pairs or groups, or when playing games, and I found that this positive emotion helped me learn a lot better and made me feel a lot better in class. Out of this personal interest, a few years ago I started to explore the concept of FLCA while working on my master's final paper, *The Effect of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety On Reading Performance*, at Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (2013). For this paper, I observed about one-hundred language learners and interviewed some of them and their teachers to find out about the sources and the effects

of FLCA and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety on reading performance. In that study, more than half of the participants reported that they experienced mid to high levels of anxiety on different occasions such as tests, oral activities, reading activities, etc. and they generally reported that anxiety had a negative effect on their own language learning.

I first came across what would be the core of this thesis in a recent study conducted by Dewaele et al. (2014), in which they investigated both positive and negative emotions in foreign language learning to look at the possible connections between them. I felt that this more inclusive approach would enrich my own understanding of the role emotions play in language learning. Dewaele's paper sparked my interest, and I started reading other similar studies conducted by different researchers from all over the world (Dewaele et al., 2014; Horwitz et al., 1986; Imai, 2010; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

Based on these personal positive and negative experiences, on my initial research interests and on an exploration of the existing literature, I can conclude that learning a foreign language is not just associated to the cognitive process: Affective factors such as anxiety and enjoyment can play a crucial role as well. It is thus essential to explore to what extent these two emotions emerge in the classroom, what triggers them and how they interact: Do positive and negative emotions cancel each other? How do they interact

throughout time? Should foreign language teachers focus on decreasing the level of FLCA and/or on increasing the level of FLE? The present study attempts to answer these questions by exploring FLCA and FLE in adult EFL classrooms at two different points in time, using qualitative measures such as interviews and open-ended questions and quantitative measures such as questionnaire and a language test.

Even though emotions play such a key role in students' experience of learning a foreign language, they have been largely ignored by SLA research (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 9), particularly as regards the impact of FLE on language performance. Moreover, a literature review shows that more attention has been paid to the effect of negative emotion such as anxiety on SLA, and few studies have focused on positive emotions such as FLE. The present study aims to fill this gap by examining both FLE and FLCA in order to: (1) measure the levels of FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of academic year; (2) explore the relationship between these two variables at the beginning and at the end of academic year; (3) explore the effect of FLCA and FLE on students' performance in speaking, listening, writing, reading and grammar accuracy; (4) examine the possible relationship between FLCA and FLE and some individual variables (age, gender, proficiency levels, study abroad experience, language repertoire, age they started learning English and speaking English outside the classroom and

educational level); and, (5) explore the sources of FLCA and FLE from the point of view of students and their teachers. Accordingly, we formulated these research questions and their corresponding hypotheses, as shown in table 1 below.

Table 1. Research questions and hypotheses

<b>Research questions</b>	<b>Hypotheses</b>
RQ1. What is the level of FLCA and FLE among EFL learners at the beginning and at the end of the academic year? Are there any significant differences between the level of FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of academic year?	H1. There are no significant differences between the level of FLCA and FLE when measured longitudinally.
RQ2. Is there any correlation between FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of the year?	H2. There is no correlation between FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of the year.

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<p>RQ3. Is there any effect of age, gender, proficiency levels, study abroad experience, language repertoire, age they started learning English, speaking English outside the classroom and educational level on FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of the year?</p>	<p>H3. a. There is no significant relationship between learners' FLCA and FLE and age at the beginning and at the end of the year.</p> <p>H3. b. There is no significant relationship between learners' FLCA and FLE and gender at the beginning and at the end of the year.</p> <p>H3. c. There is no significant relationship between learners' FLCA and FLE and proficiency levels at the beginning and at the end of the year.</p> <p>H3. d. There is no significant relationship between learners' FLCA and FLE and study abroad experience at the beginning and at the end of the year.</p> <p>H3. e. There is no significant relationship between learners' FLCA and FLE and language repertoire at the beginning and at the end of the year.</p> <p>H3. f. There is no significant relationship between learners' FLCA and FLE and age they started English at the beginning and at the end of the year.</p> <p>H3. g. There is no significant relationship between learners' FLCA and FLE and speaking English outside the classroom at the beginning and at the end of the year.</p>
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	H3. h. There is no significant relationship between learners' FLCA and FLE and educational levels at the beginning and at the end of the year.
RQ4. Is there any relationship between FLCA and FLE and foreign language performance at the beginning and at the end of the year?	H4. There is no relationship between FLCA and FLE and foreign language performance at the beginning and at the end of the year.
RQ5. What are the sources of FLCA and FLE?	There is no hypothesis for the last research question.

In order to answer these questions, we first present a review of the literature in which we define FLCA and FLE, and go on to explain how different researchers have analysed emotions in the foreign language classroom and the instruments they have designed. In the first chapter, we also provide information about the results obtained in previous studies regarding both positive and negative emotions. In the second chapter, we present the research method, including information about participants, a description and justification of the research design and the instruments used. The third

chapter provides an overview of the results, which are then analysed and compared to the results obtained in previous studies. The last chapter presents the conclusions and limitations of this study and suggestions for further research. For the sake of transparency and accountability, all data (once anonymised) is available in the appendices.

Ultimately, we hope to contribute to a deeper understanding of how much FLCA and FLE learners typically experience, their effects on performance and their relation to a range of individual variables. In this way, EFL teachers can be encouraged to further their training with strategies to manage these emotions effectively, helping students build resilience and autonomy, and creating more efficient learning environments for their students.





## **CHAPTER ONE: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES, FLCA AND FLE**

This chapter presents a review of the key literature on emotions in the foreign language classroom, as encompassed within individual differences. We start by revising the concept of individual differences and different approaches to their classification. In the second part, we focus on anxiety in foreign language learning, different measurements of FLCA, its manifestations and likely sources of FLCA. In the third part, we revise the new focus on FLE, the effect of positive emotions such as enjoyment and motivation on foreign language learning, and some of the sources of FLE. At the end of the first chapter, we will revise these ideas in order to summarise the approach we have adopted in our study, the terms FLCA and FLE, and the tools to measure them we will develop later in chapter 2.

### **1. Introduction: From behaviour to cognition and on to emotion**

Learning a second language is a laborious task which has attracted applied linguists' attention for more than a century. In the days of behaviourist thinking, the view of teaching and learning would focus on patterns of behaviour, and did not put that much emphasis on learners and their capabilities. By entering the cognitive era after the mid- 1960s there was a

shift of paradigm in educational psychology that put the focus on students' mental processes, the learning potential of individuals and what they bring to the language classroom. Alongside the cognitive process, affective factors have gradually become more relevant, to the point that already in 1963 did Hilgard, well-known for his study of human learning and cognition, note that "purely cognitive theories of learning will be rejected unless a role is assigned to affectivity" (p.267). As more research on neuroscience emerges, the role of emotions in language learning has become well established.

Ellis (2004) states that, "learners vary not only in the speed of acquisition but also in their ultimate level of achievement with a few achieving native-like competence and others stopping for short" (p.526). In some cases, language learning can potentially become a traumatic experience, and it may have a negative effect on language learners' self-esteem (Zheng, 2008), to the point that it may even cause learners to abandon their studies. There are many factors that can hinder or boost learners' progress in the target language which are largely dependent on students' specific features and well-being, regardless of methodology or other external conditions. As a result, some studies produce inconsistent and unstable results under similar circumstances across different contexts. The bottom line is that results are different as long as participants are different at specific moments in time. This notion brings the concept of individual differences into the picture and provides the

starting point for the design of the present study, as we seek to connect relatively stable individual factors with more volatile emotional states and see how they impact students' performance.

### **1.1. Different Approaches to Individual Differences**

In order to design this research project we took learners and their individual differences as our starting point. Dörnyei (2006) characterises individual differences as “dimensions of enduring personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree” (p.42).

In the field of ESL, individual differences such as age, gender, language aptitude, learning style, motivation, anxiety, learning beliefs, learning strategies and such can affect students' learning in both the speed of acquisition and in their ultimate level of achievement (Horwitz et al., 1986; Oxford, 1999; Ellis, 2004). Indeed, the individual factors that affect learners' language progress are “potentially infinite and very difficult to classify in a reliable manner” (Ellis, 1986, p.10). The review of the literature on individual differences yields a long list of items and many different taxonomies that reflect different approaches to individual differences.

Ellis (1986) divided individual differences into personal and general factors. The personal factor refers to individuals' second language learning emotions such as anxiety. Ellis divided the general factors into modifiable and

nonmodifiable factors. The former refers to those factors which can be changed during the process of learning a new language, such as motivation. The latter refers to those ones that cannot be changed, such as aptitude. Williams & Burden (1997) categorized individual differences into two groups: obvious and less obvious. Obvious features included age, gender, personality, aptitude, intelligence and motivation; whereas less obvious features included cognitive styles and strategies, anxiety and preparedness to take risks. In 2004, Ellis categorized individual differences into four groups: cognitive abilities, including intelligence, language aptitude and memory; propensities such as cognitive and affective qualities involving preparedness or orientation to language learning, learning style, motivation, anxiety and personality; learner cognitions about L2 learning, the learner's beliefs about L2 learning; and learner actions.

Several researchers have explored individual variables in connection to second language learning, investigating the effects of several of them on student's learning. For example, Cook (1991) set out to review a wide range of individual variables such as motivation, aptitude, learning strategies, age, personality which can have impact on learning a second language. Gardner & MacIntyre (1985) focused on language aptitude, personality, attitudes and motivation as individual differences that impact learning a second language. Ehrman & Betty (2003) studied the effect of several individual differences

such as learning styles and strategies, and several affective variables i.e. motivation, self-efficacy, tolerance of ambiguity, anxiety, aptitude, gender, culture, age on foreign language learning. Pawlak (2012) discussed about the effect of several individual differences such as age, intelligence, aptitude, cognitive and learning styles, learning strategies, motivation, anxiety, beliefs and willingness to communicate on second language learning.

Among these individual differences, we have chosen to focus on affective variables (anxiety and enjoyment), performance and some highly visible individual differences that can be easily explored within the average ESL classroom: age, gender, proficiency levels, study abroad experience, language repertoire, age they started learning English, speaking English outside the classroom and educational level.

## **1.2. The role of affective factors in SLA**

Emotions can be a major reason for language learners to continue studying a foreign language or to stop doing it (Arnold & Brown, 1999; Ellis, 1995; Meyer & Turner, 2006). As language learning occurs in social interaction, emotions play a crucial role in this process, turning the foreign language classroom into “an emotional place” (Pekrun, 2014, p. 6) in which emotions are “fundamentally important motivators” (MacIntyre, MacKinnon & Clément, 2009, p. 47). Affective factors have been present more or less

overtly in the field of SLA, despite the major focus of research being on measuring learning and language use (Garrett & Young, 2009).

Garrett et al. (2009) found that language learners experienced 255 positive emotions and 69 negative ones, triggered by the teachers' voices, social relations, cultural learning and language awareness. Emotions such as enjoyment, pride, hope, relief, relaxation, anxiety, anger, shame or fault, boredom and hopelessness can affect learners' achievement (Pekrun, Goetz, Titz & Perry, 2002a), as in the foreign language classroom language skills are intrinsically connected to emotions (Pishghadam, Zabetipour & Aminzadeh, 2016) - anger in listening, enjoyment and pride in speaking, shame in listening and speaking, hope, boredom, and hopelessness in writing and listening. Affective factors have also been proven to impact cognitive processes such as memory and perception (Parkinson, Totterdell, Briner & Reynolds, 1996). Fredrickson (2001, 2003, 2004, 2013) observed that negative emotions have a negative effect on behavior and health of individuals, whereas positive emotions can promote health and well-being of individuals.

At first it seems that researchers tend to agree that negative emotions can be considered detrimental to the foreign language learning process whereas positive emotions can facilitate it (Imai, 2010; Dewaele et al., 2014), but a

review of the literature yields a rather more nuanced picture. Although most studies found that negative emotions have a detrimental effect on foreign language learning, others showed that negative emotions could have a positive effect on language learning. Gregersen, MacIntyre & Meza (2014), based on the Positive Psychology movement, argue that negative emotions do not always play a negative role, as they can sometimes help learners overcome obstacles.

As a result of such findings, questions about the complex relationship between positive and negative emotions in foreign language learning were raised, in an attempt to see such emotions not as two sides of the same coin but rather as interconnected emotional states. MacIntyre & Gregersen (2012) argued in this sense that “positive emotion has a different function from negative emotion; they are not opposite ends of the same spectrum” (p. 193). Consequently, it was advisable to consider both in order to understand the role emotions play in the FL classroom.

## **2. The concept of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA)**

In the following section we present an overview of the concept of anxiety in the literature, focusing on its relevance in the field of SLA in formal education contexts and the specificity of FLCA. We describe different types



of anxiety and their relationship to learning and foreign language learning in particular, and revise studies of anxiety in the context of foreign language learning; different ways in which researchers measured the anxiety that language learners experience in the class; the possible relationship between FLCA and language performance; the possible relationship between FLCA and different individual variables; and, finally, the sources of FLCA.

## **2.1. What is anxiety?**

A multitude of studies in all these years have produced a lot of controversy about the definition, taxonomy, measurements, components, causes and effects of anxiety, and this huge number of opposing views and ideas on a construct makes it rather impossible to come to a clear-cut consensus. Regarding the complexity of this term, we fully agree with Brown (2000) in that “even though we all know what anxiety is and we all have experienced anxiousness, anxiety is still not easy to define in a simple sentence” (p.150).

Looking back to the early twentieth century, Freud (1920) connected the notion of anxiety to feelings of “fear” or “fright”. In later decades, Scovel (1978) saw anxiety as a feeling of “apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object” (p.134). Unlike Freud (1920) and Scovel (1978), Spielberger (1976) made a distinction between fear and anxiety, defining the latter as “subjective feelings of tension, apprehension,

nervousness, and worry that are experienced by an individual,” (Spielberger, 1983, p.1), thus capturing the notion of indirectness introduced by Scovel earlier. In this view, anxiety is not necessarily uniform in its impact, with the same situation triggering different levels of anxiety depending on an individual’s proneness to it.

Regarding the scope of its impact, anxiety operates in two areas, an affective and a cognitive one, which were referred to as “emotionality” and “worry” respectively (Liebert & Morris, 1967). Sarason (1986) defined worry as “distressing preoccupations and concerns about impending events” (p.21). Morris, Davies & Hutchings (1981) described emotionality as “one’s perception of the physiological-affective elements of the anxiety experience, that is, indications of autonomic arousal and unpleasant feeling states such as nervousness and tension” (p.541). All people experience anxiety at some point during their lives, linked to several physical manifestations such as accelerated heart rate, sweating, discomfort, chest pain, stomach pain, dizziness, trembling, insomnia and psychological symptoms such as fear and avoidance behavior (Chang, 1999). Leary (1982) connected anxiety to a pattern of visible behaviours, as people experiencing anxiety “squirm in their seats, fidget, play with their hair, clothes or other manipulable objects, stutter or stammer as they talk, and generally appear jittery and nervous” (p.110). In

short, anxiety has an impact on an individual's cognitive and emotional state, and is manifested through a series of involuntary actions.

## **2.2. Different types of anxiety**

The construct of anxiety has been investigated and observed through a variety of perspectives, as researchers utilized different approaches and tools to measure it. These approaches to anxiety inform the development of measuring tools in the field, which we will later adapt to our context of research. When choosing to focus on the degree of stability, anxiety can be classed into state and trait anxiety; by focussing on context, a range of situation-specific anxieties can be categorised; whereas a focus on impact divides anxiety into facilitative and debilitating.

Spielberger (1966) defined state anxiety as “a transitory state or condition of the organism that varies in intensity and fluctuates over time” (p.12). State anxiety is thus a passing feature of a person that is associated with an immediate emotional experience affecting the person's cognitive ability, such as the apprehension that some people experience before a job interview. Trait anxiety, on the other hand, is a stable tendency to become anxious in a wide number of situations (Spielberger, 1983). MacIntyre (1995) suggests that “state anxiety is a reaction and trait anxiety represents the tendency to react in an anxious manner” (p.95). A scale named The State-Trait Anxiety

Inventory (Spielberger, 1983) was designed, consisting of two sections: a state anxiety subscale and a trait anxiety subscales, each one comprising 20 statements which are rated by subjects using a Likert-type format.

Facilitative and debilitating anxiety refer to the possible effect of anxiety on performance. As the names suggest, anxiety can be categorized according to whether it contributes to or undermines performance (Alpert & Haber, 1960; Scovel, 1978), or, as Oxford (1999) calls them, 'helpful' and 'harmful' anxiety. This classification challenges the notion that anxiety can only be associated with negative effects, suggesting that facilitative anxiety can motivate individuals and put them in a state of enthusiasm to face a challenging task. Debilitating anxiety, on the contrary, places lot of stress on individuals, to the extent that they withdraw and give up (Alpert & Haber, 1960; Kleinmann, 1977). In this sense, Brown (2000) argues that facilitative anxiety can be described positively as "some concern – apprehension over a task to be accomplished (...) Otherwise a learner might be inclined to be 'wishy-washy', lacking that facilitative tension that keeps one poised [and] alert" (p.151).

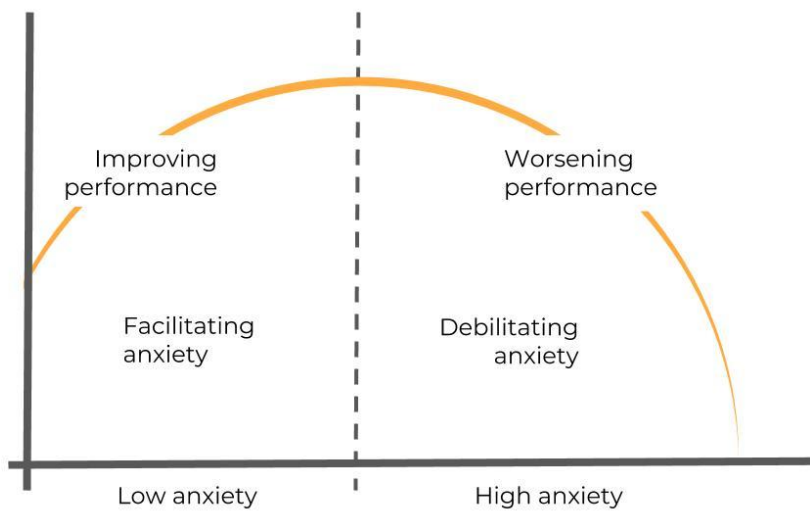


Figure 1. Inverted “U” relationship between anxiety and performance, based on MacIntyre (1995).

Several studies have shown the benefits of facilitative anxiety in learning foreign languages (Young, 1992), and the dual effects of anxiety on performance can be explained by referring to the inverted-U or curvilinear relationship between performance and anxiety. As described in the Yerkes-Dodson law, when anxiety is low, performance is low; and when there is an increase in anxiety, the same amount of increase in performance occurs and this continues up to a specific peak level (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908; MacIntyre, 1995). After that peak level, as anxiety increases, performance decreases. The amount of anxiety before the peak level is the facilitative one that can lead to a better performance, whereas the anxiety level after the peak point which hinders normal performance is debilitating anxiety. It is worth noting that the curvilinear relationship between performance and anxiety

mainly relies on the level of task difficulty (Smith, Sarason & Sarason, 1982), so that when there is an easy task, anxiety does not hinder performance and sometimes boosts the performance through increased effort, and when the task is difficult, anxiety plays a debilitating role and leading to interference with performance, for the increased effort may not suffice to counteract the task-irrelevant cognitive interference which is the results of anxiety (see figure 1 above).

Situation-specific anxiety refers to anxiety as a trait that certain individuals experience in specific contexts (Spielberger, Anton & Bedell, 1976). MacIntyre & Gardner (1994b) described this type of anxiety as “the probability of becoming anxious in a particular type of situation such as during tests (labeled as ‘test anxiety’), when solving mathematics problems (‘math anxiety’), or when speaking a second language (language anxiety)” (p.2). Situation-specific anxiety contributes to a better grasp of the concept of anxiety because it focuses on various aspects of a situation and thus can provide information about the recurring triggers of anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b). Early studies viewed FLCA as a manifestation of other types of anxiety, such as trait anxiety, test anxiety or public-speaking anxiety (Scovel, 1991). More recently, researchers have generally agreed that FLCA is a unique and distinct type of anxiety which cannot be classed under only one type of anxiety, which is why Horwitz et al. (1986) introduced the notion of

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) as an umbrella term that describes anxiety that occurs in specific learning contexts and encompasses different types within it, which was measured using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale.

As previously mentioned, the history of FLCA studies witnessed inconsistent and sometimes conflicting results that made comparison across studies difficult and consequently prevented researchers from gaining a full understanding of FLCA and its effects on learning and performance. Horwitz et al. (1986) attributed this level of inconsistency and discrepant findings regarding the relationship between anxiety and performance to the absence of a reliable and valid anxiety measure in the field of SLA, and to the inadequate conceptualization of language anxiety within the different types of anxiety. Before the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was designed by Horwitz et al. (1986), researchers used other scales available, but these measures did not test an individual's response to the specific stimulus of language learning, as they were designed for and considered different types of anxiety and contexts.

The FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) consists of a list of 33 statements that describe, using the first person pronoun, a range of “negative performance expectancies and social comparison, psychophysiological

symptoms and avoidance behaviors” (p.559) that describe the impact of anxiety typical of the FL class, such as “I never feel quite sure of myself when speaking in my foreign language class”; “I keep thinking that the other students are better at language than I am”; or “I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make” (see Appendix A ). The items in the FLCAS are based on “student self-report, clinical experience and a review of related instruments” (p.560). In order to measure their degree of FLCA, users are prompted to assess to what extent they agree with every item on a five-point Likert scale, from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”, thus obtaining a value that places them within a high-, mid- or low-anxiety group. Through answering these items learners are engaged in a process of self- reporting on some aspects of their language learning.

The FLCAS has been shown to have an internal reliability of .93 and test-retest reliability over eight weeks of  $r = .83$ ,  $p = .001$  (Horwitz et al., 1986). The 33 items in the FLCAS have significant part-whole correlations with the total scale. These items are balanced for wording and are concerned with the conceptually and clinically important aspects of anxiety. Criterion-related studies that are related to the construct validity of the scale have been conducted. This construct validation shows that language anxiety is a



phenomenon related to but different and distinguishable from other specific anxieties.

### **2.3. The relationship between anxiety and learning**

Because of its impact on cognition and behaviour, anxiety has an obvious, if hard to measure, impact on learning, both positive and negative. Anxiety undermines people's cognitive processes, affects their social interactions and challenges their self-image. As learning occurs in and is constructed through social interaction with our peers and instructors, when anxiety filters, so to speak, our social interactions it is also limiting our learning opportunities.

Firstly, anxiety impacts the information processing ability of individuals, which can limit their creativity (Perkun, 1992). The basis for the negative effects of anxiety from a cognitive perspective was described by Eysenck (1979), who argued that anxiety disturbs cognitive processes by diverting a person's resources away from such processes. Cognitive activities such as worry and anxiety associated with a certain task always have a negative impact on the performance. This is due to the fact that anxiety, worry and cognitive self concern takes attention away from the task at hand reducing one's focus. Subjects with high anxiety are essentially trying to manage the task and their anxiety associated with the task simultaneously. This results in diminished performance in comparison to subjects who are not anxious as

they are able to give complete attention and focus to the task at hand (Eynsenck, 1979, p. 364).

Secondly, and as described in the previous pages, anxiety affects people's behaviour, undermining their social interactions. Leary (1982) classified anxiety-fuelled behaviours into three categories: 1) arousal-mediated response; 2) disaffiliative behaviour; and 3) image-protection behavior (cited in Young, 1991, p.429). Arousal-mediated responses are "the side-effects of individual's activation of their sympathetic nervous system" (cited in Young, 1991, p.429), such as sweating or fidgeting. Disaffiliative behaviours are defined as those kinds of actions that can undermine social interactions, typically by causing fewer initiations of conversation, less engagement in conversations, more silent periods in the middle of conversations, fewer instances of silence breaking and less speaking in front of an audience (Young, 1991). Typical examples of image-protection behaviour include nodding and smiling frequently, seldom interrupting others and constant communicative feedback. Anxious individuals may use these behaviours in order to project an image of themselves as "friendly, agreeable, polite, interested, and even sociable, without incurring any social risks" (Leary, 1982, p.114), thus effectively building a wall around them that prevents them from seeking help or concentrating on the task at hand.

It is important to note that the relations which exist among anxiety, cognition and behavior are recursive or cyclical, influencing one another in different directions. For instance, anxiety can affect behavior negatively by debilitating cognitive ability, and simultaneously behavior can aggravate anxiety from another direction. MacIntyre (1995) further clarifies the relation among anxiety, behavior and cognition through an example in which a foreign language student falls into a vicious circle of anxiety. Students in a second language class can feel anxious and nervous when called upon to answer a question. Their attention becomes divided as a result of the nervousness and anxiety which can have a negative impact on their intellectual performance. This further leads to a negative perception of one's intellectual ability resulting in further damage to their performance (see figure 2).

Figure 2. Recursive relations among anxiety, cognition and behavior, from



MacIntyre (1995).

## **2.4. The specific nature of anxiety in the field of SLA**

“I JUST KNOW I HAVE SOME KIND OF DISABILITY: I can't learn a foreign language no matter how hard I try.”

“When I'm in my Spanish class I just freeze! I can't think of a thing when my teacher calls on me. My mind goes blank.”

“I feel like my French teacher is some kind of Martian death ray: I never know when he'll point at me” (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986, p.125).

Such statements surely sound familiar to many language teachers. For many students, language courses are the most problematic and anxiety-provoking of all the courses that they take (Horwitz et al., 1986; Campbell & Ortiz, 1991). For many years, teachers and educational psychologists have held the notion that learning a second or foreign language can be an unsettling and distressing situation, leading to uneasiness and discomfort. One of the earliest assertions made about FLCA was by Stengal (1939) who believed that “use of a new language may cause a sense of shame which results from feelings of insufficiency” (p.211). Language learning is an unsettling psychological experience, due to the fact that it directly threatens people's language ego, self image and worldview (Guiora, 1983) by forcing them to engage socially through the foreign language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a). Language anxiety then can be defined as “the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1999, p. 27).

Despite the experience of language teachers and learners and their awareness that FLCA exists and affects language learning and use negatively, early studies failed to determine how this worked in practice (Horwitz & Young, 1991), or they sometimes generated mixed and opposing results. In the early studies reviewed by Scovel (1978) an approach named “anxiety transfer approach” presented language anxiety as a transfer of state or trait anxiety. Scovel argued that, “scholars have been unable to establish a clear-cut relationship between anxiety and overall foreign language achievement” (Cited in Horwitz et al., 1986, p.125)<sup>1</sup>. Be it a trait, state or test anxiety, the “anxiety transfer” approach showed puzzling results within and across different studies. In discussing this problem, Scovel (1978) argued that the apparent contradictions regarding the effects of anxiety on learning were caused by the inadequate conceptualization of the term, and the absence of a reliable and valid anxiety measure that was specific to foreign language learning.

A decade elapsed and nothing special happened to change this confusion regarding the construct of anxiety and its relationship with learning and

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<sup>1</sup> Scovel (1978) reviewed 4 studies: Tuck (1976) on the relationship between French class anxiety and four performance indices. Swain and Burnaby (1976) on the negative correlation between language anxiety and one measure of child’s oral proficiency. Chastain (1975) on the anxiety levels of college beginning learners of French, German and Spanish. Kleinmann (1975) on facilitating and debilitating anxiety among Spanish-speaking and Arabic-speaking ESL students.

performance. The string of conflicting studies and results continued until Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope published their seminal study on Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) in 1986, in which they argued that the anxiety language learners experience in the classroom is not a personal trait, and is not necessarily connected to general anxiety, but rather that it is specific to the foreign language classroom context. These authors paved the way for the subsequent anxiety research by introducing a situation-specific type of anxiety (FLCA) which they related to three parallel and interconnected anxieties, i.e. “communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety”. Horwitz et al. (1986) defined FLCA as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feeling, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p.128). In 1989, MacIntyre and Gardner meticulously evaluated Horwitz et al.’s proposal and situated the concept of FLCA in the context of the psychology of social anxieties. They used Tobias’s model of the cognitive consequences of anxiety arousal (1979) to account for the negative correlation between anxiety levels and performance in foreign language learning, stating that “anxiety leads to deficits in learning and performance” (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, p.271), thus becoming the starting point of many subsequent studies about FLCA and its effects on the language classroom. Tobias’s model of the cognitive consequences of anxiety

arousal was concerned with both performance and cognitive processing in learning, which he defined as a cognitive process comprising three stages - input, processing and output. According to Tobias (1979), within this three-stage model of learning an increased effort on the part of the learners is required to compensate for the negative and debilitating effects of anxiety at any of the stages. Tobias (1979) mentioned that “since anxiety is a process that is essentially cognitively mediated, anxiety can affect learning only indirectly by impacting on the cognitive processes mediating learning at various stages” (p. 575). Tobias continues to note that if an opportunity to compensate is not provided, anxiety arousal will inhibit and debilitate all subsequent learning stages. Tobias’s model is important in anxiety research literature since it became the grounds on which key authors in the field articulated their research. MacIntyre & Gardner (1994a), for example, studied the sociolinguistic aspects of second language and FLCA, also establishing that anxiety-arousal interferes with the learner’s cognitive ability to take in, process and produce foreign language. Additionally, two important models of anxiety subsequently emerged from Tobias’s research, an interference retrieval model (Woodrow, 2006) that “relates to anxiety as inhibiting the recall of previously learned material at the output stage” and a skills deficit model that “relates to problems at the input and processing stages of learning, as a result of poor study habits, or a lack of skills” (p.310).

Reviewing literature also reveals some support for Tobias's model is still prevalent in recent studies (MacIntyre & Gardner 1994a; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 2000).

Another important referent in the field of SLA, Stephen Krashen, included in one of his six hypotheses on language learning the Affective Filter Hypothesis (1982), in which he claimed that FLCA is caused by what he called the affective filter. In this hypothesis, Krashen (1982) claims that second language anxiety is caused by the affective filter, an imaginary wall placed between the language and language input that is the results of self-consciousness, low self-esteem or low motivation. When the affective filter is activated by an anxiety-provoking situation, it makes learners unreceptive to language input. Therefore, learners cannot take in what they need to progress, language learning fails and fossilization takes its place.

Horwitz et al. (1986) mentioned that when students feel FLCA, they tend to avoid conveying difficult and private messages, their lips are sealed suddenly mid-conversation, claim that they are aware of a grammar point but forget it during a test or an oral exercise, they complain of the difficulties distinguishing between certain sounds and structures, they claim that even though they sometimes know the correct answer, they write down or select the wrong choice because of the distraction caused by nervousness and



anxiety, and they state that they are fed up with over studying without any improvements in their grades. Young (1992) reported psycholinguistic factors of language anxiety are associated to distortion sounds, an inability to reproduce the intonation and rhythm of the language, a freezing up when called on to perform in that target language, forgetting of words or phrases that just learned, or simply refusing to speak and remaining in silence. Language anxiety can manifest in physiological and behavioral aspects (Gregersen, 2005). Physiological symptoms include sweating, weak knees and a dry mouth (Tassone, Boyce, Guyer, & Nuzum, 2007), tense facial muscles, limiting the movement of brow, blinking more, and smiling less (Gregersen, 2005). Behavioral symptoms include learners' limited eye contact with the teacher and sometimes keeping one's eyes closed completely, sitting in an upright position or leaning backwards against the chairs and keeping a closed-body position. Aida, (1994) asserted that students who feel high levels of anxiety in class are less willing to participate in different activities and perform worse than those who experience less or no anxiety. Burden (2004) reported that language learners who suffer from language anxiety are usually worried about the impressions that their classmates have of them, so when they encounter with a learning situation that makes them anxious, they prefer to withdraw from the activity.

Horwitz et al. (1986) included within FLCA three performance-related anxieties, namely communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. These authors consider the three above-mentioned types of anxiety as the conceptual building blocks of FLCA, which have adverse and debilitating effects on students' language acquisition. However, they propose that FLCA is not just the combination of these three anxieties transferred to the context of foreign language learning, but rather that FLCA is a distinct and unique construct that requires its own separate ways of measurement and research to analyse its relationships with other individual differences and ultimately with students' language acquisition and performance.

Horwitz et al. (1986) defined communication apprehension as “a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people” (p.127), which manifests as learners experiencing difficulties in oral tasks in pairs, small groups, large groups: oral communication anxiety, stage fright and receiver anxiety (p.127). McCroskey (1978) had previously defined communication apprehension as “a person's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons” (cited in Aida, 1994, p.156). Later on, McCroskey (1984) suggested that communicatively apprehensive people are not willing to get involved in conversation with others, and they typically do not seek social

interaction. Communication avoidance and withdrawal are two common features of people who are suffering from communication apprehension.

Sarason (1978) defined Test Anxiety as “the tendency to view with alarm the consequences of inadequate performance in an evaluative situation” (p.214).

Horwitz et al. (1986) suggested that due to the fact that performance assessment and evaluation is a continuous indispensable feature of language classroom, test anxiety is then necessarily connected to language anxiety, which manifests as a “type of performance anxiety stemming from fear of failure” (p.127). According to Horwitz et al. (1986) test-anxious students often put impractical burdens on their shoulders and consider anything less than a perfect test performance as a fiasco. Within all types of tests, oral tests are particularly risky, as they have the potential of provoking both test and oral communication anxiety at the same time in more vulnerable students. Aida (1994) illustrated some of the manifestations of test anxiety by stating that “test-nervous students may not be able to focus on what is going on in the classroom because they tend to divide their attention between self-awareness of their fears and worries and class activities themselves” (p.157). Since tests and quizzes are frequent in foreign language learning contexts, test-anxious students are distracted most of the time, which interferes with their progress and performance

Finally, fear of negative evaluation is defined as the “apprehension about others’ evaluation, distress over their negative evaluation and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (Watson & Friend, 1969, p.449). This type of anxiety is in some respects similar to test anxiety, but it has a broader scope and is not limited to test situations, as it can happen in any social contexts such as at an interview or while speaking in the foreign language classroom. Students who are test anxious are characterized by sitting passively in the class and withdrawing from classroom activities. In extreme cases, these students sometimes leave their classes and never come back in order to escape anxiety-provoking contexts.

Horwitz et al. (1986) consider these three above-mentioned types of anxiety as the conceptual building blocks and important parts of FLCA, but argue that FLCA is not just the combination of these three anxieties transferred to foreign language learning. On the contrary, FLCA is a distinct and unique construct with its separate ways of measurement and follow specific ways of investigation for figuring out its nature and its relationships with other individual differences and ultimately with students language learning and performance.

## 2.5. Sources Of FLCA

In recent years, a more accurate theory of language anxiety has contributed to a better understanding of its sources in the foreign language classroom. One of the most problematic issues regarding learning a second or foreign language is the possible negative effect of FLCA on language performance, and many researchers have been studying to find the suitable way to reduce it. Horwitz et al. (1986) suggested that in order to reduce the level of FLCA, language teachers must be aware of its sources in order to know what methods can be used to diminish its impact.

Table 2. Sources of FLCA

<b>Year</b>	<b>Authors</b>	<b>Sources of FLCA</b>
1983	Bailey	a) comparison to other students b) relationship with the teacher: perception of the teacher's expectation or need to gain the teacher approval c) test anxiety d) comparison to personal standards and goals
1986	Horwitz et al.	a) unrealistic or erroneous beliefs about learning b) underestimate the difficulty of learning a new language c) belief that two years or less are enough to master another language d) oral activities that challenge their self-image
1991	Price	a) underestimation of their ability to learn a new language
1991	Young	a) personal and interpersonal anxieties b) learner beliefs about language learning

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>c) instructor beliefs about language teaching</li> <li>d) instructor-learner interactions</li> <li>e) classroom procedures</li> <li>f) language testing</li> </ul>
1992	Young	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) incomprehensible oral activities</li> </ul>
2002	Gregersen & Horwitz	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) perfectionist tendencies</li> </ul>
2003	Von Worde	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) lack of comprehension</li> <li>b) speaking activities</li> <li>c) pedagogical and instructional practices</li> <li>d) error correction</li> <li>e) interaction with native speakers</li> </ul>
2003	Gregersen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) fear of being laughed at by their classmates because of their errors</li> </ul>
2004	Chan & Wu	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) task difficulty</li> <li>b) teachers' attitude and evaluation</li> <li>c) teacher-students interactions in class</li> <li>d) parents' expectations</li> <li>e) classmates' attitudes</li> <li>f) students' own achievements</li> </ul>
2005	Ohata	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) fear of negative evaluation</li> <li>b) lack of self-confidence in their own English proficiency</li> <li>c) competitiveness, meaning they compared their English ability with other Japanese students</li> <li>d) test anxiety</li> <li>e) cultural differences</li> </ul>
2006	Liu	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) speaking in front of their peers and teachers</li> <li>b) lack of vocabulary</li> <li>c) low English proficiency</li> </ul>
2011	Tóth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) perceived differences between using the TL in and out of the classroom</li> <li>b) pressure to do well in classes for language majors</li> </ul>

		c) aiming at avoiding mistakes d) focus on accuracy and appropriateness e) potential negative evaluation by the teacher f) potential negative evaluation by peers g) fear of appearing less competent than others h) classmates' L2 proficiency i) classmates' experience in TL countries
2012	Arnaiz & Guillén	Speaking activities
2017	Bensalem	a) possibility of failing English class b) communicating in English

Based on the findings summarised in table 2, we have grouped sources into three groups: learner-related sources, teacher-related sources and context-related sources, based on the classification carried out by Young (1991). The same categorisation emerged from the initial analysis of the qualitative data, and as such it has been used to discuss the sources of both FLCA and FLE we identified in the interviews and open-ended questions (more on this in chapter 3).

Bailey (1983) considered learners' perspective on language anxiety, and identified sources in all three categories. In this study, she made use of 11 students' diaries to report several sources of FLCA (a) comparison of oneself with other students (b) one's relationship with the teacher, either in relation to one's perception of the teacher's expectation or one's need to gain the

teacher approval (c) tests anxiety (d) comparison with oneself and one's own personal standards and goals" (cited in Skehan, 1989, p.116).

As for learner-related sources of FLCA, Horwitz et al. (1986) found that language learners' unrealistic or erroneous beliefs about learning a new language are mainly responsible for FLCA. The same authors also explained that some learners underestimate the difficulty of learning a new language and believe that two years or less are enough time to master another language, so when they fail to reach the desired goal they feel anxious. Additionally, language learners feel uncomfortable when they participate in oral activities because these kind of activities show their inadequacies and these negative experiences can cause "fear, or even panic" (p. 128). Price (1991) mentioned that some language learners underestimate their ability for learning a new language and think they lack the aptitude to learn it. Gregersen & Horwitz (2002) identified learners' perfectionist tendencies as one of the main sources of FLCA.

Von Worde (2003) identified context-related sources of FLCA, based on interviews with students of French, German and Spanish. Major sources of anxiety according to this researcher were "(a) non-comprehension, (b) speaking activities, (c) pedagogical and instructional practices, (d) error correction, and (e) native speakers" (pp.3-4). Saito, Y., Garza, T. J., &



Horwitz, E. K. (1999) identifies unfamiliar elements as triggers of FLCA, such as different script systems and cultural components presented in texts. Gregersen (2003) conducted an interview study to examine the reaction of anxious and non-anxious Spanish learners of English to their own mistakes. The participants of this study were video typed two times. Based on anxious participants' report the main source of their anxiety was their fear of being laughed at by their classmates. In the Spanish context, Arnaiz & Guillén (2012) found that speaking activities were the main sources sources of FLCA for a sample of 216 EFL learners. The literature review we conducted shows in fact an array of triggers for FLCA in connection to the use of speaking in class: fear of speaking in front of the class, lack of vocabulary, fear of making mistakes, limited grammatical knowledge, fear of negative evaluation, oral tests, unpreparedness, native speaker effect, teachers' harsh manner of correcting mistakes, low self-confidence, low level of proficiency level or shyness (Azher et al., 2010; Ohata, 2005; Park & Lee, 2005; L. J. Woodrow, 2003). Indeed, speaking is a very public skill, in the sense that it is the first skill that language learners compare their own levels with their peers', with their language teachers' and with native speakers' skills (Kitano, 2001). Arguably, a low self-perception of speaking ability might be one of the most important sources of FLCA for some language learners, undermining their interest in communication with their teacher and peers (Brantenmier, 2005)

and hence their own ability to improve through practice and meaningful interactions.

Other authors' findings comprehend more than one category. Chan & Wu (2004) reported that "In addition to task difficulty, factors such as teachers' attitude and evaluation, teacher-students interactions in class, parents' expectations, classmates' attitudes, students' own achievements are the potential sources of students' FLCA" (p. 290). Ohata (2005) carried out in-depth interviews with five Japanese learners of English in US College, and reported as potential sources of FLCA students' (1) fear of negative evaluation; (2) lack of self-confidence in the English proficiency; (3) competitiveness with other Japanese students; (4) test anxiety; and (5) cultural differences. Liu (2006a) collected data from 211 university students in China using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and reflective journals. Most of the students reported that speaking in front of their peers and teachers, lack of vocabulary and low English proficiency were the main sources of FLCA. Tóth (2011) conducted an interview study to find the major sources of language anxiety from the advanced language learner's perspective. 5 highly anxious students who were chosen from a larger group of English majors based on their scores on the Hungarian version of the (FLCAS) participated in this study, reporting as sources of FLCA (1) perceived differences between using the TL inside and outside the classroom;

(2) pressure to do well in classes for language majors; (3) focus on avoiding mistakes; (4) focus on accuracy and appropriateness; (5) potential negative evaluation by the teacher (poor marks, being corrected, critical remarks); (6) potential negative evaluation by peers; (7) fear of appearing less competent than others; (8) their classmates' L2 proficiency; and (9) classmates' experience in TL countries were the greatest sources of FLCA. Bensalem (2017) found that anxiety about failing English class, tension and apprehension about communicating in English were sources of FLCA for trilingual learners of English as a foreign language in Tunisia.

## **2.6. The impact of FLCA on students' performance**

In recent decades, applied linguists have investigated the impact of FLCA on second language acquisition in general, and on skills in particular (Aida, 1994; Horwitz & Young, 1991; Young, 1991). Accordingly, research on the relationship between FLCA and different language skills has contributed to explore (1) the relationship between general FLCA and different language skills and (2) an investigation into different types of anxiety specifically related to skill areas, i. e, foreign language reading anxiety, second language writing apprehension, second language speaking anxiety and foreign language listening anxiety.

In the following pages, we summarise previous studies regarding the impact of FLCA on students' language performance, focussing on how FLCA impacts different language skills and its effects on students' grammatical accuracy, with some input on specific types of FLCA in connection to each skill.

*a) Impact of FLCA on speaking*

As discussed in previous pages, speaking is one of the main sources of FLCA. Prince (1991) quoted a highly anxious American student of French who said "I'd rather be in a prison camp than speak a foreign language" (p. 104). While this position may seem a bit extreme, there are plenty of studies that support the view of speaking activities as one of the leading triggers of FLCA in students, as we outline below.

MacIntyre & Gardner (1991a) conducted a study with 39 language learners of French. The results showed that 87% of participants were concerned about speaking activities, with high-anxiety learners underperforming in their tests. Park & Lee (2005) conducted a study to find the relationship between FLCA and oral performance of 132 Korean college students who joined the English conversation class. The results of this study showed that there was a negative relationship between FLCA and oral performance. Students' lack of confidence had a dramatic impact on these students' performance in

high-stakes oral tasks, as also observed by Wilson (2006). Woodrow (2006) conducted another study involving the relationship between second language speaking anxiety and learners' oral achievement. The participants were advanced EAP students who filled in a questionnaire called Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale, designed by Woodrow (2003). In this case, second language speaking anxiety was a significant predictor of oral achievements. Hewitt, E., & Stephenson, J. (2012) explored the level of anxiety experienced by university foreign language students on their oral performance. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986) and oral performance were used to collect data. The results of this study showed that there was a negative relationship between FLCA and oral performance.

Fariadian, Azizifar & Gowhary (2014) asserted that some language learners speak in front of their peers without any feeling of anxiety or discomfort, but some others fall behind in this skill until they feel that they have enough knowledge of the target language to speak, while some others will never feel confident enough. This may lead to contradictory situations in which language learners who are very talkative in their native language may feel shy or prefer to stay silent rather than using the target language (Lucas, Miraflores & Go, 2011).

*b) Impact of FLCA on listening*

Listening to a foreign language, particularly in high-stakes contexts such as a test, is a frequent trigger of FLCA. In order to find the possible relationship between FLCA and foreign language listening anxiety among 238 Korean university EFL learners, Kim (2000) designed an instrument called the Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale, which he used in combination with the FLCAS, interviews and open-ended questions in order to collect quantitative and qualitative data. Results revealed that most participants experienced foreign language listening anxiety, and that it was connected to both general FLCA and to students' listening proficiency. Participants reported several sources of anxiety that were connected to (a) the listening test itself (in terms of speed, pronunciation, intonation, acoustic condition, length of a listening text, or level of vocabulary), (b) to the interlocutor (depending on their gender, the number of speakers or previous acquaintance), and (c) to the very process of the listening (i.e. the effectiveness or choice of students' listening strategies). In another study, Elkhafafi (2005) collected data from 232 US university students who were learning Arabic. The results showed there was a positive relationship between FLCA and foreign language listening anxiety. Both general FLCA and listening anxiety correlated significantly and correlated negatively with general grades and the listening grade. Similarly, Gonen (2009) found a

negative relationship between students' use of listening strategies and listening anxiety, which means that when language learners experienced anxiety in connection to a listening task, their use of listening strategies to cope with problems decreased. Golchi (2012) also found that listening anxiety had a negative effect on listening comprehension.

*c) Impact of FLCA on writing*

Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert (1999) asserted that the anxiety that language learners experience during writing activities is a “language-skill specific anxiety” and therefore different from general FLCA (p. 417). McLeod (1987) defined foreign language writing anxiety as “negative, anxious feelings that disrupt some part of the writing process” (p. 427), which may induce learners to avoid the writing activities (Daly, 1975); to produce shorter and less fluent writing (Faigley, Daly & Witte, 1981); and even to write shorter compositions in their native language (Daly & Miller, 1975). Moreover, numerous studies discovered that language learners who had high levels of anxiety exhibited lower marks on standardized writing tests (Daly, 1985; Lee & Krashen, 2002). Erkan & Saban (2011) investigated the possible relationship between writing anxiety and students' performance with 188 advanced EFL students at the Çukurova University School for Foreign Languages. The Writing Apprehension Test (WAT), the Self-efficacy in Writing Scale (SWS) and a questionnaire on attitudes towards writing (WAQ) were used in this study,

which showed that there was a negative relationship between writing apprehension and English performance. Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert (1999) observed a negative correlation between FLCAS and English achievement in writing and course grades was observed.

Regarding the causes for foreign language writing anxiety, Daly (1991) asserted that language learners experience high levels of anxiety when they feel obliged to strictly follow a set of rules. Hassan (2001) added to this other causes such as poor skill development, inadequate role models, lack of understanding of the composing process, and authoritative, teacher-centered, product-based model of teaching.

*d) Impact of FLCA on reading*

For many years, reading was seen as the least anxiety-provoking skill in the curriculum (Abu-Rabia, 2004; Brantmeier, 2005). Zbornik & Wallbrown (1991) defined reading anxiety as “any discomfort or fear accompanied by reading foreign language texts whether in reading processing or testing” (p.7). However, other studies related to skill-specific anxiety have revealed that students experience anxiety in reading in a foreign language and that it has a negative influence on their performance (Saito, Garza, & Horwitz, 1999; Sellers, 2000; Tallon, 2006). Saito et al. (1999) introduced the concept of foreign language reading anxiety, defined as an anxiety that language



learners experience in reading in a foreign language. They also designed the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale, which they used to measure the level of foreign language reading anxiety among 383 American students learning French, Japanese, and Russian as a foreign language. The FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) and the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (Saito et al., 1999) were used in this study. The authors observed that foreign language reading was anxiety-provoking for some language learners. Moreover, students experienced less reading anxiety than FLCA. Secondly, foreign language reading anxiety was found to be related to but distinguishable from general FLCA. Finally, students who had lower level of foreign language reading anxiety tended to perform better than those who had a high level.

Following the interest in research addressing anxiety related to language specific skills, it has been well-established that FLRA does exist and is related but distinguishable from FLCA, and can occur in spite of learners' having rich reading experiences in their L1. Sellers (2000) mentioned that different target languages can create different levels of reading anxiety. Sellers added that "reading in any language is a cognitively demanding process which involves minimally the coordination of attention, memory, perception and comprehension process" (p.513). Sellers found that learners with higher

levels of foreign language reading anxiety have more difficulty in comprehending texts in target language.

Kuru-Gönen (2007) found three sources of Foreign Language Reading Anxiety; a) Reader-related factors (such as inadequate implementation of reading strategies and lack of motivation); b) text-related factors (like complex linguistic structures and unfamiliar topics); and c) the program (e.g. concerns about assessment). Wu (2011) studied the level of foreign language reading anxiety and foreign language classroom anxiety in Taiwanese learners of English and discovered that language learners with higher levels of FLCA tended to show higher levels of foreign language reading anxiety. In addition, Tsai & Li (2012) showed that FLRA was negatively correlated with language learners reading proficiency. Iafari, Gohar & Behrooznia (2012) confirmed the significant negative influence of reading anxiety on reading performance.

*e) Impact of FLCA on accuracy*

Several researchers have suggested that FLCA has a negative effect on students' grammatical accuracy (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Saito & Samimy, 1996). This corresponds to the effect FLCA has on learning and cognitive processes, as discussed in previous pages. In line with this, Van Patten & Glass (1999) conducted a study in which it was revealed that some language learners experienced FLCA in connection to the

study of grammar. The learners in this study reported as sources of anxiety their fear of negative evaluation and competition, negative teacher behaviour and too much grammatical information presented in a short time. In another study, Shang (2012) found that fear of making mistakes in language structures such as grammar was one of the sources of foreign language writing anxiety. Same result was found in Latif 's (2007) study. He also also found that grammar difficulties caused writing anxiety.

## **2.7. Tools for measuring FLCA**

Although research into individual differences has relied mostly on quantitative methods as they appear to be more objective and consistent, such methods have some inherent shortcomings (Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001). Rather than using exclusively quantitative or qualitative methods, however, a hybrid approach in which quantitative methods such as self-report questionnaires and qualitative ones like interviews are integrated can lead to more thorough understanding and provide a richer and more comprehensive account of the factors responsible for learner difference (Spolsky, 2000). Consequently, we have adopted a hybrid approach based on the idea that the study of FLCA is multi-layered, and a mixed methods data collection process (one that includes quantitative and qualitative tools) allows for the discovery of different and richer kinds of information.

*a) Quantitative studies of FLCA*

In the first study using the FLCAS, Horwitz et al. (1986) found a significant moderate correlation between language anxiety, the grades American university students expected to receive in their first semester of their language class and their actual final grades. Horwitz et al. (2001) mentioned that after designing the FLCAS “findings concerning anxiety and language achievement have been relatively uniform” (p.114). Indeed, several studies using the FLCAS have yielded a consistently moderate negative correlation between FLCA and achievement, as described in the following pages.

Trylong (1987) found a negative correlation between FLCA and teachers’ ratings of achievement. Philips (1992) examined the impacts of language anxiety on students’ learning outcome using various achievement measures: French exam marks from the previous semester, oral exam grades, the average mark of a written exam, quantity and quality of “communication units” (based on Hunt, 1965; Larsen-freeman, 1983; and Loban, 1976) in the oral test, and informal assessment by the teacher. The results of the study demonstrated that students who suffered more from FLCA tended to receive lower exam scores compared to their less anxious counterparts. Gardner & MacIntyre (1993) employed the FLCAS and the Language Use Anxiety Scale in a study and found significant negative relationship between

FLCA and several language performance measures such as Cloze test, a composition test and an objective French proficiency test. Aida (1994) also used an adapted version of the FLCAS with a non-western language, and found a significant negative correlation between FLCA and final grades among second-year American students of Japanese, in which low-anxiety students received significantly higher grades compared to their high-anxiety counterparts. Ganschow, Sparks, Javorsky, Anderson, Skinner & Patton (1994) conducted an experiment which was concerned with an investigation of learners' performance in low-anxiety, average anxiety, and high anxiety learners of introductory Spanish. They measured foreign language aptitude (using the Modern Language Aptitude Test, by Carroll & Sapon, 1959) and the overall average of learners' foreign language grades, and used them as the performance and achievement index in the study. Highly anxious learners received significantly lower scores in the aptitude test compared to more relaxed participants. Similarly, MacIntyre & Gardner (1995) also observed that FLCA was negatively correlated with language course final marks in French as a foreign language. In the same year, Rodriguez (1995) conducted an investigation involving 91 Venezuelan trainee teachers of English, employing correlational analysis between their FLCAS scores and their final grades as an achievement index. Rodriguez found out that students who had learned English through a Natural Approach were "less anxious and more

successful” (p.27) than those who had employed a more conventional methodology. In another study, Anglophone learners of Japanese at three levels (beginning, intermediate and advanced) were subject to an investigation which examined the relationship between anxiety and the participants’ performance which was delineated through their final grades (Saito & Samimy, 1996). Regression analysis showed that language anxiety was not an accurate predictor of final grades for beginning level students, but it was found to be the best predictor of exam marks for intermediate and advance levels. Kim (1998) also came up with negative relationship between FLCAS scores and Korean college students’ final grades in both conversation and reading class. Batumlu & Erden (2007) employed the FLCAS to determine the students’ FLCA levels for 150 Turkish university students with concern of the representation of the general population whereas the average of students’ first and second midterms was also used to assess the students’ foreign language achievement. Analysis of correlation proved a significant negative relationship between FLCA and English achievement ( $r = -.45, p = .01, n = 150$ ). In a study by Sparks & Ganschow (2007), secondary school students who experienced low levels of FLCA in Spanish, French or German received the highest final marks. Awan, Azher, & Naz (2010) also investigated the effect of FLCA on students’ academic achievement. The participants of their study were 149 undergraduate

students enrolled in different departments of the University of Sargodha who were studying English as a foreign language. FLCAS and the students' grade point average in English classes were employed in this study. A negative effect of anxiety on students' achievement was found. Lu & Liu (2011) conducted a study with 934 students who had enrolled in compulsory English courses in one of the universities in China, collecting data through the FLCAS and final course exam. A significant, moderate negative relationship between FLCA and English performance was found. Arnaiz & Guillén (2012) discovered the possible relationship between FLCA and language achievement. The participants of this study were 200 Spanish university students enrolled in six different degree programs. The quantitative data was collected by The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The findings of this study revealed that there was a negative relationship between FLCA and students' final marks.

Unlike in the studies mentioned above, several researchers found a positive relationship between FLCA and language performance. Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley (1999) found a positive relationship between language anxiety in learners of French, Spanish, German and Japanese and university academic achievement. In another study, Marcos-Llinás & Garau (2009), investigated the effect of language anxiety on course achievement of 134 college students from a variety of degree programs who enrolled in 11

courses of Spanish as a foreign language. The FLCAS, a background questionnaire and final course grades were used to collect data. Their findings revealed that students with high levels of FLCA did not receive lower course grades in comparison to students with lower levels of anxiety.

*b) Qualitative measures of FLCA*

Although most researchers have used quantitative methods to measure FLCA, several researchers have employed qualitative research methods to analyse it in more depth, using tools such as interviews or journal investigations, often in combination with the FLCAS.

For example, Bailey (1983) used qualitative methods to discover sources of FLCA by using the diary entries of 11 language learners, discovering that language learners experienced anxiety when they compared themselves with their classmates. Price (1991) conducted an interview study with 10 highly anxious students learning French as a foreign language. Other researchers chose to combine qualitative and quantitative methods. Pappamihel (2001) examined the effect of anxiety on language learners decisions to speak English in two classroom contexts (English as a second language and mainstream classes) using the English language anxiety scale and interviews. Spielmann & Radnofsky (2001) conducted a study to discover the role of tension in FL learning process. The data was collected through a



semi-structured interview, open-ended questions, observations and analysis of some students' documents such as paper, journals and school brochures. Language learners' personal expectations and their prior beliefs about learning a foreign language were sources of FLCA.

### **3. The concept of Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE)**

As discussed in the previous pages, the literature concerning emotions in the field of second language acquisition has mainly investigated the effect of negative emotions such as FLCA, whereas less attention has been paid to the influence of positive emotions such as enjoyment (Bown & White, 2010; Imai, 2010). Although positive emotions play an important role in people's daily life, it is surprising that their influence on second language learning has not been fully explored (Dörnyei, 2014).

In line with a more nuanced understanding of the connection between emotions and learning, researchers have recently started to study the impact of positive emotions on foreign language learning in order to find a way to help learners cope with negative experiences, make the foreign language classroom a more enjoyable space and to connect language learning to meaningful, positive experiences (Imai, 2010; Dewaele et al., 2014; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016). In the following pages, we provide an overview of the

notion of FLE and its role in SLA, a summary of how this construct has been tackled in research studies since its recent emergence, its relationship to a series of individual differences, and possible sources of FLE. In many cases, we have used FLCA as a model framework to analyse FLE, given that the number of studies and theoretical papers published on FLE is much lower.

### **3.1. What is enjoyment?**

The study of positive emotions took off in the field of psychology in 2000, with the development of Positive Psychology by Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi was a reaction to the prevalent focus on mental illness. Such governmental approach to mental health in the US had been prevalent since the end of the Second World War, and was the reason why most public research funding had been devoted to programmes aimed at veterans and civilians affected by the traumatic events that characterised most of the 20th century. In contrast, the founders of Positive Psychology intended to (1) develop a science of well-being; (2) analyse the conditions, strengths and virtues that can help people achieve it; and (3) balance the disproportionate preoccupation with illness within psychology research (Azar, 2011).

According to Csikszentmihalyi (1990), enjoyment is a positive emotion that results from a person's achievement of something unexpected, something

that may require an effort but that eventually stretches the individual in a constructive way. It is worth emphasizing the difference between enjoyment and pleasure (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), as it is enjoyment, and not pleasure, that “leads to personal growth, and long-term happiness” (p.12), whereas the term pleasure refers to the feeling of satisfying a person’s “homeostatic needs such as hunger, sex, and bodily comfort” (p.12), and therefore does not contribute to personal growth. As the systematic study of positive emotions became more widespread, enjoyment has emerged as an emotional experience that crosses cultural, social, or individual boundaries, one which can occur in a wide variety of activities (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Besides, Csikszentmihalyi (1988) suggests that enjoyment leads to a selective process, as individuals are more prone to remembering enjoyable episodes and to attempt to repeat them.

In terms of the impact of enjoyment on mental health, academic papers published in the field of Positive Psychology suggest that high levels of positive emotion contribute to promote creative thinking (Isen, 1999), to increase the number of social connections (Fredrickson, 1998), and to increase an individual’s emotional (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) and physical well-being (Tugade, Fredrickson & Barrett, 2004). In short, authors working within the framework of Positive Psychology argue that “higher levels of positive feelings are of paramount

importance for human flourishing” (Gruber, Kogan, Quoidbach, & Mauss, 2013, p.1).

### **3.2. The role of enjoyment in learning**

Enjoyment of learning is a rewarding emotional state that learners experience occasionally, a positive state that motivates learners to complete the task and thus to prolong this feeling (Hartley, 2006). Because of the way in which enjoyment depends on and interacts with different elements of the educational context. Dewaele & MacIntyre (2016) defined it as “a complex emotion, capturing interacting dimensions of challenge and perceived ability that reflect the human drive for success in the face of difficult tasks” (p.216). In this respect, enjoyment is one of students’ rights in the educational context, it can increase their academic achievement in subject areas (Goetz, Nathan, Hall, Anne, Frenzel & Pekrun, 2006) and is an essential component of the learning process itself. In fact, the American Psychological Association lists as one of its key principles of learning that “Emotional well-being is integral to successful, everyday functioning in the classroom and influences academic performance and learning. It is also important to interpersonal relationships, social development and overall mental health” (Gregersen, Macintyre & Meza, 2014, p. xiv). In the school context of everyday practice, enjoyment is an important part of each activity for learners, as it determines

to some extent students' engagement - and hence, their success - in the different activities in the classroom, helping them to regulate their emotions and deal with frustration or challenging situations. Positive emotions "can broaden the field of attention and build resources for the future" and help learners "to build relationships, personal strength, and tolerances for the moments when things become difficult" (Gregersen et al, 2014, p. xiv).

### **3.3. The role of enjoyment in SLA**

Some researchers argue that it is time to move away from exclusive attention to language learners' negative emotions in SLA and on to learners' positive emotions (Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau, & Dewaele, 2016), which can contribute to enrich "people's momentary thought action repertoires and build their enduring personal resources, ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological resources" (Fredrickson, 2003, p.219). Dewaele et al. (2014) introduced the concept of Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE) as a specific type of enjoyment to the field of SLA, claiming that it could have positive effects on the language learning process.

Even though it is a relatively recent field, the important role that positive emotions play in foreign language learning has been amply supported by developments in Positive Psychology (Lake, 2013; Seligman &

Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). One of the first developments of Positive Psychology in the field of language learning was by MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012), who argued that the positive emotions that language learners experience in the class are not merely nice feelings, but rather that learners who experience positive emotions have a heightened awareness of what goes on in the classroom environment, and they are also more conscious of language input and are hence better equipped to absorb more of the foreign language input they receive.

Fredrickson (2001) had proposed the “broaden and build” theory of positive emotion, which assigns different functions to positive and negative emotions. According to this author, positive emotions can help to compensate the lingering impact of negative emotional arousal, and moreover help to boost personal resiliency in the face of difficulties. This author suggested that the goal was not to eliminate negative emotions but rather to help deal with them and find a constructive outcome for them. According to MacIntyre & Mercer (2014) Positive Psychology argued that in order to reduce the effect of negative emotion, “it is crucial to build positive emotions, foster greater engagement, and boost the appreciation of meaning in life and its activities” (cited in Dewaele, 2017, p.12) the authors mentioned that language instructors believe that positive emotions are like fuel for language learners.

Dewaele (2017) similarly suggests that positive emotions can even have long-term impact outside the classroom, making language learners more resilient as well as giving them the courage to take some risks, allowing them to explore and play, which can increase social cohesion. Pekrun (2007) suggested that it is important that language teachers make language learners aware of their both positive and negative emotions as a way to help language learners cope with negative emotions and increase the positive ones.

Dörnyei & Ryan (2015) believed there is a lack of study regarding the effect of emotions that language learners experience in the class on language learning. By studying positive emotions in more detail, a finer understanding of the process of foreign language learning can be attained (Dewaele et al., 2014).

### **3.4. Sources of FLE**

Regarding the sources of FLE Csikszentmihalyi (1990) listed eight conditions to achieve enjoyment in the learning context that capture the necessary balance between challenge and achievement that leads to personal growth. These sources can be categorised as learner-related (the ability to focus on the activity at hand, the ability to be deeply but effortlessly involved in the task without awareness of other worries, a sense of control over one's actions, not being concerned about oneself, and an altered perception of

time) and context-related (facing tasks that can be feasibly completed, the tasks having clear goals, the tasks providing immediate feedback) as in the case of sources of FLCA.

Many researchers believe that both learners and teachers play an important role for creating a good emotional atmosphere in the classroom (Arnold, 2011; Berdal-Masuy & Pairon, 2015; Pavón Vázquez, Ávila López, Gallego Segador, & Espejo Mohedano, 2015). Arnold & Fonseca (2007) mentioned that it depends on teachers to design “a true learning environment where students believe in the value of learning a language, where they feel they can face that challenge and where they understand the benefit they can get from attaining it” (p. 119).

### **3.5. Previous studies on FLE**

Dewaele et al. (2014) conducted a study to explore the construct of FLE, to find the whether FLE and FLCA are two separate emotions or opposite ends of the same dimension and to explore what kind of emotions language learners experience more frequently while learning a foreign language. In order to measure the level of FLE experienced by language learners, they developed the Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (FLES), which can be found in Appendix B. They designed this scale based on seven statements from the Interest/Enjoyment Scale (Ryan, Connell & Plant, 1990) which



were adapted to FLE. Dewaele added some statements related to foreign language mistakes and also pride in language learners' own performance, working in groups, social environment and cohesiveness, and attitudes towards learning a foreign language. The original FLE questionnaire consisted of 21 statements that reflect different aspects of FLE such as creativity, pride, interest, fun and a positive environment in the foreign language classroom. These 21 positively-phrased statements are answered on a five point Likert scale with five categories ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree. The authors added one open-ended question in order to find the sources of FLE. The data was collected in the form of web-based questionnaire.

The participants of the study in which the FLES was first tested were 1746 students from 90 different nationalities and from different educational levels. Almost half of participants of this study studied English as a foreign language followed by French, Spanish Dutch, German, etc. The results of this study show that FLCA and FLE are indeed two separate dimensions. Participants of this study experienced both FLCA and FLE from time to time. The level of FLE was significantly higher than FLCA. There was a significant negative relationship between FLCA and FLE, which means that language learners with lower scores in FLCA showed higher scores in FLE. Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, & Sutton (2009) investigated the

relationship between teacher's level of enjoyment and students' enjoyment. 1542 students participated in this study. A positive relationship between teacher's enjoyment in teaching and students' enjoyment was found. According to Witt, Wheelless, & Allen (2004), when students observe their teacher's enjoyment, the level of their enjoyment increases.

In terms of its impact, some researchers have found a positive correlation between enjoyment and learning (Rieber & Noah, 2008), whereas students' lack of enjoyment is one of the main reasons for their failing to reach their potential and a leading cause of low achievement (Goetz, et al., 2006; Shernoff, Csikszentmihalyi, Schneider, & Shernoff, 2003). Dorothy (2014) investigated the effect of fun and enjoyment on adult learning, gathering data through interviews with adult learners and their teachers. The results showed that both teachers and learners believed that enjoyment and fun have a positive impact on their learning, and reported that it can help them to concentrate better on tasks and encourage them to participate in classes.

Yükselir (2014) conducted a study to explore the perceptions of academic emotions experienced by 215 university students in ELT. The Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (Pekrun, Goetz, & Perry, 2005) was used to collect data, with results indicating that the level of FLE language learners

experienced before learning was at the highest level, and that it diminished during learning and was at the lowest level after learning.

## **4. Connection between emotions and other individual differences**

Another line of research on emotions in the field of SLA which has attracted researchers' attention in recent years is focused on examining the relationship between emotions and individual variables such as age, gender, proficiency levels, experiences abroad, language repertoire, age they started learning English, speaking English outside the classroom and educational level. In this section, several studies associated with individual variables will be reviewed, showing that there exist many conflicts in the findings of studies on the interactions between affective factors and other individual differences, and therefore more work is needed to establish the connections between them.

### **4.1. Age**

Studies on the relationship between age and FLCA have generated mixed results. On the one hand, research suggests that age is an important predictor that relates to FLCA among foreign language learners. Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) examined the possible relationship between language anxiety and several individual variables. The results of their study showed a positive and

statistically significant correlation between FLCA and the participants' ages. The older the participants were, the more anxious they were likely to be. Dewaele (2002) reported that it was more difficult for older language learners to accommodate to the rules of a foreign language, and consequently, they felt more anxiety than younger learners. Similarly, Donovan & MacIntyre (2004) found that French university students who were learning English as a foreign language experienced higher levels of anxiety in comparison with secondary school and junior school pupils. The results of the Dewaele (2007) study shows that older language learners tended to report higher levels of FLCA when speaking the second and third language.

On the contrary, some studies found that younger language learners experienced more anxiety than older ones. Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham (2008) investigated the possible relationship between age and FLCA in 464 adult multilinguals using an online questionnaire. They found a negative relationship between age and participants' FLCA, which means that younger participants suffered higher levels of anxiety. Arnias & Guillen (2011) used the FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) and a background questionnaire to discover that younger learners tended to experience FLCA more frequently than older ones. Dewaele & Ip (2013) found that younger language learners experienced higher level of FLCA than older counterparts. As Lin (2012)

explained “increased age led older language learners’ mental status to become more stable and indirectly decrease their anxiety level” (p. 33). Regarding FLE, Dewaele et al. (2014) found that younger language learners experienced higher levels of FLCA than older ones, and that younger learners experienced lower levels of FLE.

## **4.2. Gender**

The study of gender-related FLCA has yielded conflicting results as well. Whereas many studies found females to be more anxious than their male counterparts in language learning, other studies found that males experienced anxiety more frequently than female language learners, or reported no significant correlation between FLCA and gender at all (Aida, 1994; Dewaele, 2002; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Abu-Rabia, 2004).

A great number of studies suggests that female language learners were generally more anxious, than male language learners. Arnaiz & Guillén (2012) showed that Spanish female language learners suffered higher level of FLCA. Al-Saraj (2014) conducted a study to explore the level of FLCA among female college students learning English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia. Several instruments such as questionnaires, classroom observations and individual and group interviews were used to collect data. The results indicated that female language learners experienced moderate to high levels

of anxiety. More recently, Dewaele et al. (2014) revealed that female language learners reported more FLCA than male. Female language learners in Dewaele (2014) experienced both higher levels of FLCA and of FLE than their male counterparts. Dewaele et al. (2016) studied gender differences in FLE and FLCA among 1736 foreign language learners, concluding that female language learners reported significantly more FLE than male students, were more likely to learn interesting things, felt prouder of their own performance, and believed that FLE helped them to be more creative. Gerencheal (2016) also found that female language learners had higher levels of FLCA.

On the contrary to these above-mentioned studies, Campbell & Shaw (1994) indicated a significant interaction between and FLCA and gender. The results of the study shows that males suffered higher FLCA than females after a certain amount of instruction in that foreign language classroom. Kitano (2001) in his study discovered that in comparison to female language learners, male language learners tended to be more anxious while learning a foreign language. Participants were two hundred twelve students in Japanese courses at two U.S. universities. The findings showed that male language learners were found to be more anxious in speaking, as they perceived their speech was less competent than that of female language learners. As Onwuegbuzie. Bailey & Daley (2001) suggested, a “female oriented foreign

language culture” may exist in which men perceive foreign language study as a feminine domain and thus feel less comfortable in the language learning context” (p. 12). Marcos-Llinás & Garau (2009) also reported that male language learners experienced more anxiety than their female counterparts in the Spanish context. Azher et al. (2010) found significant differences in the level of FLCA in males and females language learners. In this study, males experienced higher level of anxiety than female counterparts. Mesri (2012) found a considerable difference between the level of FLCA of female and male language learners, with men feeling more anxious than females.

Finally, other researches failed to find significant differences between FLCA and gender (Dewaele & Ip, 2013; J. Dewaele et al., 2008; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999). Aida (1994) conducted another study and found no significant associations between language anxiety in learning Japanese and gender. Shi & Liu (2006) found no significant difference between males and females among Chinese EFL learners in terms of anxiety.

### **4.3. Proficiency levels**

Dewaele et al. (2014) found that language learners who knew more foreign languages experienced less FLCA and higher levels of FLE: Learners with higher proficiency levels experienced less anxiety than those with lower proficiency levels, and those with higher proficiency levels experienced

higher FLE than those with lower proficiency levels. Similarly, MacIntyre & Gardner (1991b) argued that “as experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a fairly consistent manner” (p.111). As language learners make progress in their process of learning a foreign language, and as time passes and higher proficiency is achieved, the amount of anxiety diminishes (Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet, 1977; Gardner, Lalonde, & Pierson, 1983; Chen & Lee, 2001). These authors suggested that the level of anxiety is higher at the early stages of language learning and that anxiety becomes less problematic for advanced learners<sup>2</sup>. These results coincide with the intuition that language learners experience more FLCA at the beginning stages of learning a new language than at more advanced levels, but many researchers have found that the relationship between FLCA and learners’ proficiency is not as straightforward as it seems. Shakan (1989) believed that advanced language learners enjoy a wider repertoire of communication that could “help them to deal with FLCA in language learning contexts more flexibly” (p.116).

The results of Elkhafafi (2005) study shows that 233 language learners of Arabic who were in the third year of the study suffered significantly lower

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<sup>2</sup> It is interesting to point out that some researchers suggest that FLCA may be problematic for non-native language instructors (Horwitz, 1986; Rodriguez, 1995; Heitzmann, Tóth, & Sheorey, 2007). Based on conversations with several non-native language teachers Horwitz et al. (1986) reported that “many non-native foreign language teachers experience FLCA” (p. 365).



levels of FLCA and foreign language listening anxiety than those in first and second year. Liu (2006) examined the language anxiety among 100 Chinese undergraduate non-English majors at three different proficiency levels. The results of the study indicated that language learners from all proficiency levels experienced but the more proficient (advanced-level) language learners experienced less anxiety.

On the contrary, some studies have shown that language learners in upper levels experienced higher level of anxiety than their lower level counterparts (Saito & Samimy, 1996; Kitano, 2001; Marcos-Llinás & Garau, 2009). Satio & Samimy (1996) linked this result to the complexity of educational material, a complexity which shows itself more and more as the course progresses. Marcos-Llinás & Garau, (2009) investigated the influence of FLCA on language performance in three different proficiency levels using FLCAS and a background questionnaire to collect data. The results show that the level of FLCA varied across proficiency levels. Advanced level learners experienced higher levels of FLCA than beginners and intermediates.

In some qualitative studies, researchers reported that language anxiety is pervasive among advanced-language learners, and that language learners reported that they suffered from FLCA that had a negative effect on language learning. For instance, Ewald (2007) investigated the level of FLCA

in advanced Spanish classes. The participants of this study reported they experienced more anxiety in advanced classes than in lower-level language learning courses.

Finally, some other studies found no significant differences between the level of anxiety among different proficiency levels. For example, Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) found no significant differences among the anxiety levels of beginning, intermediate and advanced foreign language learners. Similarly, Pichette (2009) conducted a study to find the level of anxiety among 186 French-speaking learners of English or Spanish, revealing that there was no difference in FLCA between first-semester language learners and their more experienced counterparts.

#### **4.4. Study abroad experience**

Study abroad experience refers to whether or not the learners have visited a country in which the target foreign language is spoken, and if so, how long they have stayed and whether or not these visits had effects on their level of FLCA and FLE. It seems logical to believe that students who have visited a foreign country whose language they are studying will suffer less from FLCA and have higher levels of FLE. However, this theory has not always been supported by research findings. Recently, some researchers have explored students FLCA in study abroad contexts (see for example Hashimoto, 2002;

Oya et al., 2004; Woodrow, 2006; Miller, 2009). Aida (1994) found that Anglophone students of Japanese who had visited Japan did show lower levels of FLCA. Huang (2001) found that students who had planned to visit an English speaking country had lower levels of reading anxiety. Matsuda, S., & Gobel, P. (2004) conducted a study to find the possible relationship between FLCA and overseas experiences. 252 students majoring in English at a large university in Kyoto participated in this study. The FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) and a background questionnaire were used, revealing that students who spent time overseas experience lower levels of FLCA.

In contrast, Caruso (1996) reported that the experience of going to French-speaking countries did not generate a significant difference in the anxiety levels of French learners. A reason for these conflicting results could be the different target languages referred to. For example, the Chinese culture and Japanese culture are quite different from American culture. Therefore, going to the target language country and experiencing the target culture greatly helps learners of Japanese in the U.S. and learners of English in Taiwan to understand the target culture. Since French culture and U.S. culture are similar in the sense that they both belong to Western culture, learners of French in the U.S. might have already had a good understanding of French culture even before they went to France. Consequently, going to

France would not help them much in understanding the target culture and thus it would not affect their FLCA (Aiping Zhao, 2008).

#### **4.5. Language repertoire**

A considerable number of researchers have studied the influence of FLCA on monolingual language learners and some have examined the effect of FLCA on bilingual/multilingual language learners so there is a dire need for future studies. In general, bilingual/ multilingual language learners have been found to experience reduced emotion when speaking their third language (Gonzalez-Reigosa, 1976; Dewaele, 2004; Dewaele et al., 2008; Marian & Kaushanskaya, 2004; Schrauf, 2000), as these learners experience less FLCA in comparison to their monolingual counterparts (Dewaele, 2004). Levine (2003) conducted a study to explore the interaction between FLCA and bilingualism/ multilingualism among 600 foreign language learners. Those who came from bilingual or multilingual backgrounds experienced less FLCA than those from monolingual backgrounds. Legac (2007) conducted a study to compare the level of FLCA and listening anxiety in monolingual and bilingual 112 primary school students of English as a foreign learning. The result revealed that bilingual participants of this study experienced a considerably lower level of listening anxiety than monolingual ones. Dewaele (2007), in a study of 106 adult language learners found that quadrilingual and

trilingual learners had lower levels of FLCA compared to their bilingual counterparts. Dewaele claimed that it is logical to consider that learners who speak several languages have also learned better communication skills. Akbari and Sadeghi (2013) investigated the role of FLCA on 191 Iranian bilingual Kurdish-Persian undergraduate students learning English as their third language. FLCAS and a background questionnaire and were employed in this study. The results indicated that participants experienced a comparatively high level of FLCA. Similar results were reported by Dewaele et al. (2014), who found that participants who had mastered several languages experienced lower levels of FLCA and higher levels of FLE.

#### **4.6. Educational level**

Studies regarding the effect of educational level on FLCA and FLE are limited and further study is needed. Dewaele et al. (2014) showed that there were significant differences between the level of anxiety and the educational level of language learners. The participants who had higher level of education experienced significantly lower levels of FLCA and higher levels of FLE.

### **5. Conclusions**

The literature review shows that a great number of studies have focused on negative emotions such as FLCA, and less attention has been paid to positive

emotions such as FLE. However, both negative and positive emotions play an important role in foreign language learning as they have an impact on students' self-image, their cognitive processes and their social interactions. We have therefore chosen to undertake in this project an analysis of FLE to understand in more depth the role this emotion plays at the core of SLA, to help language teachers increase its occurrence in their lessons, and to balance the emphasis on negative emotions that has hitherto permeated research on the role of emotions in SLA.

Many teachers and scholars have been operating under the assumption that FLCA interferes negatively with second language learning and performance, whereas FLE has a positive impact on students' learning and should therefore be maximised. This view has been dispelled by a number of studies, which suggests that FLCA and FLE are complex emotions that are not necessarily at opposite ends of the same spectrum. Our in-depth analysis of the existing literature suggests that the relationship between FLCA, FLE and learning is rather more complex than a good/bad opposition, as it is oftentimes not a matter of whether or not there is FLCA and/or FLE, but what degree of it, and how this impacts specific learners. Although the vast majority of studies reported a negative relationship between FLCA and language performance, including course grades, standardized tests, and other measures (Horwitz, 2010), some studies have found that language learners

with high levels of FLCA did not show lower course achievement in comparison to those with low levels of FLCA.

Regarding FLE, many language educators are aware of the importance of improving individual learners' experiences of language learning by helping them to develop and maintain their motivation, perseverance, and resiliency, as well as fostering the positive emotions necessary for long-term undertaking of learning a foreign language. In addition, teachers also widely recognise the vital role played by positive classroom dynamics amongst learners and teachers, especially in settings in which communication and personally meaningful interactions are foregrounded (MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014). In spite of this recent focus on positive emotions, the concept of FLE is still under construction, and has been less frequently explored than FLCA, both in terms of its definition and of its impact on SLA.

In order to promote students' well-being and increase their learning opportunities, it is essential that teachers can design activities and interactions that challenge students but are feasible at their level, and to be able to read the signs in students' behaviour to adapt to their level and individual features. In conclusion, teachers should create an enjoyable atmosphere (Renzulli, 1977) and they should help learners to facilitate

learning process by encouraging them to channel negative emotions to positive emotions.

Due to the limited resources we counted on for the study, we have chosen to focus primarily on affective factors, adopting the term from Ellis (1985, 2004) and Ehrman et al. (2003) in order to explore their relationship to SLA. Even though most authors only include negative emotions within this umbrella term, based on Dewaele's study (2014) we have included FLE as a positive emotion. With affective factors then as the core of our project, we have attempted to create a set of profiles based on a series of individual differences that were 1) relatively stable; 2) widely used in research projects on SLA; and, 3) easily available for instructors - something they may discuss in class activities, for example.

We have therefore chosen age, gender, proficiency levels, study abroad experience, language repertoire, age at which learners started learning English, educational levels, and speaking English outside the classroom. Information on these individual differences can be easily made available to a group's EFL teacher using a short questionnaire at the start of the course, for example, or by gathering data through in-class activities. The student profiles that emerge from this info can then be connected to the data on emotions to see students' levels of FLCA and FLE. Considering the importance of



emotions in SLA, the connection between these profiles and our data on emotions can provide English teachers with helpful insights to predict the likeability of students experiencing positive and negative emotions in the classroom and to adapt accordingly. By making language learners aware of their positive and negative emotions in the classroom language teachers can help them face and cope with negative emotions as well as boost the positive ones.

A comprehensive understanding of FLCA and FLE models and sources, of the signs that can help identify them in students' features, behaviour and performance, and of their interactions with other individual differences can help us understand the cognitive, emotional and social processes involved in learning a foreign language.





## **CHAPTER TWO: RESEARCH METHOD**

This chapter presents the design of this longitudinal study and the instruments used to collect and analyze data, with a focus on our adaptation of the FLCAS and the FLES to the particular context of research and the process we followed to design a mixed-methods study. We also provide a description of the participants in the study, as well as the data collection and data analysis procedures used. All materials are also available in the appendices.

### **1. Research design**

Our research design was based on two key ideas that determined our approach to the design of the tools to gather data: First, the notion that qualitative and quantitative methods complement each other, as they can provide a deeper understanding than either the quantitative or qualitative method on its own (Creswell, 2010); and, secondly, the use of data triangulation to provide more reliable and valid results and thus reduce potential biases (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Based on these two ideas, data was collected at the beginning (time 1) and at the end (time 2) of the academic year 2015-16 using three different tools that combined quantitative and qualitative data. First, a questionnaire that contained a quantitative and a qualitative section on the emotions students experience in the foreign

language classroom. This questionnaire consisted of three sections: one on students' background information, one that measured students' levels of FLCA and FLE, and two open-ended questions that also explored FLCA and FLE (see Appendix C). We collected data from the EOI's own language tests to measure students' performance, which assessed speaking, listening, writing, reading and grammatical accuracy. Finally, we also conducted semi-structured interviews with both teachers and students in order to explore their experiences of FLCA and FLE.

## **2. Participants**

The study counted with 237 EFL learners who were enrolled at the time in two public language schools in the Barcelona metropolitan area<sup>3</sup>, and 3 of their teachers. The curriculum for public language schools, which teach a range of foreign languages, is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages<sup>4</sup> and includes grammatical knowledge and work on all skills, namely speaking, listening, writing and reading. In the EOI, students are expected to attend class twice a week, with sessions typically lasting two hours, and sit an exam at the end of each year to proceed to the

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<sup>3</sup> In Catalan these very popular language schools are commonly referred to by their acronym EOI (*Escola Oficial d'Idiomes*), which we have also used in this project.

<sup>4</sup> See the following link for further information on the CEFR:  
<https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/>

next level. Since the EOI are part of the state system, teachers in the regular courses are civil servants, hired based on a points system that includes strict guidelines regarding their training, teaching experience and entry exams. There is more flexibility for teachers who participate in summer courses or extra topical courses, but this did not apply to any of the teachers participating in the study.

## **2.1. Language learners who answered the questionnaire**

The participants were selected through convenience sampling and all signed a letter of informed consent (available in Appendix H). Based on their answers to the background questionnaire, we can provide a description of the group features based on the list of individual differences we discussed in the previous chapter: Age, gender, language repertoire, educational level, age at which they started learning English, experiences abroad and use of English outside the classroom. As we mentioned in chapter one, we deliberately focused on individual differences language teachers typically had access to in order to build realistic student profiles in connection to emotions in the FL class.

As shown in figure 3, the participants ranged in age from 16 to 64 years old, which we distributed into six age groups. The under twenties, with 54 subjects (22.8%); the group of twenties to thirties, the largest one, with 76

subjects (32.1%); the group of thirties to forties, with 50 (21.1%); the forties to fifties, with 27 (11.4%); the fifties to sixties, with 23 (9.7%); and the over sixties, the smallest group with only 7 subjects (3.0%). Regarding gender, there were 152 (64.1%) female participants and 85 (35.9%) male ones (see figure 4). Regarding educational experiences, participants came from all levels of education, with 74 of them (32%) having only finished secondary school; 90 participants (38%) having obtained a bachelor's degree, 59 participants (25.5%) having a master's degree, and 8 participants (3.0%) having obtained a PhD (see figure 5).

Students' language repertoire is shown in figure 6. Many of the participants (112, 47.9 %) declared that they did not know any other foreign language, only English (besides the local Catalan and Spanish). 93 others (39.7%) knew one additional language; 24 of them (10%) knew two additional languages; and only five participants (2.%) knew three additional languages. As shown in figure 7, 78 participants (33.3%) knew French; 14 participants (5%) knew Italian; 16 participants (6.0%) knew German; and 14 participants (5%) knew other languages such as Japanese, Chinese or Arabic. Nearly half of the participants (117, 49.4%) started learning English when they were between 5 and 10 years old; 57 (24.1%) participants started when they were between 10 and 20; 13 participants (5.5%) started between 20 and 30 years old; 4 of them (1.7%) between 30 and 40 years old; 7 (3.0%) between 40 and 50; and 5

(2.1%) over 50 (see figure 8). Accordingly, as shown in figure 9, the largest group of participants (120, 50.8%) had spent 10 to 20 years studying English; 43 participants (18.1%) had spent under 5 years; 68 (28.8%) between 5 and 10 years; and 5 participants (2.1%) had spent over 20 years learning English. It may be worth noting that for older students (40 or older), the most frequently taught foreign language in school would have been French rather than English. Participants were studying English for a variety of reasons such as finding a better job (125, 52.74%), for future studies (39, 16.45%), as a hobby (24, 10.12%), in connection to living abroad (16, 6.75%) and for travelling (33, 6.75%). Regarding students' use of English outside the classroom; 127 participants (53.58%) reported that they did not speak English outside of class, whereas 108 (45.56%) reported they talked English outside of class.

As for students' experiences abroad, figure 10 shows that 175 (73.1%) participants reported that they had travelled to English speaking countries; whereas 61 participants (25.8%) had never visited any foreign country. Of those who had been abroad, 122 (51.7%) had visited only one English speaking country; 45 (19.1%) had visited two countries; and 8 (3.4%) had visited three countries. Figure 11 shows that 36 participants (20.8%) had been there for less than seven days, 86 (49.7%) had stayed in English-speaking countries between eight and thirty days; 41 (23.7%)



between one and eleven months; and 10 participants (5.8%) had been to English-speaking countries for more than one year. The majority of participants (154, 55.3%) had visited the United Kingdom (including the UK and both the UK and the USA); 104 (43.9%) had visited the UK and 12 (5.1%) had visited the USA; whereas 9 participants (3.8%) had been to other English-speaking countries.

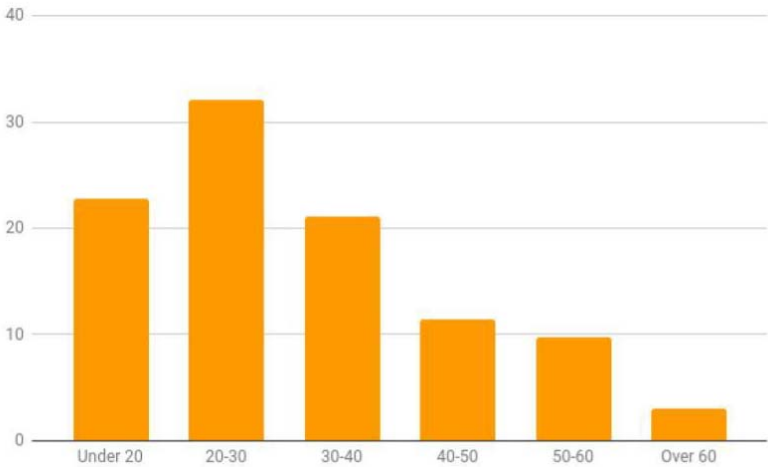


Figure 3. Age distribution (in %)

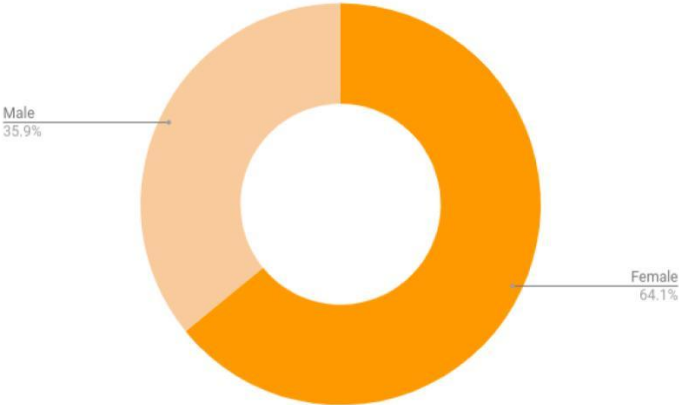


Figure 4. Gender distribution (in %)

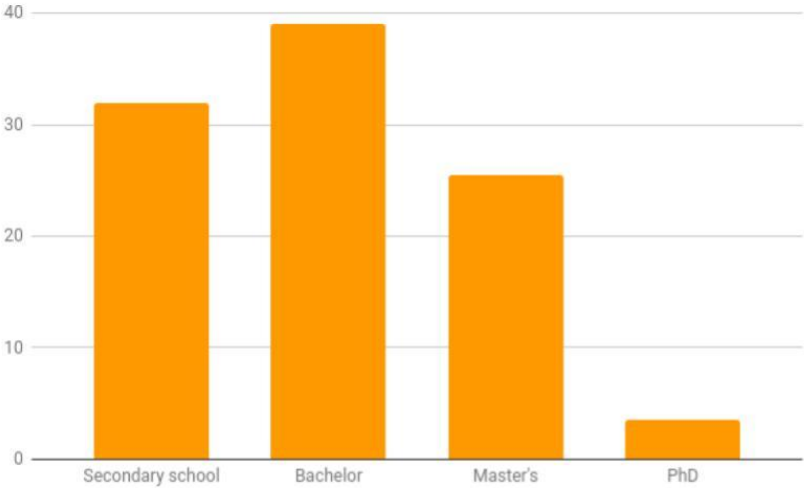


Figure 5. Levels of education (in %)

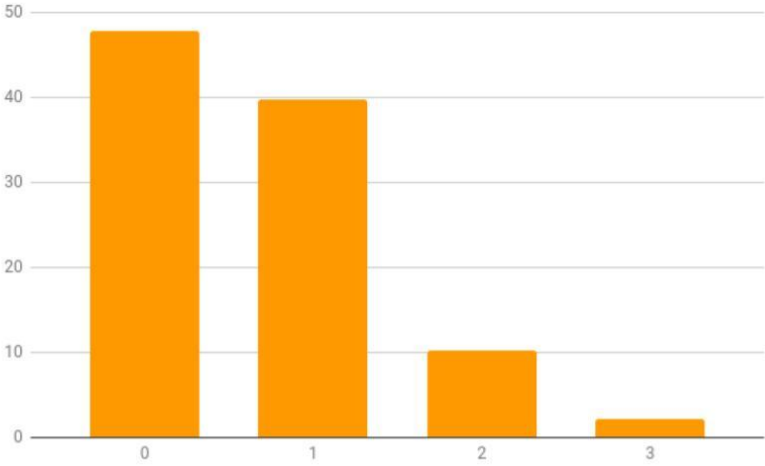


Figure 6. Number of additional languages (in %), not including English

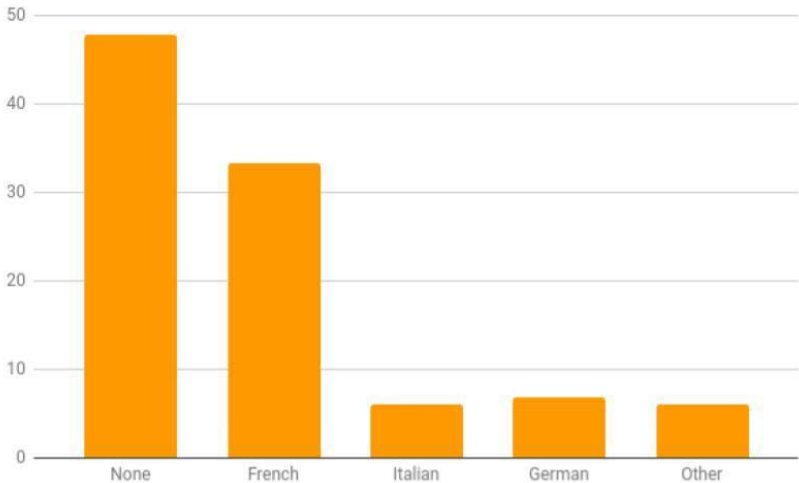


Figure 7. Additional languages (in %), not including English

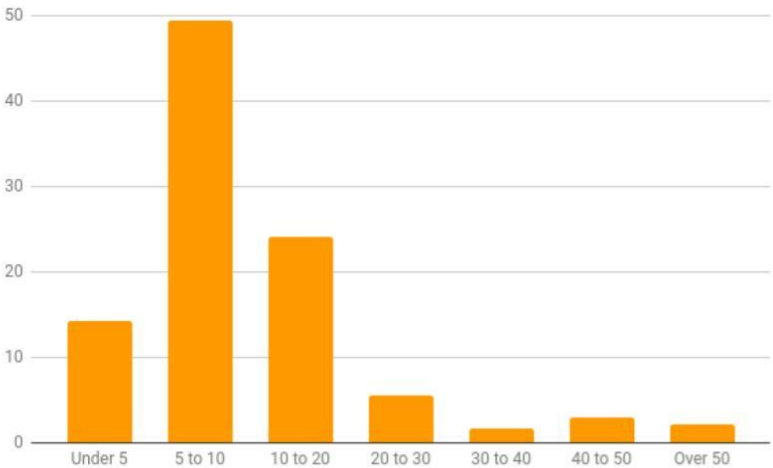


Figure 8. Age at which participants started learning English (in %)

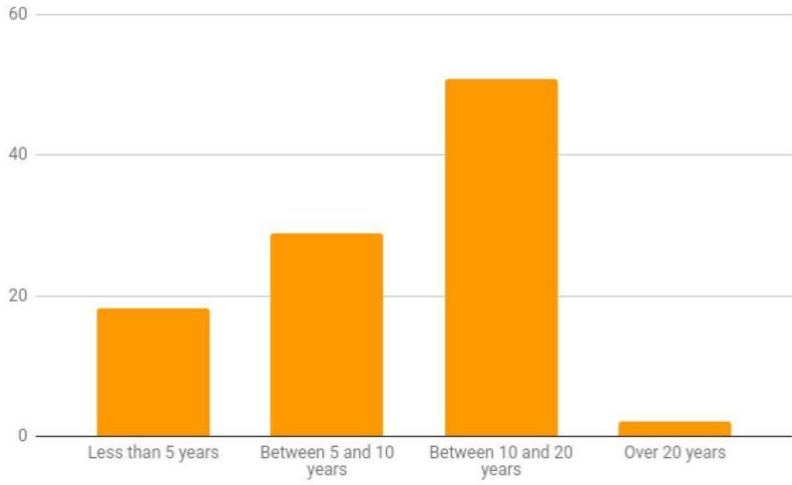


Figure 9. Amount of time spent learning English (in %)

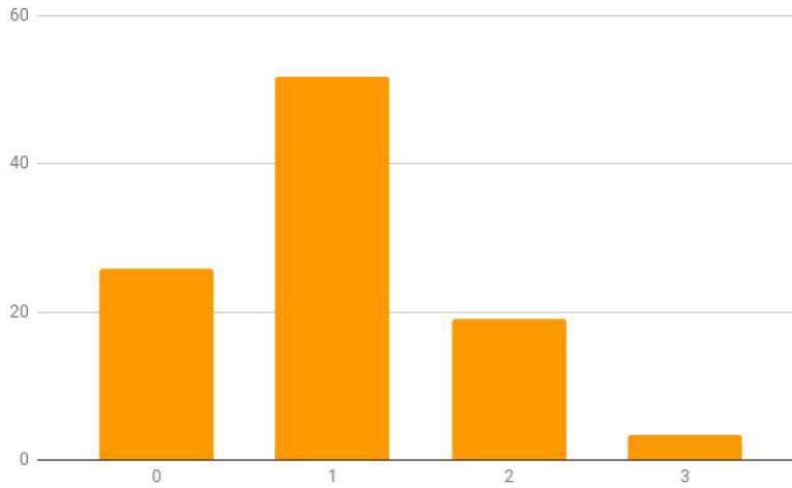


Figure 10. Number of English-speaking countries visited by participants (in %)

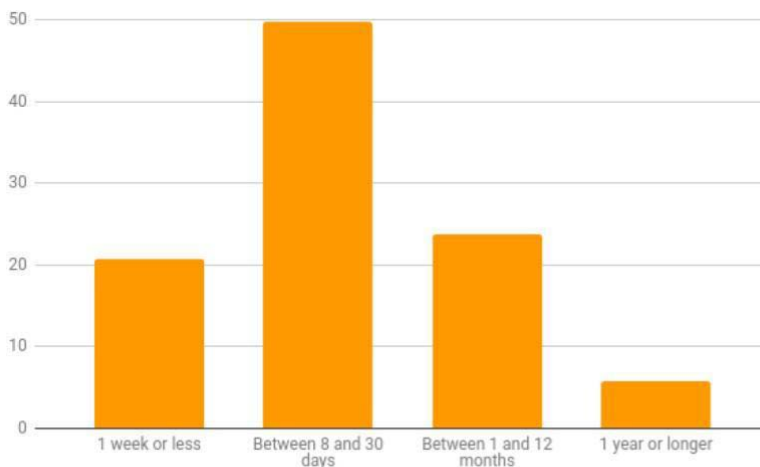


Figure 11. Time spent in English-speaking countries by participants (in %)

## **2.2. Language learners who participated in the interviews**

Based on their results in the questionnaire, 10 participants (five with the highest scores in FLCA and five with the highest scores in FLE) were selected through purposive sampling. Tables 3 and 4 show the key features of the students selected for the interview (all names have been changed).

Eight of the student interviewees were female and two were male, all aged between 18 and 50. Three participants had never travelled to any English speaking country, but two of them had planned to travel to an English

speaking country for practising English that summer. Only five of the students had opportunities to use English outside the classroom. Participants had studied English for a minimum of four and a maximum of twenty years. They had started learning English between 6 and 45 years of age. They all had non-native teachers of English, and were in different proficiency levels (n= 4, B1) (n=3, B2) (n= 3, C1).

Table 3. High anxiety students selected for the interview

<b>Name</b>	<b>FLCA</b>	<b>FLE</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>G</b>	<b>V</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>O</b>
<b>Susana B2</b>	66	64	26	F	2 weeks	7	No
<b>Mel B1</b>	64	70	50	F	6 weeks	45	Yes
<b>Eva B1</b>	58	66	36	F	2 weeks	9	No
<b>Jo C1</b>	56	70	18	M	No	6	No
<b>Lucia B1</b>	56	72	36	F	4 weeks	9	No

A= Age; G= Gender; V= Visiting English speaking country; S= Age at which they started learning English, O= Speaking English outside the classroom

Table 4. High enjoyment students selected for the interview

<b>Name</b>	<b>FLE</b>	<b>FLCA</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>G</b>	<b>V</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>O</b>
<b>Camila C1</b>	85	36	34	F	6 months	8	Yes

<b>Sara</b>	83	48	40	F	3	7	Yes
<b>B1</b>					months		
<b>Albert</b>	83	50	36	M	11	7	Yes
<b>C1</b>					months		
<b>Andra</b>	80	29	38	F	No	9	No
<b>B2</b>							
<b>Sophia</b>	77	49	18	F	No	6	Yes
<b>B2</b>							

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A= Age; G= Gender; V= Visiting English speaking country; S= Age at which they started learning English, O= Speaking English outside the classroom

### **2.3. Teachers who participated in the interviews**

Three teachers who worked with the students were interviewed, two female and one male. None of the teachers was a native speaker, although all of them had been working as teachers of EFL for a long time, not just in the EOI but also in other educational levels. Teachers participated voluntarily in the interviews, which were conducted in the EOI offices to facilitate their contribution.



### **3. Description of research instruments**

In this study, several instruments were used to gather quantitative and qualitative data, which are listed below, and which we describe in more detail in the following pages.

1. Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom: A questionnaire that contains four sections:
  - a. A background questionnaire (based on a list of individual differences)
  - b. A section on emotions based on the Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (FLES) and the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)<sup>5</sup>.
  - c. Two open-ended questions.
2. Results from the language tests designed by the EOI: grammatical accuracy, speaking, listening, reading and writing.
3. Semi-structured interviews for teachers and students.

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<sup>5</sup> Dr. Dewaele and Dr. Horwitz in a personal communication most kindly gave permission for me to use of these two scales in this study.

### **3.1. Questionnaire: Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom**

The design of the questionnaire, which we discuss in more detail in the following pages, attempts to balance a level of detail that enables researchers to draw relevant conclusions from it with the contextual needs that this specific data gathering context required. This meant that we had to modify the questionnaire taking into account students' language skills, the time limit that was set by the schools that kindly participated in this project, and also based on considerations regarding the ideal length of the questionnaire in order to engage participants throughout the whole process.

#### *a) Background Questions: Individual Differences*

The first part of the questionnaire starts with a demographics section designed by the author which contained about 12 questions that covered: participants' age, gender, nationality, profession, first language(s), languages they can speak, their highest academic degree, the age that they started to learn English, previous visits to English speaking countries, length of time spent in English-speaking countries, their use of English outside the classroom, and the purpose for learning English (see Appendix C for a sample questionnaire). These questions provided information on students' individual differences, as summarised in the section on participants.

*b) Adaptation of the original Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (FLES)*

As described in chapter one, Dewaele et al. (2014) developed the FLES in order to measure the level of enjoyment that language learners experience. Dewaele used Ryan et al. (1990) Interest/Enjoyment subscale as the core of the FLES, and adapted seven statements from Ryan et al. (related to enjoyment, fun, interest and boredom) to a foreign language classroom environment. Dewaele also rephrased these items so that they would not refer specifically to a particular activity but rather to a more global appraisal of the students' experiences. Dewaele incorporated into this scale items relating to dealing with foreign language mistakes, identity, FL improvement, pride in one's own performance, group membership, social environment and cohesiveness, attitudes towards learning a foreign language, use of laughter, and judgments about students' peers and their teachers (p. 243). The FLE scale consists of 21 statements which are answered on a five point Likert scale with answers ranging from "strongly agree" (5 points) to "strongly disagree" (1 points). All 21 items in the FLES were positively phrased. In the original FLES, possible scores ranged from 21 to 105, with the highest scores indicating higher levels of FLE (see the original FLES in Appendix B).

Before the final deployment of the questionnaire, we piloted it in a smaller context and modified the way we used the FLES according to the input of

our first respondents (see Appendix D). Thus, two statements were deleted from the original FLES: Statements n°5 (“I feel as though I’m a different person during the FL class”) and statement n°18 (“There is a good atmosphere”). The first one was unclear to respondents, as the phrasing makes it ambiguous and it is not clear whether it is positive or negative. As for the other eliminated item, it was considered to be too similar to statement n°10 (“It’s a positive environment”). Additionally, in order to make some statements more comprehensible to participants some words were added or rephrased. For example, we added “in the English class” to some statements to clarify the scope of the question. Similarly, FL was changed into English language to make sure all students referred to the same course and not to other learning experiences. Other changes we made to the FLES were intended to adapt to students’ language level and vocabulary limitations. For example, the statement “As a group we have lots of complicity such as running jokes” was simplified into “As a group, we laugh a lot”. The final version of the FLES that was used as part of this study’s questionnaire consisted of 19 statements, which means that the scores participants could obtain ranged between 19 and 95 points.

*c) Adaptation of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)*

As discussed in chapter one, the FLCAS assesses the degree of anxiety experienced by foreign language learners in the classroom “as evidenced by

negative performance expectancies and social comparisons, psycho-physiological symptoms, and avoidance behaviors” (Horwitz et al., 1986, p.559). The statements in the FLCAS cover the key signs of student anxiety: Students’ communication apprehension, their test anxiety, and their fear of negative evaluation (see Appendix A for the original FLCAS). Communication apprehension refers to the nervousness and tension students feel when speaking and listening to their peers. The second factor which was analyzed in this questionnaire is test anxiety which is a type of performance anxiety related to “fear of failure” (Horwitz et al., 1986, 127). The third component, fear of negative evaluation refers to the apprehension about others’ evaluation. As with the FLES, the FLCAS consists of 33 statements which are answered on a five point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly agree” (5 points) to “strongly disagree” (1 point). In the original FLCAS, possible scores ranged from 33 to 165.

The FLCAS was piloted along the FLE with a small group of FL learners and modified according to their input. Hence, 14 items were excluded from the original FLCAS scale (see Appendix C). In some cases, the items did not apply to the context of our study (such as the items on conversations with native speakers), and other items were considered to be repetitive or confusing. Additionally, as we were combining the two scales, we did not want the questionnaire to become excessively long and thus ensure that

participants would go through the whole questionnaire and contribute in the open-ended questions.

*d) Open-ended questions*

In the third part of the questionnaire, two open-ended questions asked participants to describe a specific event that they had really enjoyed in the FL class, and a specific event that had made them feel anxious (see Appendix C part 3). In each question, participants were also requested to describe their feelings in as much detail as possible. The question on FLE was originally based on Dewaele's work (2014).

Once the different sections had been piloted and rewritten, the final questionnaire consisted of three sections with 47 questions in total. The questionnaire, which we called Emotions in the foreign language classroom (see Appendix C for a sample form) took participants about 30 minutes to answer, and provided researchers with a score of FLCA, a score of FLE and qualitative data on both emotions, both at the beginning and at the end of the academic year.

Because of the modifications that were carried out to the original scales, it was deemed necessary to measure the reliability of the two scales (FLCA and FLE). As measured by the Cronbach alpha coefficient, the internal

consistency for the FLCA section was .89 and .91 for time 1 and time 2. These findings are close to the findings of Horwitz et al. (1986), who found coefficients of .93, and Aida (1994) who found one of .94. This study found the internal consistency for FLE to be .81 and .86 and for time 1 and time 2 respectively, which are similar to the findings of Dewaele (2014), who found the internal consistency for FLES to be .86. Based on these results, which nearly match other published research on these issues, we can consider that both scales are reliable.

### **3.2. Semi-structured Interviews**

In order to gather more qualitative data, semi-structured interviews were employed to elicit students' and teachers' perceptions of FLCA and FLE. Kvale, (1997) and Kvale & Brinkmann (2009) argue that this kind of interview can provide more freedom for participants to respond, as it can create an informal and relaxed context, unlike a more interrogative style of asking questions. Denzin (2008) suggests that interviews give an opportunity for language learners' voices to be heard.

In the current study, the participants to be interviewed were selected through purposive sampling<sup>6</sup>. Based on the students' results in the questionnaire, a

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<sup>6</sup> Such purposive sampling is recommended by Dörnyei (2007) to deal with small sample sizes. In combination with analytic generalisation, case studies can offer as valid results as any other research method.

sub-sample of participants were selected (five with the highest scores in FLCA and five with the highest scores in FLE). Additionally, we also interviewed three teachers that worked with the students who participated in the study (see Appendix E and F).

As shown in table 5, both student and teacher interviews included questions that explored FLCA and FLE individually, and questions that applied to both emotions. The student interview consisted of 21 questions, and the teacher interviews consisted of 23 questions. A sample of the interview questions is available in Appendices E and F.

Even though some of the questions may not seem to be directly related to the RQ the interviews were connected with (RQ5 on the sources of FLCA and FLE), we felt that it was important for the interviewees to be given the opportunity to discuss FLCA and FLE in detail. Considering that the lead researcher was an outsider to the EOI community, it was necessary to build some rapport with the participants in order to create a safe space in which they felt comfortable enough to discuss these issues. For this very reason, the space in which interviews were conducted was chosen by the participants. As a results, we obtained very detailed accounts of their experiences, important information to illuminate the discussion and possible leads to future lines of research.



Table 5. Semi-structured interviews

<b>Focus</b>	<b>Student interview</b>	<b>Teacher interview</b>
FLCA	<p>3) Can you tell me three negative adjectives that show your feeling in the classroom?</p> <p>6) Please tell me what disturbs you the most in your foreign language class.</p> <p>7) Please tell me which activities make you anxious and how you react to them?</p> <p>8) When you feel anxiety in the classes, does it affect your learning positively or negatively?</p> <p>9) When you find yourself in a stressful situation, do you primarily worry, or do you actively seek a solution?</p> <p>10) How can you tell that you are feeling anxious? How does anxiety manifest in your case?</p> <p>13) Describe your teacher's reaction whenever you make a mistake.</p> <p>14) Describe your peers' reaction whenever you make a mistake.</p> <p>16) What would make the English class less stressful?</p>	<p>4) What is your challenge when you deal with students?</p> <p>5) Please describe your experience with anxious students.</p> <p>8) Do you think language anxiety helps learning English or hinders it?</p> <p>10) Which skill triggers FLCA more than others?</p> <p>13). What are the most important symptoms of FLCA?</p> <p>15). How do you deal with anxious students in the classroom?</p> <p>16) What is your role as an English teacher in dealing/ coping with anxiety?</p> <p>17) What do you expect from your students when confronting anxiety?</p> <p>18) What are the difficulties when dealing with anxiety?</p>

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FLE	2) Can you tell me three positive adjectives that show your feeling in the classroom?	6) Please describe your experience with students who really enjoy the lessons.
	5) Please tell me what you like best about your foreign language class.	9) Do you think FLE enjoyment helps learning English better?
	15) Please tell me which activities you enjoy the most.	14) What are the most important signs of FLE?
	17) How important are your teachers and peers in determining your level of enjoyment?	
	18) How can you tell that you are enjoying your English classes? How does enjoyment manifest in your case?	
	19) When you enjoy the classes, does it affect your learning positively or negatively?	
	20) Do you have any ideas of ways to make the English class more enjoyable?	

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FLCA & FLE	1) Please describe to me your feelings about your English class.	1) Please describe your general impression of your students in the English class.
	4) Do you have any good or bad experiences about your English classroom?	2) How are students different in speaking, writing, listening, and grammar and reading classes?

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- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 11) How does your English teacher make you feel in the classroom?           | 3) What types of language learners can learn better English than others?   |
| 12) How do your peers make you feel in the classroom?                       | 7) What role do FLCA and FLE play in students' learning process?   |
| 21) Please tell me in which skill you feel more anxiety and more enjoyment? | 11) How do students express their FLCA and FLE in the classroom?   |
|   | 12) What are the most important reasons/ sources to make students experience FLCA or FLE in the classroom?         |
|   | 19) Do you think female language learners experience more FLCA or more FLE?  |
|   | 20) Do you think younger language learners experience higher levels of FLCA or FLE?                                |
|   | 21) Do you think language learners who have lived in English speaking countries experience less FLCA and more FLE? |
|   | 22) What is your idea about the relationship between the level of FLCA or FLE and students' proficiency levels?    |
|   | 23) What is your idea about the level of FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of the academic year?        |
-

### **3.3. EOI Language Test**

In order to determine students' proficiency levels we decided to use the results they had obtained in the EOI's end of the year exams<sup>7</sup>. These language tests cover reception and production based on all four skills, and students' language use and ability to interact in the target language. At the end of the academic year, all students must sit this exam in order to move on to the following level. Students who want to enroll in the EOI must also sit this exam in order to be assigned to a level, unless they are starting at the first year. The results that the EOI principal shared with us are available in Appendix G.

### **4. Data collection process**

As shown in table 6, data collection took place in three stages. Firstly, a pilot study helped us adapt the questionnaire to the context of the research. Secondly, data was gathered at the beginning of the academic year (time 1) 2015-2016 via the adapted questionnaire. Finally, more data was gathered at the end of the academic year using the adapted questionnaire and interviews with students and teachers.

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<sup>7</sup> More information on these exams can be obtained via:  
<http://ensenyament.gencat.cat/ca/serveis-tramits/proves/proves-lliures-obtencio-tols/convocat-ordinaria-idiomes/mostres-proves/angles/>

Table 6. Data Collection Procedures

<b>Stage</b>	<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Tools</b>	<b>Timing</b>
<b>Pilot study</b>	Students from a language school	Initial version of questionnaire	December 2015
<b>Time 1</b>	237 students from two EOI (levels B1, B2, C1)	Final version of questionnaire	January 2016
<b>Time 2</b>	237 students from two EOI (levels B1, B2, C1)	Final version of questionnaire	May 2016
	10 students and 3 teachers from two EOI	Semi-structured interview	June 2016

#### **4.1. Pilot study**

According to Orcher (2007), in studies in which questionnaires are the main sources of data the reliability and validity of these tools are very important and necessary. Hence, we decided to pilot the original, longer version of the questionnaire in December 2015, as we have already mentioned in the previous section. For the piloting, the questionnaire was administered online to 15 language learners from different proficiency levels (B1, B2 and C1) at a language school that was not participating in the final study (see Appendix D). Students were asked to complete the questionnaire and provide feedback

on the clarity of the items and their experience of answering it. Based on students' feedback, several items were deleted and/or modified.

The reliability of the different sections of the questionnaire was established through Cronbach's Alpha, which measures internal consistency reliability. The internal consistency of the pilot administration of the questionnaire (FLCAS and FLE) was found to be .91 and .89 using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. These results are close to the ones for the original version of the FLCAS and FLES, and are therefore considered to be valid.

The researcher interviewed three students from EOI in order to make sure that students understood and interpreted each item the same way as the researcher intended. Thanks to these interviews, some problems were detected and slight changes were made to the questionnaire to make it more understandable. Finally, the questionnaire was edited and proofread again before being administered.

## **4.2. Questionnaire distribution: Emotions in the foreign language classroom**

Prior to the administration of the survey, the researcher contacted the principals of two public language schools in and nearby Barcelona, and explained to them the goals and needs of the study in order to obtain their permission to contact students. One week later, and once the two EOI were

on board, a consent form was sent to students by the heads of the two EOI, informing them that their participation was entirely voluntary (see Appendix H for the original letter). Having gained their permission, the researcher visited personally different groups and obtained the required information on their schedules and curriculum.

Time 1: The data collection procedure began in January 2016, when 300 printed copies of the questionnaire were distributed among the participants at different proficiency levels (B1, B2 and C1) during regular class time. After some initial instructions, the group's teacher left the room and the researcher remained to 1) provide participants with some guidelines on how to respond to the different sections of the questionnaire; 2) give students detailed information about the survey; 3) emphasize that students should respond with honesty; 3) reassure students about the confidentiality of the survey responses.

Time 2: The second round of data collection took place at the end of the same academic year, which for EOI was in May 2016. The same questionnaire was administered in printed form.

### **4.3. Semi-structured Interviews**

As described in the previous section, ten students and three teachers were interviewed during June 2016. The interviews were conducted individually in

the premises of the two EOI for the sake of participants' comfort. The interviews were conducted mostly in English and lasted between 30 and 45 minutes for each individual. They were tape-recorded with the permission of the participants and then transcribed. The transcriptions included hesitations, pauses, and participants' emotional reactions (laughter, hand and face gestures, intonation, etc.). The transcripts were analysed using the constant comparative method (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

## **5. Conclusions**

At the start of the project, we had three challenges to fulfill regarding the research method - one regarding the data gathering tools, one regarding the sample and one regarding the inclusion of both FLCA and FLE. Based on the literary review, we found an optimal set of tools to measure levels not only of FLCA but also of FLE, using the scales developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and Dewaele et al. (2014) that had been widely used in the field. For the individual differences, we decided on a background questionnaire that focused on information that was easily available to language instructors, choosing variables that required further exploration in academic research. Regarding the sample, the EOI provided us with a large sample of students from a variety of backgrounds and experiences, for whom their own learning was fraught with the importance of emotions. Finally, we also implemented



two qualitative tools in order to build a more detailed account of the way teachers and students experience these emotions and thus illuminate some of the data we uncovered with the quantitative tools.

However, due to the limitations of the study, in time and in personal resources, it was necessary to adapt the scales to a more user-friendly format. We appreciate the effort it takes for a public school to participate in research projects, and wanted therefore to minimise the disruption to students' sessions and to teachers' work. As a result of these considerations, it was necessary to edit some of the items in order to shorten the questionnaire and to facilitate students' participation. The piloting and subsequent measures of reliability suggest our design was successful.



## **CHAPTER 3. DESCRIPTION OF RESULTS & DISCUSSION**

In this chapter, we provide a detailed description of the data obtained by means of the language tests, the questionnaire on emotions and the semi-structured interviews with students and teachers. The results are organised according to the five research questions we introduced at the start, which are available in table 7 below. In the second part of this chapter, we analyse the data in more depth, drawing connections across quantitative and qualitative data, and across different tools, and connect them to the results obtained in other studies.

Before we started the data mining process, we revised the raw data in order to homogenize the sample and to anonymize it, even though we maintained the connection between questionnaire scores, language test scores and interviews. First, and based on students' answers to the background questionnaire, students who were not Spanish/Catalan bilingual speakers were excluded from this research because of their small numbers. After examining the questionnaires, the researcher excluded some due to inconsistent and incomplete data, as some students only answered the questionnaire at time 1 or time 2, for example. Consequently, 237 questionnaires were valid as the final dataset of the study and were subjected

to analysis. We have already discussed in the previous chapter, on the research method, the criteria employed to choose the participants for the interviews.

Regarding the quantitative data, we have employed a variety of statistical tests using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). For the data analysis, FLCA and FLE are the independent variables, whereas language performance is the dependent variable. The other individual differences, namely age, gender, proficiency levels, study abroad experience, language repertoire, age at which participants started learning English, speaking English outside the classroom, and educational level are the moderating variables. The second section of the questionnaire, which contained the statements about FLCA and FLE to be assessed with a likert scale, was used to answer the first research question regarding the level of FLCA and FLE and to compare the level of FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of the academic year. Descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, range and paired-t test were used. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis was employed to answer the research questions two and three, exploring the possible relationship between FLCA and FLE and also the possible relationship between FLCA, FLE and language performance. Data from the FLCA, FLE and the background questionnaire was used to answer research question three, which covered the relationship between

background variables and FLCA and FLE. A 2\*2\*2 Factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to detect how different background variables were related to FLCA and FLE. For the comparison of FLE, FLCA and background variables between the beginning and the end of the year, Pearson's correlations were calculated. All data is available in the appendices or in the body of the paper, including tables and figures.

As for the qualitative data, which included data from the semi-structured interviews and the open-ended questions in the last section of the questionnaire, it was used to explore the last research question, which analysed the sources of FLCA and FLE. The open-ended questions and the interviews were transcribed. The transcription includes interviewees' doubts or hesitations, pauses, and their emotional reactions such as laughter or the intonation of their voice when relevant. The qualitative data was analysed using grounded theory, which enabled us to create the categories for the analysis as they emerged from the data, which we then contrasted to the taxonomies used in other research papers. In the discussion section, the qualitative data is also used to illustrate and analyse in more depth some of the findings in the other research questions.

Table 7. An overview of research questions, data sources and analysis tools

<b>Research Questions</b>	<b>Instruments</b>	<b>Tools</b>
RQ1. What is the level of FLCA and FLE among EFL learners at the beginning and at the end of the academic year? Are there any significant differences between the level of FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of academic year?	Section 2 of questionnaire	Descriptive statistics: Means Standard deviation and range Paired-t test
RQ2. Is there any possible correlation between FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of academic year?	Section 2 of questionnaire	A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis
RQ3. Is there any relationship between FLCA and FLE language performance at the beginning and at the end of the year?	Section 2 of questionnaire	A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis  Descriptive statistics
RQ4. What is the effect of number of age, gender, proficiency levels, study abroad experience, language repertoire, age they started learning English, speaking English outside the classroom and educational level on FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of the year?	Sections 1 and 2 of questionnaire	A 2*2*2 Factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)  Pearson's correlations  t- test  Scheffe post-hoc

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RQ5. What are the most important sources of FLCA and FLE?	Interviews	Content analysis
	Section 3 of questionnaire	

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Because of the modifications made to the FLCAS and the FLES, reliability coefficients of section two of the questionnaire were computed to assess their reliability. The reliability of the second section of the questionnaire was calculated for FLCA and FLE. For FLE, based on Cronbach's Alpha, it was found to be 0.817 and 0.869 at the beginning and at the end of the year, respectively. The reliability coefficients for FLCA were 0.891 and 0.915 at the beginning and at the end of the year, respectively. These results indicate that the version of the questionnaires we have used is reliable (see table 8).

Table 8. Reliability of FLCA and FLE

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Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items	No. of Participants
FLE time 1	.817	19	237
FLE time 2	.869	19	237
FLCA time 1	.891	14	237
FLCA time 2	.915	14	237

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## **1. Description of results**

### **1.1. Results concerning the first research question**

*RQ1: What is the level of FLCA and FLE among EFL learners at the beginning and at the end of the academic year? Are there any significant differences between the level of FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of academic year?*

Results show that FLCA mean and standard deviation at the beginning were 40.12 and 9.292 respectively, and ranged between 17 and 66. FLCA mean and standard deviation at the end had changed to 39.25 and 10.73, and ranged between 14 and 68. The level of comparison of the FLCA between time 1 and time 2 was studied by means of a paired-t test. The results of the paired t-test, as presented in table 9, show that FLCA means were significantly different at the beginning and the end ( $p < 0.05$ ). In the beginning, FLCA was higher than at the end (see table 9).

Results also show that FLE mean and standard deviation at the beginning were 73.21 and 6.738 respectively, and ranged between 52 and 90. FLE mean and standard deviation at the end were 73.65 and 8.797, and ranged between 52 and 94. Comparison of the FLE between the beginning and at the end was also studied by means of a paired-t test. The results of the paired t-test, as presented in table 9, show that FLE means were not significantly different at the beginning and at the end ( $p > 0.05$ ).



Table 9. The paired-t test for comparison of FLCA and FLE between the time 1 and time 2

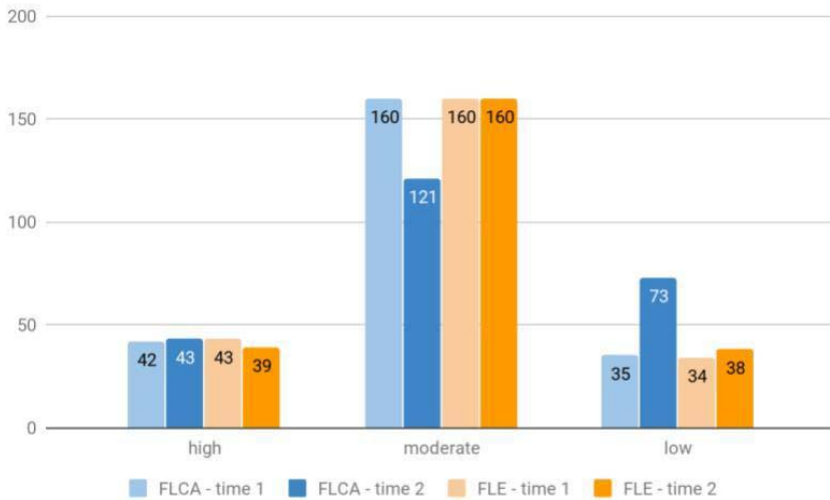
	Test	N	M	SD	MD	T	df	Sig.
FLCA	Time 1	237	40.12	9.292	.869	2.022	236	.044
	Time 2	237	39.25	10.73				
FLE	Time 1	237	73.21	6.738	-.435	-.882	236	.379
	Time 2	237	73.65	8.797				

N= number, M= mean, SD.= Standard deviation, MD= mean difference

In order to explore in more depth the way the participants changed between time 1 and time 2, they were classified into different profiles based on their FLCA and FLE scores, resulting in high-, moderate- and low- FLCA and FLE groups. Assignment to one of the three groups was based on a rule suggested by Sellers (2000) and Kuru Gonen (2007) that used standard deviation. The mean score was used as the marker for the moderate FLCA and FLE groups. The low groups were calculated using the mean score minus the standard deviation, whereas the high groups were calculated by adding the standard deviation to the mean score. For example, the low-anxiety group includes participants who scored below 40.12 (mean score) minus 9.292 (SD) for time 1.

As shown in figure 12, the moderate groups include the largest number of participants both at time 1 and at time 2 for both variables. Whereas the moderate FLCA group shrinks between time 1 and time 2, the moderate FLE group remains exactly the same. In the low group we encounter some further changes, with a sharp increase in the number of low-anxiety participants. The trend for FLE, on the other hand, is far more stable, with more participants experiencing low enjoyment and less participants experiencing high enjoyment at time 2. It should be noted that in order to

Figure 12. N° of students in high/ moderate/low FLCA and FLE, based on SD



make the comparison between FLCA and FLE scores more transparent, as they have different minimum and maximum scores, we have recalculated all values out of 100.

## **1.2. Results concerning the second research question**

*RQ2: Is there any correlation between FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of academic year?*

The relationship between FLCA and FLE was assessed by a Pearson's correlation test, which shows that there was a significant negative relationship between FLE and FLCA at the beginning and at the end of the academic year ( $p < 0.05$ ). Pearson's correlation coefficient shows a weak negative relationship between FLCA and FLE as measured at time 1, and a moderate negative relationship between FLE and FLCA at time 2, as shown in table 10 below:

Table 10. Pearson correlation between FLE and FLCA

Variables	Pearson Correlation	Significance	Sample
FLE and FLCA time 1	-.195	.003	237
FLE and FLCA time 2	-.339	.000	237

In order to facilitate comparison between FLCA and FLE scores, we have again calculated both scores out of 100, as shown in figures 13 and 14. In these figures, we can see the FLE and FLCA scores for each individual at

times 1 and 2, and observe how the differences between the scores in FLCA and FLE change as the course progressed, with less pronounced differences at the end of the academic year. In the distribution displayed in figures 13 and 14, we can see that FLE scores tend to be higher than FLCA scores, both at time 1 and 2.

The lowest scores at times 1 and 2 tend to be for FLCA, with 24.29 as the lowest FLCA value, compared to 54.74 as the lowest value for FLE. The highest scores, on the other hand, are very similar for FLCA and FLE at times 1 and 2, and are all centered around the higher end of the spectrum (between 94.29 and 98.95). In the figures, we can therefore see that FLE scores are distributed along the upper half, whereas FLCA scores tend to occupy a wider range.

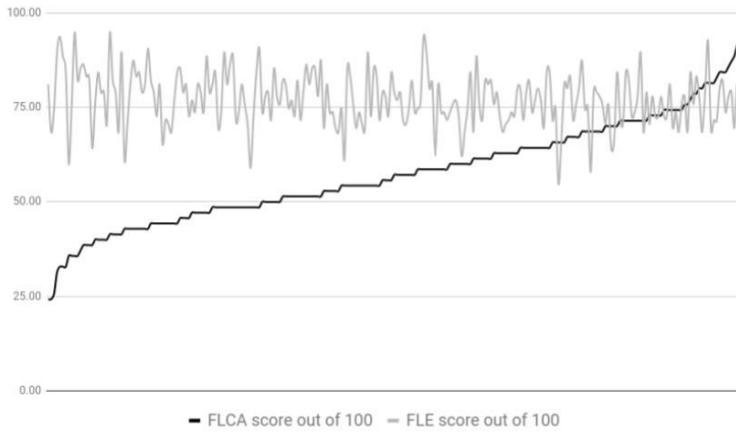


Figure 13. FLCA and FLE scores, out of 100 (time 1)

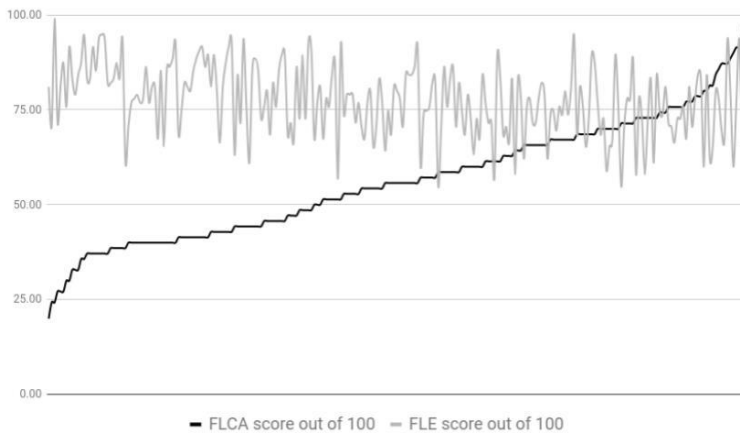


Figure 14. FLCA and FLE scores, out of 100 (time 2)

The distribution of scores is also reflected in table a (available in Appendix I), in which the standard deviation is once more calculated for scores out of 100 for the sake of comparison. In this table, we see that the standard

deviation value for FLCA (13.27 for time 1 and 15.33 for time 2) is higher than for FLE (7.09 for time 1 and 9.26 for time 2).

### **1.3. Results concerning the third research question**

*RQ3: Is there any relationship between FLCA and FLE and foreign language performance at the beginning and at the end of the year?*

In order to answer this research question, we will first discuss the scores participants obtained in a compulsory high-stakes test at the end of the year. In table 11, the descriptive statistics for different language skills, as measured by the EOI-designed test, are given - speaking, listening, reading, writing and language accuracy, based on their original scoring system (out of 20 in the EOI). We can see that all mean values are higher than 12 (minimum grade for passing), and that both the lowest and the highest scores are all grouped around similar values. Reading and writing got the highest scores, which seems to reflect these learners' age and traditional educational culture, as written skills used to be more prominent in formal education - and still are in many contexts, unfortunately.

Table 11. Descriptive statistics for different language skills (based on original scores out of 20 points)

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Listening	13.84	2.988	7.00	19.33

Accuracy	13.97	2.710	7.50	20.00
Writing	14.49	2.348	7.50	19.33
Speaking	12.75	2.992	7.00	19.00
Reading	14.56	2.741	7.00	19.33
Final mark (Average)	13.92	2.194	8.97	19.02

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In figure 15, we can see the distribution of grades into three groups for every skill, with the overall test grade at the end (calculated out of 100 in this case). It is important to note that the passing grade in the EOI test is 65 rather than 50. From left to right, the first group includes the number of students who failed this particular section of the test (with scores below 65). The second group represents the number of students who obtained an average grade (between 65 and 84, both included). Finally, the third group shows the number of students who obtained a high grade (between 85 and 100). In the oral skills sections we find the highest number of students who did not pass, with speaking being the most challenging part of the test for the participants, as it has the highest number of failed grades and the lowest number of passed and high grades. Writing, on the contrary, has the highest number of passed grades and the lowest number of failed grades. As we mentioned before, the results reflect a rather traditional model of foreign language teaching that emphasises reading, writing and grammatical accuracy. In fact,

it is likely that many students may not have participated in an oral exam as part of their formal education. As for the overall grades, they tend to converge in the medium values (136 students), with few students getting a high grade (only 21), and 80 students failing the test.

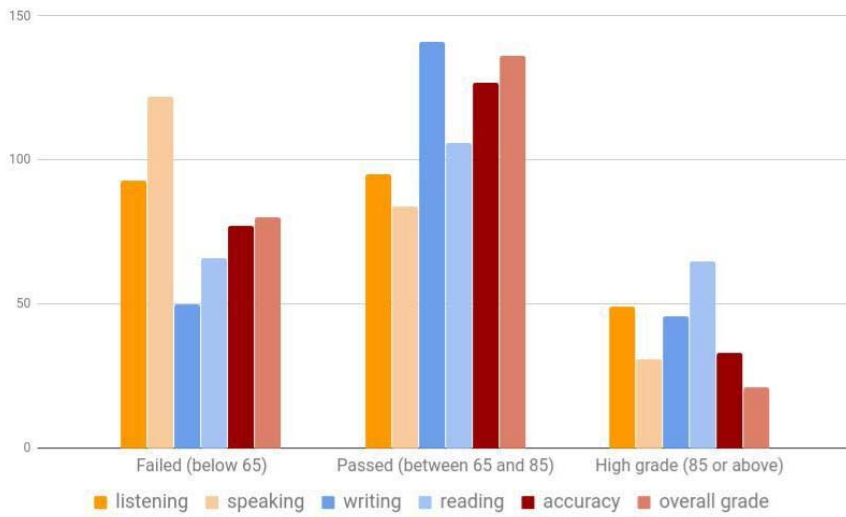


Figure 15. Result of the EOI end of the year test

Regarding the relationship between the test scores and participants' FLCA and FLE values, a Pearson's correlation test was used. Tables 12 and 13 below provide an overview of the results of this test, what skills yielded or not a significant relationship with both FLCA and FLE scores and their degree of significance. In table 12, we can see the results for time 1, whereas in table 13 we can see the results for time 2.



For the final test score, the mean and standard deviation were 13.92 and 2.194, and ranged between 8.97 and 19.02. Results show that the relationship between FLCA and the final test score was significant both at the beginning and at the end of the academic year ( $p < 0.05$ ). Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the relationship between FLCA and final marks at the beginning and at the end was, respectively, strong and moderately negative. The relationship between FLE and the final test score was significant at both the beginning and at the end of the academic year ( $p < 0.05$ ). Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the relationship between FLE and final score were positive weak relationships (see tables 12 and 13).

Relationship between FLCA and FLE and speaking was found by the Pearson's correlations as presented in table 12. For the speaking mark, the mean and standard deviation were 12.75 and 2.992, with results ranging between 7.00 and 19.00 (see table 11). Results in tables 12 and 13 show that the relationships between FLCA and speaking at both the beginning and the end were significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). The Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the relationship between FLCA and speaking were moderately and weakly negative relationships at the beginning and the end respectively (see tables 12 and 13). Results in table 12 show that the relationship between FLE and speaking at the beginning was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). The Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the relationship between FLE and

speaking were positively weak at the beginning of the course. At the end, there was no significant correlation between FLE and speaking mark ( $p>0.05$ ) (see tables 12 and 13).

As shown in table 11, for the listening mark the mean and standard deviation were  $13.84 \pm 2.988$ , and the results ranged between 7.00 and 19.33. Results in tables 12 and 13 show that the relationship between FLCA and listening at both the beginning and the end was significant ( $p<0.05$ ). The Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the correlation was a strong negative relationship at the beginning and a weak one at the end. Results in table 12 show that the relationship between FLE and listening at the beginning was significant ( $p<0.05$ ). The Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the relationship between FLE and listening was weakly positive at the beginning. At the end, there was no significant correlation between FLE and listening mark ( $p>0.05$ ) (see table 13).

As shown in table 11, for the writing mark the mean and standard deviation were 14.49 and 2.348 respectively, with grades ranging between 7.50 and 19.33. Results in tables 12 and 13 show that the relationship between FLCA and writing at both the beginning and the end was significant ( $p<0.05$ ). The Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the correlation was a weak negative relationship at both times. As shown in tables 12 and 13, there was

no significant relationship between FLE and writing at the beginning and the end ( $p>0.05$ ).

As shown in table 11, for the reading mark the mean and standard deviation were 14.56 and 2.741 respectively, and the results ranged between 7.00 and 19.33. There was a significant relationship between FLCA and reading at the beginning ( $p<0.05$ ). The Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the correlation between FLCA and reading was a negative moderate relationship at the beginning and a negative weak relationship at the end (see tables 12 and 13). Results in table 12 indicate that there was a significant relationship between FLE and reading at the beginning ( $p<0.05$ ). The Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the relationship between FLE and reading was a positive weak relationship at the beginning. At the end, there was no significant correlation between FLE and reading mark ( $p>0.05$ ) (see table 13).

As shown in table 11, for language accuracy the mean and standard deviation was 13.97 and 2.710, with results ranging between 7.50 and 20.00. Results in tables 12 and 13 indicate that there was a significant relationship between FLCA and accuracy at the beginning and the end ( $p<0.05$ ). The Pearson's correlation coefficients show that the correlation between FLCA and accuracy was a negative strong relationship at the beginning and a negative

weak relationship at the end. Results in table 12 indicate that there was a significant relationship between FLE and accuracy at the beginning ( $p < 0.05$ ). The relationship between FLE and accuracy was a positive weak relationship at the beginning, whereas at the end of the year there was no significant correlation between FLE and the accuracy score ( $p > 0.05$ ) (see table 13).

Table 12. Pearson Correlation for FLCA and FLE (time 1) and language performance

variables	Pearson Correlation	Significance coefficient	FLCA	Pearson Correlation	Significance coefficient	FLE
Speaking	-.345	.000	√-	.168	.009	√+
Listening	-.459	.000	√-	.154	.018	√+
Writing	-.296	.000	√-	.075	.249	X
Reading	-.374	.000	√-	.156	.016	√+
Accuracy	-.408	.000	√-	.155	.017	√+
Final test score	-.477	.0000	√-	.181	.005	√+

Note. √-negative relationship, X not significant, √+ positive relationship

Table 13. Pearson Correlation for FLCA and FLE (time 2) and language performance

variables	Pearson Correlati on	Significa nce coefficie nt	FLCA	Pearson Correlati on	Significa nce coefficie nt	FLE
Speaking	-.245	.000	√-	.107	.099	X
Listening	-.287	.000	√-	.081	.217	X
Writing	-.257	.000	√-	.120	.064	X
Reading	-.262	.000	√-	.100	.126	X
Accuracy	-.297	.000	√-	.104	.111	X
Final test score	-.339	.000	√-	.127	.050	√+

Note. √-negative relationship, X not significant, √+ positive relationship

*a) Relationship between FLCA, FLE and final test scores: overall grade*

In figure 16 we can see the distribution of final EOI test scores in relation to the FLCA and FLE groupings at time 2 we presented earlier. For participants in the high-anxiety group, we can see that the majority (n=25) passed the EOI test with a score between 65 and 85, the second largest group (n=13) failed the test, and the smallest group (n=3) obtained a high grade. Regarding

students in the moderate-anxiety group, most of them (n=68) passed the test, (n=41) failed and (n=12) got a high grade. As for the low-anxiety participants, again most of them (n=41) passed the test, (n=26) failed it and (n=6) obtained a high grade. As for the FLE groupings, the overall distribution is rather similar. Most of the high-enjoyment participants (n=24) passed the test, (n=12) failed it and (n=3) obtained a high grade. As for the moderate-enjoyment group, the majority (n=91) passed the test, (n=56) failed it and (n=13) obtained a high grade. Regarding the low-enjoyment group, 21 participants passed the test, (n= 12) failed it and (n=5) obtained a high score.

We can now analyse the relationship between specific sections of the EOI test and the FLCA and FLE groupings in order to compare the grade distribution for each FLCA and FLE group in more detail.

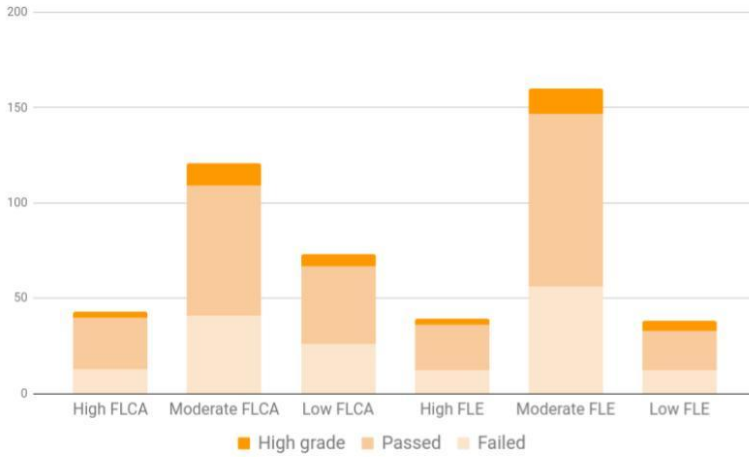


Figure 16. Distribution of final EOI scores with FLCA and FLE groupings

*b) Relationship between FLCA and FLE and final test scores: speaking*

Figure 17 displays the distribution of FLCA and FLE groupings for the speaking section of the EOI test, which shows some relevant connections. Most of the participants in the high-anxiety group (n=24) failed this section of the test; (n=17) passed and only (n=2) had a score above (n=85). In the moderate-anxiety group, (n=60) participants failed this section of the test, (n=41) passed it and (n=20) obtained a high score. As for the low-anxiety group, (n=38) failed the speaking test, (n=26) passed it and (n=9) had a high grade. In the high-enjoyment group (n=21) participants failed this section of the test, (n=14) passed it and (n=4) obtained a high score. In the largest grouping, the moderate-enjoyment group, (n=83) students failed this section of the test, (n=54) passed it and (n=23) obtained a high grade. As for the

smallest grouping, the low-enjoyment one, we see that (n=18) participants failed the listening section of the test, (n=16) passed it and (n=4) obtained a score above (n=85).

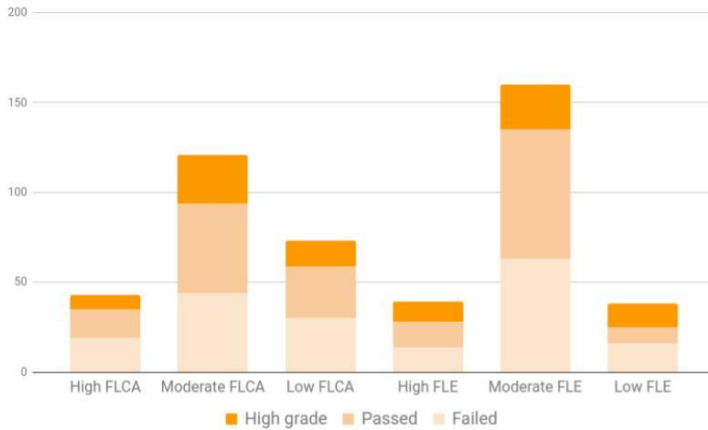


Figure 17. Distribution of Speaking scores with FLCA and FLE grouping

*c) Relationship between FLCA and FLE and final test scores: listening*

If we focus now on the listening section of the EOI test, we see that the overall number of failed students is lower, as we commented before. For the high-anxiety group, the majority (n=19) failed the listening section of the test, (n=16) passed it and (n=8) obtained a high score (four times as many as in the speaking section). As for the moderate-anxiety group, (n=50) passed the test (more than for the speaking section), (n=44) failed it and (n=27) obtained a high score. In the low-anxiety group, 30 participants failed,



(n=29) passed and (n=14) obtained a score above (n=85) - again, almost twice as many as in the speaking section.

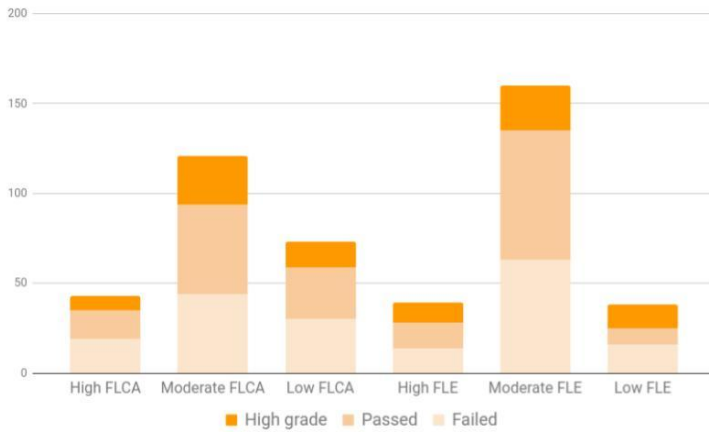


Figure 18. Distribution of Listening with FLCA and FLE grouping

Interestingly, in the high-enjoyment group the same number of students failed and passed the listening section (n=14), with (n=11) obtaining a high grade, making this the most homogeneous grouping. As for the moderate-enjoyment group, most participants (n=72) passed this section of the test, (n=63) failed it and (n=25) obtained a high score, in a similar distribution to what we have seen in the speaking section. Finally, in the low-enjoyment group, (n=16) participants failed this section of the test, and remarkably more participants (n=13) obtained a high grade than a lower one (n=9) (see figure 18).

*d) Relationship between FLCA and FLE and final test scores: writing*

As we move on to the written skills, the picture changes. When we look at the participants' results in the writing section of the EOI test, we see that, unlike in the speaking section, the majority of participants in the high-anxiety group (n=27) passed the test, (n=12) failed and (n=4) obtained a high grade. In the moderate-anxiety group, we again find a different distribution in comparison to the speaking section of the test, with (n=71) participants having passed the test, (n=26) obtaining a high grade and (n=24) having failed. In the low-anxiety group the order is the same: (n=43) passed, (n=16) had a high grade and (n=14) failed.

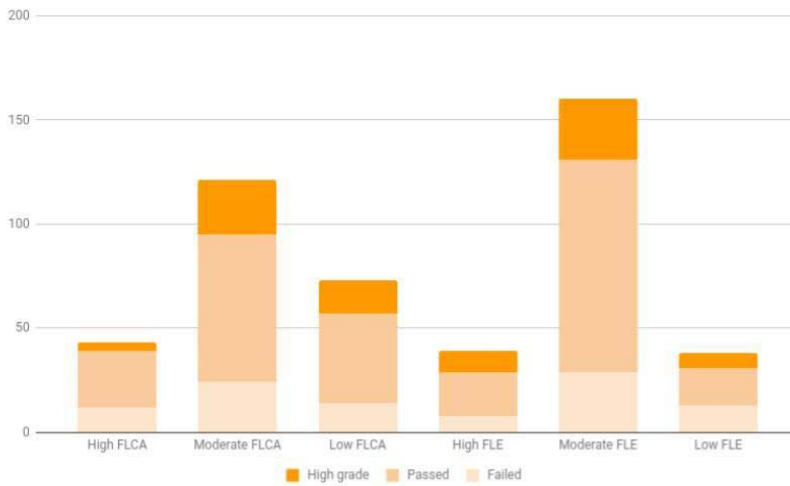


Figure 19. Distribution of Writing scores with FLCA and FLE grouping

In the high-enjoyment group, the smallest one for this section of the test, (n=21) participants passed the test, (n=10) had a high grade and (n=8) failed

the test. In the largest grouping, participants in the moderate-enjoyment group, (n=102) passed the test (almost twice as many as for the other two score groups together), and the same amount of participants (n=29) either failed or obtained a high grade. In the low-enjoyment group, 18 students passed the writing section of the test, (n=13) failed it and (n=7) had a high grade (see figure 19).

*e) Relationship between FLCA and FLE and final test scores: reading*

Similarly, in the reading section of the test, most students passed in every grouping, with the number of participants in the failing and high-grade groupings being similar to each other and, added together, roughly the same as the number of participants in the passing group. In the high-anxiety group, (n=20) passed this section of the test, (n=12) failed it and (n=11) obtained a high grade. In the moderate-anxiety group, (n=55) passed, (n=35) had a high grade and (n=31) failed. In the low-anxiety group, (n=31) passed, (n=23) failed and (n=19) obtained a high score.

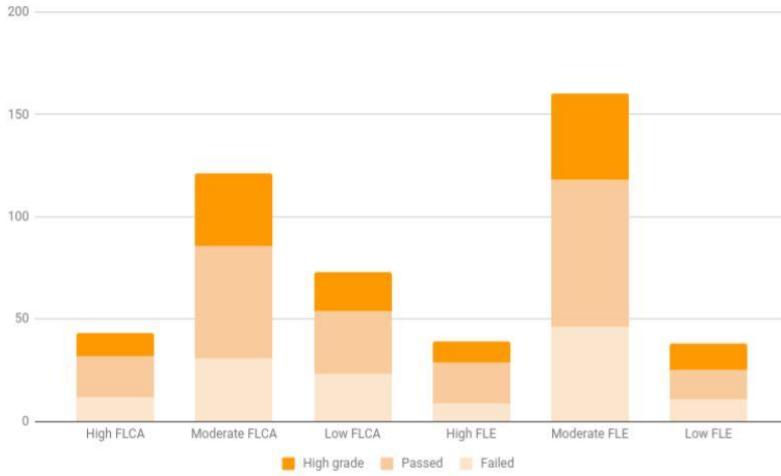


Figure 20. Distribution of Reading scores with FLCA and FLE grouping

As for the high-enjoyment group, 20 students passed, (n=10) had a high grade and (n=9) failed. In the moderate-enjoyment group, once again the largest grouping, 72 participants passed, (n=46) failed and (n=42) had a high grade. In the low-enjoyment group, which is the smallest one, 14 students passed this section of the test, (n=13) had a high grade and (n=11) failed (see figure 20).

*f) Relationship between FLCA and FLE and final test scores: language accuracy*

The section on language accuracy, the one students are probably more familiar with due to their educational background, can be grouped together with the written skills in terms of results. In the end of the year exam, language accuracy is measured in a multiple choice test that participants fill in on paper. Because of the familiar format, the distribution of results in each

grouping is very similar to what we observed in the other two written sections (reading and writing). In the high-anxiety group, 29 students passed this section of the test, (n=10) failed it and (n=4) obtained a high score. In the moderate-anxiety group, 61 participants passed, (n=43) failed and (n=17) obtained a high score. In the low-anxiety group, 37 participants passed, (n=24) failed and (n=12) obtained a high grade.

Regarding the FLE groups, we find that in the high-enjoyment group 22 participants passed this section of the test, (n=10) failed it and (n=7) obtained a high score. In the most numerous group, the moderate-enjoyment one, 89 students passed, (n=52) failed and (n=19) had a high score. In the low-enjoyment group, 16 participants passed, (n=15) failed and (n=7) obtained a high score (see figure 21).

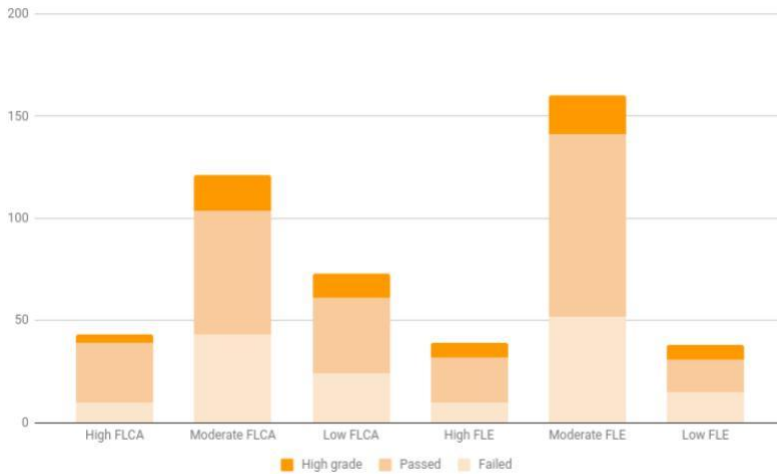


Figure 21. Distribution of Writing scores with FLCA and FLE grouping

#### **1.4. Results concerning the fourth research question**

*RQ4: Is there any effect of age, gender, proficiency levels, study abroad experience, language repertoire, age they started learning English, speaking English outside the classroom and educational level on FLCA and FLE at the beginning and at the end of the year?*

In order to analyse the data concerning the fourth research question, we first provide a general overview of the results for each individual difference, as obtained via the first section of the questionnaire, the one on background information. For every individual difference, we then provide a more detailed description based on groupings to explore how they relate to FLCA and

FLE levels at times 1 and 2. A series of one-way ANOVA tests, Pearson's correlations and independent t-test were employed to find the impact of a range of individual differences on FLCA and FLE, gathered.

As we can see in tables 13, 15, 16, 17, 18 and 19 below, there were mixed results regarding the relationship between FLCA and FLE and some of the individual differences. In time 1, some individual differences had no significant relationship with FLCA nor with FLE, namely, participants' age, language repertoire, educational level, age at which they started learning English and stay abroad experiences. Gender had a significant relationship with FLCA at time 1, but not with FLE. Proficiency level had a significant relationship with FLE at time one, although not with FLCA. Finally, speaking English outside the classroom had a significant relationship with both FLCA and FLE at time 1. In time 2, age, language repertoire, age of start, educational level and gender had no significant relationship with FLCA nor with FLE. Whereas proficiency level and stay abroad experiences had significant relationships with both FLCA and FLE. Finally, speaking outside classroom had a significant relationship with FLCA but not with FLE.

Table 14. ANOVA test for comparing FLCA and FLE and some individual variables (time 1)

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individual variables	AN OVA	Significance coefficient	FLC A	Pearson correlation	Significance coefficient	FLE
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Proficiency level	.144	.866	X	16.216	.000	✓
Experiences abroad	2.632	.051	X	.345	.793	X
Time spent abroad	1.098	.352	X	.174	.914	X
Language repertoire	2.570	.055	X	1.470	.223	X
n° of additional languages	1.658	.161	X	1.663	.159	X
Educational level	1.106	.347	X	1.376	.251	X

Note. ✓ significant differences, X not significant differences

Table 15. ANOVA test for comparing FLCA and FLE and some individual variables (time 2)

individual variables	ANO VA	Significance coefficient	FLC A	Pearson correlation	Significance coefficient	FL E
Proficiency level	14.855	.000	✓	44.347	.000	✓
Experiences abroad	5.685	.001	✓	2.707	.046	✓
Time spent abroad	1.083	.358	X	1.698	.169	X
Language repertoire	1.412	.240	X	.796	.497	X
n° of additional languages	.903	.463	X	1.053	.381	X
Educational level	.280	.840	X	.271	.847	X

Note. ✓ significant differences, X not significant differences



Table 16. Significance of the individual variables in relation to FLCA and FLE (Pearson correlation) (time 2)

individual variables	Pearson correlation	Significance coefficient	FL CA	Pearson correlation	Significance coefficient	FLE
Age	.027	.682	X	-.095	.146	X
Age of start English	.105	.106	X	-.076	.242	X

Note. ✓ significant differences, X not significant differences

Table 17. Significance of the individual variables in relation to FLCA and FLE (Pearson correlation (time 2)

individual variables	Pearson correlation	Significance coefficient	FL CA	Pearson correlation	Significance coefficient	FL E
Age	-.035	.594	X	-.042	.516	X
Age of start English	.082	.207	X	-.074	.256	X

Note. ✓ significant differences, X not significant differences

Table 18. Significance of the individual variables in relation to FLCA and FLE (Independent t- test)(time 1)

individual variables	T-test	Significance coefficient	FLCA	Pearson correlation	Significance coefficient	FLE
Gender	2.764	.006	✓	-.583	.560	X
Speaking English outside	233	.000	✓	-.074	.256	X

Note. ✓ significant differences, ✗ not significant differences

Table. 19 Significance of the individual variables in relation to FLCA and FLE (Independent t- test)(time 2)

individual variables	T-test	Significance coefficient	FLCA	Pearson correlation	Significance coefficient	FLE
Gender	1.751	.081	✗	-.294	.769	✗
Speaking English outside	4.529	.000	✓	-.074	.256	✓

Note. ✓ significant differences, ✗ no significant differences

*a) Relationship between FLCA, FLE and proficiency level*

As we mentioned in chapter 2, the participants of the study were distributed in 3 groups based on their proficiency levels (as measured in the CEFR): C1 being the highest level, followed by B2 and B1. Appendix I shows statistics for FLCA and individual differences at the beginning and at the end of the year for each group. The K-S indicates the Statistics for the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test which ensured the distributions were normal in all groups ( $p > 0.05$ ). Results also show that FLCA mean ( $\pm$ SD) at the beginning was  $40.12 \pm 9.292$ , and the results ranged between 17 and 66. FLCA mean ( $\pm$ SD) at the end was  $39.25 \pm 10.731$  ranged between 14 and 68. The expected mean for FLCA was 42. Therefore FLCA means were less than the

expected average except the time 2 in group B1 which was slightly above the average. The one sample t-test showed that in group C1 (at time 1 and time 2), group B2 at the time 2, and for all participants (at both time 1 and time 2), the FLCA means were significantly below the average ( $p < 0.05$ ) (see Appendix 1 table b). The results of ANOVA test show that FLCA means at the beginning were not significantly different among different levels of proficiency ( $p > 0.05$ ). On the other hand, at the end of the year, FLCA means significantly differed among different levels of proficiency ( $p < 0.05$ ). The Scheffe post-hoc test showed that at the end of the year, B1 group had higher FLCA than B2 and C1 groups. While B2 and C1 had no significant difference (see tables 14 and 15).

The results of ANOVA test indicated that FLE means at the beginning and the end were significantly different among different levels of proficiency ( $p > 0.05$ ). The Scheffe post-hoc test revealed that at the beginning of the year, B1 and C1 groups had higher FLE than B2 group, but the former had no significant difference. Results show that FLE mean ( $\pm$ SD) at time1 was  $73.21 \pm 6.738$ , and ranged between 52 and 90. FLCA mean ( $\pm$ SD) at the end was  $73.65 \pm 8.797$ , and it ranged between 52 and 94. The expected mean for FLE was 57. Therefore, FLE means in all groups were significantly above the average ( $p < 0.05$  by sample t-test). The results of ANOVA shown in table 15 for the end of the year, indicates that all 3 groups were significantly

different. The order from highest to lowest FLE was C1, B2 and B1, respectively.

*b) Relationship between FLCA, FLE and stay abroad experiences*

Appendix I table D shows the statistical analysis for FLCA and FLE and participants' stay abroad experiences. To investigate this relationship, we used the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test as follows. The results of ANOVA test in table 14 indicated that the level of FLCA at the beginning did not differ significantly depending on the number of countries visited by participants ( $p>0.05$ ). At time 2, FLCA significantly differed among different number of countries visited by participants ( $p<0.05$ ). The Scheffe post-hoc test revealed that those who had visited 2 or 3 foreign countries had less FLCA than those who had never been abroad (see table 15).

The results of the ANOVA test indicates that FLE at the beginning of the year was not significantly different in connection to the number of countries visited by participants ( $p>0.05$ ). At the end, FLE significantly differed among different number of countries visited by participants ( $p<0.05$ ). The Scheffe post-hoc test revealed that those who had visited 3 English speaking countries had more FLE than those who had visited no such countries (see tables 14 and 15).

Appendix I table e shows the statistical analysis for FLCA and FLE and time spent abroad. Regarding the amount of time spent abroad , the results of ANOVA test in the tables 14 and 15 indicated that FLCA at the beginning and at the end were not significantly different among different time spent in abroad ( $p>0.05$ ). The results of ANOVA test in the above tables indicated that FLE means at the beginning and the end were not significantly different among different time spent in abroad ( $p>0.05$ ).

*c) Relationship between FLCA, FLE and participants' language repertoire*

Appendix I table f shows the statistical analysis for FLCA and FLE and language repertoire. To investigate the relationship between FLCA, FLE and the number of additional languages participants spoke, we used the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test. The results of ANOVA test in the tables 14 and 15 show that FLCA means at the beginning and at the end were not significant depending on the number of languages known by participants ( $p>0.05$ ). The results of ANOVA test show that there were no significant relationships between FLE and the number of additional languages participants spoke at time 1 and time 2.

Appendix I table g shows the statistical analysis for FLCA and FLE and the different languages known by participants. To investigate the relationship between FLCA, FLE and the different languages known by participants,

namely French, Italian, German and a group of the less frequent additional languages, we used the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test. The results of ANOVA test in tables 14 and 15 show that FLCA means at both the beginning and the end were not significant among different Languages known by participants ( $p>0.05$ ). As shown in tables 14 and 15 there was no significant relationship between FLE and different languages participants known at time 1 and time 2 ( $p>0.5$ ).

*d) Relationship between FLCA, FLE and educational level*

Appendix I table h shows the statistical analysis for FLCA and FLE and different levels of education. To investigate this relationship, we used the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test. The results, in tables 14 and 15, showed that FLCA means at the beginning and at the end did not significantly differ among different levels of education ( $p>0.05$ ). There was no significant relationship between FLCA and levels of education. The results of ANOVA test in the tables 14 and 15 showed that FLE means at the beginning and the end were not significantly different among different levels of education ( $p>0.05$ ). Thus there was no significant relationship between FLE and levels of education.

*e) Relationship between FLCA, FLE and age*

Appendix I table i shows the statistics for FLCA and FLE and age at time 1 and time 2. Table 16 and 17 and figures 34 and 35 show the results for FLCA and FLE among different age groups at time 1 and time 2, using Pearson correlation test to explore their relationship. The results show that there was no significant difference between age levels in FLCA and FLE, neither in time 1 nor in time 2 ( $p>0.05$ ).

*f) Relationship between FLCA, FLE and the age at which participants started learning English*

We have grouped participants according to the age at which they started learning English into eight different groups, as shown in figure 8 earlier. Ages from 0 to 10 have been split into two groups in order to see what participants started learning before English was introduced in formal education - which tends to happen in primary, although more recently this would be in the second cycle of pre-primary education, at three years of age. Appendix I table J shows the statistics for FLCA and FLE and the age at which participants started learning English time 1 and time 2. FLCA and FLE can be compared to the different age groups by using a Pearson correlation test, as shown in tables 16 and 17. The results show that there

was no significant relationship between the different age groups and FLCA, neither in time 1 nor in time 2 ( $p>0.05$ ).

*g) Relationship between FLCA, FLE and gender*

Appendix I table k shows the statistics for FLCA and FLE and gender at time 1 and time 2. The relationships between and FLCA with gender were studied by the t-independent test as given in tables 18 and 19. The results of independent t-test show that the FLCA at the time 1 was significantly different between males and females ( $p<0.05$ ). The FLCA means at the beginning shows that females had higher anxiety than males, at time 1. At time 2, FLCA did not significantly differ between males and females ( $p>0.05$ ). Regarding FLE, we did not find any significant relationship between gender and FLE at the beginning or at end of the year ( $p>0.05$ ).

*b) Relationship between FLCA, FLE and speaking English outside classroom*

Appendix I table l shows the statistics for FLCA and FLE and speaking English outside classroom at time 1 and time 2. The relationships between FLCA (in time 1 and time 2) with speaking English outside classroom were studied by the t-independent test as shown in tables 18 and 19. The results of independent t-test shows that FLCA means at the beginning and at the end were significantly different between those speaking and not speaking English



outside classroom ( $p < 0.05$ ). The FLCA means of those speaking English outside classroom were less than those who not, both at the beginning and at the end.

The relationships between FLE and speaking English outside classroom at time 1 and time 2 were studied by the t-independent test as given in tables 18 and 19. The results of independent t-test shows that for FLE in time 1, there was no significant difference between those speaking and not speaking English outside classroom ( $p > 0.05$ ). On the other hand, the FLE at time 2 was significantly different between those speaking and not speaking English outside classroom ( $p < 0.05$ ). At the beginning, the FLE mean of those speaking English outside classroom was higher than those who do not.

## **1.5. Results concerning the fifth research question**

*RQ5: What are the sources of FLCA and FLE?*

The answers to this question are based on two different tools, the open-ended questions in the questionnaire at times 1 and 2, and the qualitative data obtained through the interviews with a sample of students and teachers, as described in the previous chapter. Throughout the project, all students' and teachers' names have been changed to preserve their anonymity. The qualitative data is available in appendices E (student interviews), F (teacher interviews) and C (open-ended questions). Based on

the information obtained from the open-ended questions of the questionnaire and from the interviews with students and teachers, we describe the main sources of FLCA and FLE from each group's point of view as analysed in terms of their content using grounded-theory.

The sources of FLCA and FLE described by language learners and their teachers were categorised into three groups, namely 1) learner-related sources, which covered sources of FLCA and FLE connected to participants' selves; 2) teacher-related factors, which referred to participants' reactions to teacher behaviour, their relationship with the teacher or their interactions with them; and 3) context-related sources, which comprehends situations that trigger FLCA or FLE such as a particular type of activity or an exam situation, for example.

The results are available in table 20 below, which enables us to contrast the results obtained for every category in connection to FLCA and FLE. In the table, we have included the number of instances each category appeared in students' answers to the questionnaire and in the interviews with students and with teachers.

Table 20. Sources of FLCA based on interview and open-ended questions

Category	Sources of FLCA	n° in student interviews	n° in open-ended questions	n° teacher interviews	total n°
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*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*

Learner-related sources	Fear of making mistakes	5	25	3	33
	Fear of negative evaluation	5	18	3	26
	Fear of failing the year	5	14	3	22
	Participants' lack of proficiency	3	11	3	17
	Fear of forgetting words	4	7	1	12
	Speaking without preparation	2	6	2	10
	Competition with peers	3	4	2	9
	Lack of self-confidence	4	-	3	7
	Negative past experiences	4	-	2	6
	Perfectionist tendencies	3	-	2	5
	Lack of intrinsic motivation for learning English	3	-	-	3
	Personal problems	3	-	-	3
Context-related sources	Speaking activities (speaking in front of the class)	10	80	3	93
	Tests	7	33	3	43
	Listening activities	5	18	3	26
	Unfamiliar topic	3	5	-	8

*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*

	Lack of practice in the classroom (especially listening and writing)	2	-	-	2
	Difficult tasks	1	-	1	2
	Too much homework	1	-	-	1
	Differences between English and Spanish	-	-	1	1
Teacher-related sources	Teacher asks questions in front of the class	6	21	-	27
	Teacher corrects mistakes harshly	5	7	3	15
	Teacher is not supportive	4	-	3	7
	Answering a question without preparation	1	4	1	6
	Teacher is strict	3	-	3	6
	Teacher is moody or changeable	2	-	-	2
	Inappropriate teaching method	-	-	1	1
	Speaking only in English with peers	-	-	-	-

Table 21 Sources of FLE based on interview and open-ended questions

Category	Sources of FLE	n° in student interviews	n° in open-ended questions	n° teacher interviews	total n°
Learner-related sources	Awareness of their own progress	6	25	3	34
	Good relationship with peers	5	11	2	18
	Intrinsic motivation to learn English	6	-	3	9
	Positive attitude to learning	5	-	3	8
	Self-confidence	5	-	3	8
	High proficiency level	3	-	2	5
Context-related sources	Pair or small-group work	10	38	3	51
	Playing games	4	16	3	23
	Watching a movie	5	5	3	13
	Listening to music	2	-	2	4
	Singing a song	1	-	1	2
	Making jokes in class	-	1	1	2
	Pair or small-group work	10	38	3	51

	Playing games	4	16	3	23
Teacher-related sources	Good relationship between teacher and students	5	5	3	13
	Teacher is kind	2	1	2	5
	Teacher is supportive	2	-	1	3
	Teacher is creative	1	-	1	2
	Teacher is active	1	-	1	2
	Appropriate methodology	-	-	2	2

Among these three categories, learner-related factors occurred most frequently in participants' answers during the interviews, followed by external factors and teacher-related factors, both for FLCA and FLE and across teachers and students' answers. There were twelve different types of sources of FLCA within the learner-related category, which largely coincided with the sources we had encountered during the literature review - fear of making mistakes and lack of confidence, for example. In some cases, the sources in FLE are directly opposed to the sources of FLCA, such as in self-confidence vs. lack of self-confidence, interest in learning English vs. lack of interest in learning English; whereas others seem to bear no direct connection to one another. Learner-related sources of FLCA included many

sources connected to students' apprehensions: fear of making mistakes (n=33), fear of negative evaluation (n=26), fear of failing (n=22), fear of forgetting words (n=12). Others hinted at students' poor self-image and negative view of their skills: participants' lack of proficiency (n=17), having to speak without preparation (n=10), competition with peers (n=9), lack of confidence (n=7), negative past experiences (n=6). Finally, some of their answers connected FLCA to students' personal issues: perfectionist tendencies (n=5), lack of intrinsic motivation for learning English (n=3), personal problems (n=3). As for FLE, only one of the sources refers to their relationship with their peers - good relationship between classmates (n=18). Most sources of FLE were connected to students' perceptions and state of mind: awareness of their own progress (n=34), intrinsic motivation to learn English (n=9), feeling motivated (n=8), learning new things (n=5), positive attitude to learning English (n=8), self-confidence (n=5), high proficiency level (n=3).

In the context-related sources, we found mainly references to classroom activities, particularly oral activities, both regarding FLCA and FLE, with peer interaction being one of the main sources of FLE in contrast to the negative impact of speaking in more formal settings. Context-related sources of FLCA included very prominently oral activities (speaking in front of the class, speaking activities in the class (n= 93), listening activities (n=26). The

other sources referred to aspects of the sessions or context that escape students' control, such as tests (n=43), unfamiliar topics (n=89), lack of practicing different subjects in the classroom, especially listening and writing (n=2), difficult tasks (n=2), too much homework (n=2), and differences between English and Spanish (n=1). For FLE, context-related sources included whole-group activities or activities that necessitated interaction: pair or small-group work (n=51), playing games (n=23), watching a film (n=13), listening to music (n=13), singing a song (n=4), making jokes (n=2), reading a story (n=2), role-play (n=1), dynamic session (n=1).

For the last category, teacher-related sources, students' relationship with their teacher was very important in contributing to both FLCA and FLE. When students felt attacked or unsupported, FLCA was triggered, whereas they reported FLE when the teacher had a good relationship with them and was creative in the design of the sessions. Teacher-related sources of FLCA mainly included teacher behaviours that made students feel attacked: teachers ask questions in front of the class (n=27), harsh manner of correcting mistakes by teacher (n=15), teacher is not supportive (n=7), teacher asks questions without preparation (n=6), teacher is strict (n=6). It also included aspects of the sessions that students found unfair or out of their control: teacher is moody or changeable (n=2), inappropriate methods of the teacher (n=2), speaking only English in the class with students (n=1). As for the



teacher-related sources of FLE, the quality of the relationship between the teacher and the group proved to be key: good relationship between teacher and students (n=13) teacher is kind (n=5), teacher is supportive (n=3), teacher is creative (n=2), teacher is active (n=2), appropriate methodology of the teacher (n=2).

It is important to note that during the analysis, the data from students and teachers often connected different sources, as shown in the examples below. In this kind of cases, we counted the sources separately even if they were all in the same statement in order to provide a more detailed picture of the sources.

In the example we are presenting, Susana describes how she experienced FLCA when doing a particular task (context-related source), but her FLCA also stemmed from her own perception of her lack of proficiency in comparison to her classmates (learner-related source). In the case of Lucía, her own lack of confidence (learner-related source) is reinforced by the teacher's behaviour (teacher-related source), which leads her to compare herself negatively with her peers (learner-related source).

“I am afraid of speaking in front of my classmates, I think the proficiency levels of my classmates are higher than me and they are better than me in speaking English. I am afraid that my classmates laugh at me”. (Susana, student, interview)

“I think my classmates are better than me. I realized the teacher encourages them a lot but not me, I think in compare with my classmates I am one of the worst students in this class”. (Lucia, student, interview)

## **2. Discussion**

In this section, we provide an overview and analysis of the results, and compare and contrast the findings of this study to the results obtained in previous research. So as to enrich the discussion, we have used some of the qualitative data in order to illustrate specific aspects of the results and to provide insights into the likely causes behind the interactions between FLCA, FLE and their sources, with other individual variables, and with learners' performance. We first discuss the levels of FLCA and FLE in the classroom in connection to their symptoms and sources, then connect them to other individual variables in terms of the profiles that emerged from our data, and finally analyse the impact FLCA and FLE have on students' performance in the EOI test.

### **2.1. FLCA and FLE in the foreign language classroom**

As seen in the previous section, both the quantitative and qualitative evidence shows that participants in this study experienced FLCA and FLE during their English courses as a result of personal, teacher-related and

context-related factors, in line with the findings of Dewaele et al. (2014, 2017), Garret and Young (2009), Von Worde (2003), Pekrun et al. (2002a) and Bailey (1983). In this particular context, language learners experienced higher levels of FLE than of FLCA in the classroom, which again coincides with the findings of Dewaele et al. (2014). The quantitative result of study shows that there was significant negative relationship between FLE and FLCA at the beginning and at the end of the year, which means that participants with higher levels of FLE experienced less FLCA. However, Dewaele also claimed that the absence of FLCA does not automatically imply high levels of FLE and vice-versa. In other words, language learners with low level of FLCA may experience high level of FLE and it is also possible for language learners to experience high levels of FLE and high levels of FLCA or low levels of both. Based on the language learners and language teachers' reports, both groups believed that FLCA and FLE have a negative relationship. They believed that language learners who enjoy more in the class may suffer less anxiety and they mentioned that language teachers must decrease the level of anxiety by making classroom more enjoyable.

For both emotions, the tendency was to be grouped around the moderate levels, although for this particular cohort, their medium level of FLE was higher than the level of FLCA they experienced, with FLE scores mostly gathered on the top half of the scale. In the interviews, the teachers reported

that they were aware of the existence of FLCA and FLE among language learners:

“In my opinion language learners observe both positive and negative emotions of their students in the class, I have had a lot anxious students especially in EOI when I worked with secondary education we did have some, but not that many. I think all teachers are aware of it I think it is really difficult to control the negative emotion of students. Teachers must know how to control this emotions. If the students have no strategy to cope with this and the teachers have no strategies to guide them and help them and overcome these fears, and then become hurtful” (Oscar, teacher, interview).

“I have a few students who really enjoy this course. I think they come because they want to learn, no one’s telling them [to attend this course] except for teenagers, the rest of them are here because they want to. Most of them are very happy, and happy and also we have people who are not happy nor sad they have to study English because of their life, jobs, university degrees. They have to do it. This is only some part of my students. I can see this kind of students, if you offer them extra activities besides the courses they all want to do everything. If you offer them conversation classes, workshops and trips they all want to do everything because they feel that they are doing something they like, it’s a hobby for them so it is really good to have students like them (Oscar, teacher, interview).

Regarding FLCA, the results of the current study support the findings of other quantitative-based studies (Horwitz et al., 1986; Aida, 1994; Horwitz, 2001) that found that language learners tend to experience moderate levels of FLCA. More specifically, Horwitz (2001) mentioned that one-third of students who learn a foreign language suffer at least a moderate level of FLCA. In contrast, Von Worde (2003) reported that 73% language learners experienced moderate levels of FLCA and 34% experienced high levels of FLCA, which shows a different distribution in comparison to the measures obtained in the current study, in which the number of learners who

experienced high levels of FLCA had decreased at the end of the course and tended to group around moderate levels.

Our results differ from the findings of Dewaele (2017), in which no significant effect of time emerged on FLCA among 189 secondary school pupils. The results of our study also differ from the results of other researchers such as Jee (2014) and Samimy & Tabuse (1992), which both found an increase in learners' level of FLCA over time, Jee with a sample of 12 Korean foreign language learners and Samimy and Tabuse with 39 American students of Japanese over two trimestres.

Such contrasting outcomes may be connected to the participants' familiarity with the target language and its culture, to differences in teaching methodology and learning context or to how different foreign languages correlate with different levels of FLCA (Sellers, 2000). Overall, participants in the current study reported a significantly lower level of FLCA at the end of the year, whereas there were no significant differences regarding the level of FLE at the beginning and at the end of the year. The previous quotes from one of the teacher interviews may also contribute to shed some light regarding these results. As our cohort was largely composed of adults who were attending a non-compulsory language course, many of them felt less challenged than they would in their previous experiences with EFL in

secondary education. Being adults, they have also had more opportunities to develop strategies to deal with FLCA.

Regarding the results of FLE measures observed in our sample, which tended to become more moderate in time 2, Dewaele (2016) found, on the contrary, that the level of FLE increased over time for the participants in his study. As in the case of FLCA, such differences might be partly due to the differences between the contexts and the participants in the study - teens in compulsory language courses in secondary education in Dewaele's study vs non-compulsory adult language courses in ours. As the second round of questionnaires was distributed closely before the end-of-year exams, a very high-stakes situation in which students risk not being able to continue onto the following year, this could have affected the scores in both FLCA and FLE, making students question their own progress and the efficiency of the methods and activities designed by the teacher.

The participants' levels of FLCA in the current study manifested via several physical and psychological symptoms, many of which have been identified in previous studies. Leary (1982) described, for example, how learners "squirm in their seats, fidget, play with their hair, clothes, or other manipulable objects, stutter and stammer as they talk, and generally appear jittery and nervous" (p. 110). Na (2007), added some more physical symptoms of FLCA

such as headaches, shaking, heartbeat, crying and feeling upset in the stomach. This kind of behaviour was also noted by the learners and teachers interviewed in our study:

“Many times I saw in my class that when students got anxious they breathed so fast.” (Adriana, teacher, interview)

“When I am stressed in this class my heart beats so fast so fast I can't control it and my body starts shaking, especially my hands.” (Sara, student, interview)

In reference to the cognitive impact of FLCA, Young (1982) suggested that FLCA often manifests in symptoms such as “forgetting words or phrases just learned or simply refusing to speak and remaining silent” (p.430). When faced in class with a learning situation that makes them uncomfortable, students may prefer to withdraw from the activities. Similarly, Sena, Lowe, and Lee, (2007) also identified as symptoms of FLCA learners' inability to concentrate, tension, apprehension and mental blocking. These symptoms also emerged in the interviews:

“When students feel anxiety they get blocked especially in listening and they can't follow the rest of the listening”. (Eli, teacher, interview)

“I have seen a few times when students feel anxiety they cry, especially female students. They cry when we do an oral assessment they really get stressed and sometimes they get blocked and you can see the tears on their faces”. (Oscar, teacher, interview)

“When I feel anxiety in the class I forget everything I can't concentrate and my body becomes warm and my face blushed”. (Camila, student, interview)

“They just look down, they don't look at you, they hide” (Eli, teacher, interview)

“When my students are happy you can see the smile on their faces”(Adriana, teacher, interview)

“When I am happy in the class I smile more I do all activities I speak more and I have good feeling and I like to transmit this feeling to others”. (Mel, student, interview)

Regarding the sources of FLCA and FLE, there were some agreements between language teachers and learners, as we described in the previous section. These similarities are present in the learner-related, teacher-related and context-related sources, including sources that trigger both FLCA and FLE. Such coincidence in their answers reflects the awareness of both students and teachers of the role emotions play in learning, and the policies put in place by the EOI to engage students at an emotional level in order to maximise their learning opportunities - via the choice of materials, out-of-class activities, intercultural work, approaches to teacher-student relationships, etc.



It is interesting to note that the sources for FLCA and FLE are articulated very differently in the qualitative data, which suggests that these two emotions overlap rather than sit in symmetrical opposition. Whereas the sources for FLE are mainly connected to relationships and meaningful interactions, to activities that contribute to build the students' social network within the class, the sources of FLCA derive from students' negative perceptions about the fairness of the system, the challenges posed by the context of formal education and a sense of lack of control and poor self-image.

The results of this study are in line with the findings of other researchers who identified learner-related variables as sources of FLCA, with low proficiency (Wu and Chan 2004, Liu, 2006) and fear of negative evaluation (Watson & Friend, 1969; Horwitz, et al., 1986; Prince, 1991; Kitano, 2001; Von Worde 2003; Ohata, 2005) as the main sources. Horwitz et al (1986) mentioned that learning a foreign language might negatively impact language learners' self-confidence, as it requires a new mode of communication that learners are not accustomed to, and it may challenge their own perceptions about their abilities or endurance. A language learner's negative past educational experiences can also have a negative impact on similar situations in the future (Pekrun, 1992). On the contrary, language learners with high levels of self-confidence are likely to be less anxious. Eva's case provides an

illustrative example of learner-related sources of FLCA connected to self-image. This participant reported feeling FLCA because of her lack of self-confidence, fear of failure and previous negative experiences. Her own poor perception of her lack of proficiency is subjectively phrased, but also reinforced by her previous failure and subsequent fear of negative evaluation:

“ I do not have any self-confidence and security this year and I think it has negative effect on my learning. I am studying English everyday but I am not happy with my level. I failed two times in this school and if I fail this time I don't have any chance to study in this school. I am really afraid of failing this year”. (Eva, student, interview)

To some extent, student's lack of self-confidence stems from their perceived shortcomings and perfectionist tendencies. As reflected in our study, besides students with low self-confidence (Ohata, 2005), those who feel they lack vocabulary (Imai, 2010; Liu, 2006) and students with perfectionist traits (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002) have also been identified in research as prone to experiencing FLCA. Learners with perfectionist traits set themselves extremely high standards of achievement that are unlikely to be attained, which in turn causes disappointment and FLCA. Consequently, perfectionist language learners are not easily satisfied with their language progress and have a higher level of worries about their mistakes. This is exactly the case with Camila, who in her own words describes how the anticipation of failure and her inability to be satisfied has a negative impact on her emotional

well-being. Even though she is in the last year of studies at the EOI, she still has very unrealistic expectations about what this entails:

“I think I am a perfectionist person. I want to do everything correctly and perfectly. Whenever I make a mistake or cannot remember a word when I am speaking or writing, it makes me really sad (...) Because I am in fifth level and I have to speak fluently and write perfectly without any mistake”. (Camila, student, interview)

For some participants, their lack of self-confidence manifested in fear of error, with the very concept of error being intrinsically connected to the context of the classroom, in the sense that errors were only a problem when they happened during a session, not just because of the teacher, but also because of the possibility that peers may notice too. In this line, Prince (1991) pointed at language learners' fear of negative evaluation from their teachers and classmates as a key trigger of FLCA, which makes them feel uncomfortable to perform in class due to their fear of failing (Watson & Friend, 1969; Aida, 1994; Marwan, 2007), or fear of making mistakes (Young, 1990; Liu, 2007; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). Burden (2004) connected high levels of FLCA to learners' worries about the impressions that others form of them. The feeling of being watched by classmates and teacher can make some language learners feel insecure and unable to perform well in English classroom (Ohata, 2005). These kinds of language learners might feel anxious for fear of negative evaluation from their peers even in small groups so they remain silent in the class:

“Making mistakes in the classroom makes me nervous but when I speak English outside the classroom I feel ok. For example, when I travel I don't pay attention to my mistakes so I feel better but in the class it is totally different, I think everybody pays attention to my mistakes.” (Joan, student, open-ended question)

In this sense, the way students perceived their relationship with their peers determined whether this would be a source of FLCA or a source of FLE. Aydin (2008) suggested that those students who found that their classmates were better than them in speaking had a tendency to compare their speaking level with them in the classroom and to adopt competitive behaviors, which generated FLCA. Von Worde (2003) and Effiong (2016) similarly asserted that foreign language learners always compare themselves with their classmates and try to perform better than them. However, and in contrast to this notion of pervasive competition, Mel felt she was supported by her peers, and this increased her motivation to work and improved her well-being in class:

“I love my classmates we are very close and try to help each other. Even though they are younger than me we have a good relationship. We even practice English out of class once a week. They give me motivation. I feel comfortable in this class. (Mel, student, interview)

In terms of participants' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the results matched the information from previous research studies in the field, in spite of their apparent contradictions. When students experience high levels of FLCA, they tend to lose their motivation for learning (Gardner & Lalonde, 1987; Pekrun, Goetz, Titz & Perry, 2002; Meyer & Turner, 2006). Students'

interest and involvement in the subject determined to a large extent their emotional experiences and progress, both positively and negatively, and the other way around. For students who did not enjoy learning English, progress felt slow and their efforts went unrewarded, while perception of progress could increase students' motivation to work harder:

“I know English is important these days and it is obligatory in school but I don't like English, I love French. I started English and French at the same time, but my level of French is much higher than that of English. I think when you love something you can do it better”. (Sophia, student, interview)

“I love learning languages, I can speak several languages, I love English. I think when you love something that you are doing you can enjoy it more. In this case, I love learning English and every time I am enjoying it more.” (Sara, student, interview)

“Loving learning English is the most important source of enjoyment because when you love something you can do it better”. (Oscar, teacher, interview)

“When students see their positive progress they really enjoy and give them motivation to work harder”. (Eli, teacher, interview)

“When I am in a good process for example when I realize that I can learn difficult things that before I couldn't learn I feel proud of myself and I enjoy it a lot. This good feeling gives me motivation to study more, my feeling is amazing, I can't express it very well but I love this sensation.” (Mel, student, interview)

For some students, motivation was derived from learning in connection to an academic context, as was the case of Albert, which relates to the sense of progress that we mentioned above, but also as a result of their satisfaction after doing well. For other students, such as Jo, their motivation stemmed from goals beyond the classroom context. In connection to the participant profiles and their proneness to FLCA and FLE, it is worth noting that the

participants who had visited countries in which English was the language of communication had lower levels of FLCA. We may draw the conclusion that students need to feel they are successful to stay motivated, that they are capable of doing what is expected and capable of being autonomous learners, be it in class or outside:

“Learning new things especially new grammar makes me really happy.”  
(Albert, student, interview)

“One time I had to speak in front of class I did a good job and it made me happy”. (Angel, student, open-ended question)

“ I enjoy learning English a lot because it is my biggest goal is to go to study in the USA.” (Jo, student, interview)

However, some authors suggest that FLCA is positively and significantly related to motivation (Toth, 2007; Liu & Huang, 2011), an idea that also emerged in student and teacher interviews, and one which hints at the concept of facilitating anxiety described in the theoretical framework:

“A little bit of anxiety or stress is good for me because it forces me to study more and make me more active in the class and it can have a positive effect on my final marks but when I feel high level of anxiety my mind gets blocked and I can't focus and I feel bad”. (Susanna, student, interview)

However, this perception does not match the data that contrasts the levels of FLCA and FLE with participants' test scores in the end-of-the-year exam. Even though FLCA levels were mostly moderate and low, there was still a negative correlation of FLCA with students' test scores. In fact, the highest rate of passing in the overall test score was for the moderate group, both for FLCA and for FLE. As these effects varied for each skill, we may argue that facilitating anxiety does not apply equally through all the types of FLCA, but

rather depends on the skill anxiety is connected to. Remarkably, students' levels of FLE did not bear any significant relationship to the test scores when focusing on the FLE scores in time 2.

Regarding the context-related factors, students and language teachers reported that speaking in front of others was the most anxiety provoking factor, which coincides with the findings of other researchers (Price, 1991; Phillips, 1992; Von Worde, 2003; Brantemier, 2005; Liu, 2006; Woodrow, 2006). In general, students reported that oral activities are the most anxiety provoking ones (Horwitz, 1986; Price, 1991; Balemir, 2009; Wilson, 2007), as it is the most visible way in which language learners compare their proficiency to that of their their peers, teachers and native speakers (Kitano, 2001). On the other hand, some of the activities that students enjoyed the most also involved speaking and listening (watching a film, listening to a song, role-playing, for example). It is worth noting that the oral activities teachers enjoyed the most shared some key features: they were framed in a familiar way to students or had contents which may have been familiar to them; they were not high stakes situations but rather informal and/or playful exchanges; they conveyed a sense of genuine communication rather than a situation in which the main focus is on form (and ergo on students' possible shortcomings).

Another prominent source of FLCA was being in an exam context, based on the participants' reports, which supports previous research (Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, 1986). Being in a high stakes situation faces learners with the reality that it is not them who decide on their learning path, but rather their teacher and the team of teachers who participate in the assessment. The results of the current study is in line with Shi and Liu (2006), who found that unfamiliar topics were a source of anxiety for some language learners. As Ausubel (1963) theory of meaningful learning posits, students can learn better when they can relate new knowledge to their prior knowledge, thus moving from the familiar to the unfamiliar gradually. On the contrary, when students face unfamiliar topics, they cannot relate the topic to their prior knowledge so they experience anxiety or feel their progress has stalled:

“It gives me stress to speak about the topic that I am not familiar with. One time my teacher asked me to explain about playing chess in front of the class did not know anything about this game so I remained silent. (Albert, student, interview)

In an exam context, students fear encountering an unfamiliar topic that challenges their EFL resources, and they also fear being assessed by someone from outside their classroom (EOI oral exams are assessed by at least two teachers). On top of that, some students complained that they did not get enough practice before the actual exam day, which did not match with the descriptions of the activities they offered when they were asked regarding



FLE. This is again probably connected to students' lack of experience with oral exams, and the impact this lack of control has on their self-image. In all these cases, the responsibility for this situation does not correspond to the students themselves but rather to the teachers, who are held accountable by students for all their learning or lack thereof.

Regarding FLE, all teachers reported that working in pair or groups was a source of FLE for students, and they had identified some specific activities such as listening to music or watching movies or singing a song as both a good way of learning English and increasing students' FLE. Teachers connected FLE to an absence of threatening situations and to the creation of a dynamic, engaging session design. When students described these activities, they suggested that the focus on social interaction helped strengthen group relationships across their differences, thus enabling them to build a network of support and collaboration. As they did things together (trips, film festivals, culture days, etc.), the sense of cohesion within the group grows. In the interviews with teachers, the idea that FLE depended largely on the teachers emerged, as with the student interviews: the design of the interaction, the contents of the class, the pace and teaching, all these are dependent from the teacher and the students are unable to resist or oppose them:

“Students enjoy working in small groups or in pairs, students aren’t afraid when you ask them questions when they can answer in pairs.”(Eli, teacher, interview)

“Playing games, using technology, makes the class enjoyable and dynamic. If the class is dynamic students do not get bored and for sure they enjoy it a lot.” (Adriana, teacher, interview)

In general, students’ FLCA was connected to situations that they perceived to be threatening or over which they had no control. Having to improvise, and particularly having to improvise when the teacher and the rest of the group are watching was a major source of FLCA:

“One day I had to invent an oral dialogue and I didn't prepare in advance it made me nervous. (Ana, student, open-ended question )

“The situation that makes me really uncomfortable is speaking in the classroom. I cannot concentrate when my teacher and my classmates listen to me and I’ve tried many times to concentrate but I couldn’t”. (Carolina, student, open-ended question).

This fear regarding lack of control is one of the reasons why oral activities are more problematic than written ones, since students feel that they are not given enough time or that they are not allowed to revise or edit. In a reading comprehension activity, students have many opportunities to read the text, whereas in a listening activity students may not be able to ask for multiple chances of listening or fear that by asking for a repetition they may lose face in front of the teacher or their peers:

“Listening makes me nervous when I can't understand a video I feel bad”.(Eva, student, interview)

“ I am at B2 level. I passed all my English courses and also all courses at my school and other private classes until now in this school. I am really happy with my progress this semester and I am going to New York soon for improving my English but despite this good process and feeling, I always felt tense and nervousness in speaking and listening. I always had fear to speak about something in front of the class or I am really afraid that I could not understand my teacher when she asked me questions in front of my classmates I did not like to see my weakness in front of the class...” (Jo, student, interview)

Oral activities were therefore perceived as a threat, both in high-stakes situations and in less threatening ones. According to the answers provided by the teachers in the interviews, this was the case regardless of students' proficiency level, and indeed students from higher level (C1) reported feeling this way:

“The event that I usually felt uncomfortable was in tests. I always felt lots of pressure and I forget many things” (Sergio, student, open-ended questions)

“All listening activities such as listening exams or simple activity such as listening to a music in the classroom make me uncomfortable”. (Nina, student, open-ended question)

“Speaking and listening make language learners so anxious even language learners with high proficiency levels”.(Eli, teacher)

In some students' answers, we found references to their lack of strategies to deal with comprehension problems in oral activities, which resulted in the feelings of lack of control we mentioned before. This situation is less common in connection to written activities, as these are more familiar for students, and they probably have been taught explicitly about some strategies to deal with problems:

“Speaking in a big group or in front of others made me so nervous. Moreover, in exam or even in normal activities in class I felt bad when I had to listen to a video, song or tape... and filled the gaps. Because in this kind activities you have to concentrate on it completely and you have to be so fast. If you lose one word or some parts of it you can lose whole sentence or whole idea. When I was in this position I felt horrible really horrible”. (Lucia, student, interview)

“I’m afraid of listening and writing exams because we did not practice them too much in class.” (Mel, student, interview)

“Always in tests I always I feel stress I feel fear especially English exams, my fear starts normally from the night before the exams”. (Mel, student, interview)

In the interviews, teachers connected students’ lack of confidence and FLCA to previous negative experiences in the educational system and to negative expectations about their own abilities, particularly in comparison to more fluent students.

“Insecurity about their level? Ummmmmm, there is a general feeling in Spain that we cannot learn English or we do not speak English well or with a good accent.” (Eli, teacher)

“In my opinion competition between the students in the class is the main source of anxiety. They’re afraid when somebody next to them or in class is much more fluent than them. This kind of student thinks if he could do it why am I not able to do it.” (Adriana, teacher)

Having failed before in their attempts to master a foreign language, students feel they need to validate their progress in every public participation:

“I think it’s the fact they tried to learn English previously, like when they were younger at school and they didn’t succeed. They studied for ever and they still can’t speak the language, so then when they sign up for the course here, when you assign them to the task or make them participate in front of the class or in groups, then they have the feeling that ‘I failed when I was at school, I failed 20 years ago and now they are putting me to the test’ they have the feeling that they’re putting them in a test (...) They have the feeling that they have to succeed this time, and that is pressure because they didn’t succeed before and so there it’s their second chance now to prove they have to prove themselves and they can’t do it. I fail one time now I have to pass so it creates anxiety for them.” (Oscar, teacher)

Students often feel FLCA because they cannot meet the expectations they imagine their teacher or classmates to have of them. In some cases, this is because of the difficulty of the foreign language itself, because of personal circumstances or because they feel they cannot keep up with the rest of the group. The reasons differ, but many students are made to feel that the bar is set unfairly too high for them:

“I don't have enough self -confidence in class. I think the reason is that I am working in a travel agency and my classmates and teacher know that, so I think the expectation of others is too high, so I am afraid of making mistakes, many times I prefer to be silent”. (Albert, student, interview)

“I think differences between English and Spanish make language learners anxious”. (Oscar, teacher, interview)

“Too much homework or difficult tasks make language learners anxious because most of my students are working or studying and they do not have much time to study, so I try not to give them too much homework”. (Adriana, teacher, interview)

Some activities can help teachers make students feel more in harmony with the group and the course of the sessions, and therefore increase their FLE.

As different students reported:

“I love working in pairs or small groups I speak more in small groups without the shame”. (Mel, student, interview)

“ When we watched movies or listened to music and then we had to discuss about it I really enjoyed” (Eva, student, interview)

In the examples above, we found evidence of students’ FLE as a consequence of them feeling a certain degree of control over the activities in the class, as the format of the examples they provided was familiar to them (watching a film, working in small groups), and they felt they could contribute to the session in a less threatening way. Being able to participate in class activities can therefore be a source of either FLCA or FLE depending on how exposed or in control students are made to feel by the design of the activity, the amount of scaffolding provided or the type of interaction it involves:

“When I work with my classmates we have a fun time and I think we can share information and we can learn from each other”.(Albert, student, interview)

“A couple weeks ago we played a game. It was a sort of competition it was so funny and we laughed a lot. Then we discussed about it. I think this sort of activities make learning more interesting. It is good to learn English at a relaxing time”(Susana, student, interview)

“When we listen to songs with lyrics or watch videos, play games in group, we’re feeling good, happy”. (Bernat, student, open-ended question)

“Every time we make jokes I really enjoy it, I have really good time in my English class, I always feel happy and try to make more jokes in class.” (Gabriel, student, open-ended question)

In the examples above, it is interesting to note small details that help students feel more in control of a situation that was potentially a source of FLCA (a

listening activity or a competitive activity, for example). By exploiting humour, gamification, providing written support for listening activities and building safe spaces in which students can interact, teachers can increase students' level of FLE and avoid potential problems. While it is important that teachers create opportunities for language repair and support students' learning, these will not be conducive to learning if they undermine students' self-confidence or make them lose face in front of the group.

The results of this study are in line with other researchers who found that teacher-related factors are anxiety-provoking for language learners (Gregersen, 2003; Young, 1991). Horwitz (2001) mentioned that negative unsupportive behavior on the part of the teacher is a major factor that can evoke a learner's anxiety. In another study, Lucas, Mira, Flores, & Go (2011) found that the negative behavior of the teacher is anxiety-provoking for several language learners. Harsh manner of correcting mistake was another source of anxiety that was reported by teachers and language learners in this current study. As McIntyre & Gardner (1991) mentioned, the interruptions for error corrections also cause students to lose their concentration in formulating answers, which can make them anxious. Moreover, Van Worde (2003) and Ohata (2005) believe that language learners feel anxious and frustrated when the teacher corrects their errors before they have enough time to completely formulate answers. This finding is consistent with Ok &

Ustaci (2013), who found that correcting mistakes with harsh manner is anxiety provoking for some language learners. Their participants reported that they preferred not to be corrected by their teachers when they made a mistake while they were speaking in front of the class. On the contrary, Salima (2014) found a different result: language learners preferred to be corrected by their teacher immediately when they made a mistake. They believed that this manner of correcting mistakes would help them to improve their oral proficiency. Inappropriate teaching methodology was reported as another source of anxiety by teachers of this present study. Dörnyei (2001) mentioned that inappropriate methodology of the teachers can be anxiety provoking for some language learners and recommends that teachers should have appropriate tools for teaching in a way to decrease anxiety and increase motivation in their students. Positive feedback from teachers, for example, can boost language learners self-confidence and it is necessary to provide them with a general sense of well-being.

The sources of FLE were classified into learner-related factors (realization of process, motivation, self-confidence), classroom activity-related factors (working in a pairs or small groups and playing games, singing a song), and teacher-related factors (positive behavior of the teacher, appropriate methodology of the teacher). Most of the students reported that they enjoyed when they realized their progress in English. The findings of this



study are in line with findings of several previous studies (Dewaele., 2014, Arnold, 2011). The language learners in Dewaele's study reported that observation of their progress gave them self-esteem and enjoyment. The results confirm that some positive events shape the development of FLE in foreign language classroom. As the participants of our study reported, they experienced language anxiety when speaking in front of the class but they mentioned working in a pairs and small groups gave them enjoyment. The findings of the present study support the findings of Dewaele et al. (2014) who found language learners enjoyed some classroom activities such as playing games, singing a song and etc. several researchers believed that the level of positive emotions of language learners in the language classroom will be increased when they are working in small groups or pair works (Koch & Terrel, 1991; Price, 1991; Young, 1990). Dewaele believed that these kinds of positive activities can empower language learners' choice. Arnold (2011) asserted that choice can motivate language learners. He added language teachers who create different degrees of choices into the foreign language classroom can give motivation to their students. Working in pairs or groups can provide potential choices because these kinds of activities can require different kinds of skills and moreover, offer a different range of options (Arnold, 2011). Participants of this study reported the teacher positive behavior and appropriate methodology of the teacher can facilitate their

enjoyment. The findings of this study confirms findings of Dewaele et al. (2014) findings who found the positive behavior of the teacher were praised by some language learners in his study. The Dewaele believed that positive behavior of the teacher can have healthy impact on language learners and can decrease the level of negative emotions that language learners experience in the class. Arnold, (2011) in another study mentioned that teachers can create enjoyable events for their language learners.

Because of the social nature of learning, students' relationship with their teacher has a strong impact on their progress and their relation to the contents of the course. Indeed, students' relationship with their teachers can shape their expectations and emotional involvement with the course, sometimes with very dramatic consequences, as in the case of Sara:

“At the moment I feel good but at the beginning of the year I had too much stress because several years ago I had horrible teacher and every time before going to class I cried and it took 3 years to come back to the English class this year. (Sara, student, interview)

Even in voluntary adult courses, very brief interactions that may seem at first sight trivial can have a powerful effect on students' emotional well-being, such as making a brief positive comment about a students' work, telling them off for not remembering something or asking them a simple question:

“When one time I wrote a composition and my teacher said to me it's getting better, you are improving, I felt happy”.(Jessica, student, open-ended question)

“It's very embarrassing situation if your teacher corrects you in front of your classmates, you feel very uncomfortable and shy, I can remember last year one time when I made a mistake my teacher treated me awfully she treated me like a child and she said to me ‘it is a very simple exercise and we have practiced and repeated it several times in the class you have to know it perfectly’”. (Camila, student, interview)

“Even when I was completely prepared in class, whenever my teacher asked me some questions, even a simple question in front of others, my heart was beating very fast and my body shook and i blocked and I could not answer it even if I knew the answer.” (Albert, student, interview)

Camila's example, quoted above, hints at another important element in students' relationship with their teacher. The teacher's comment may have been intended as a reassuring one, but because of Camila's perception of the teacher - and in connection with her own insecurities - she interprets it as a scolding one instead.

Being corrected in front of the class, and particularly being interrupted while they are talking to correct an error in their speech was often quoted as a major source of FLCA and negative feelings. In these situations, students consider that teachers are abusing their position, showing their lack of respect towards them and dismissing their progress:

“When I was talking in front of the class all my classmates were watching and listening to me. I made a mistake and my teacher stopped me and corrected my mistakes in a bad way, I was ashamed”. (Enrique, student, open ended question)

When students feel that the teacher is out to get them, that he or she is out of reach, or that they are not reliable and consistent in their judgments, this

causes students to experience FLCA, and can lead to a feeling of disengagement with the course. Fairly or unfairly, many students considered that their motivation to learn was the teacher's responsibility:

“The students have this belief if they can't understand something it is because of me because I am not good enough and I am bad so it makes them anxious”. (Eli, teacher)

“I don't like this class very much, I don't like the teacher very much, the teacher is very moody, strict and very changeable. She does not give me security, ummmm, I think if I make some mistake she will be angry she tells something to me that I don't like to hear but this situation is for now. But last year I had a good teacher and I really loved the class and it was really different (...) the attitude of the teacher is really important to me. It's important that the teacher gives me motivation.” (Susana, student, interview)

In the interviews, the teachers showed awareness of their impact on students, and each one offered a variety of resources to avoid these problems. Some recommended switching between students' L1 and the target language in order to convey their approachability to students, thus lowering the latter's

FLCA:

“In my opinion talking to students all the time in English makes them anxious. I think teachers must switch between English and Spanish sometimes”. (Oscar, teacher, interview)

Others chose to make participation in whole group interactions voluntary:

“If you ask a question suddenly to a specific student, mmmm if you do it unexpectedly you can see the student’s going shocked and you can read the fear and all the insecurity, but if you you throw questions in the air and you ask students to answer whoever wants to, that reduces anxiety”. (Eli, teacher)

“Asking questions in front of the class even students in the advanced level when asking questions in public they have problems and they get anxious and they can’t express themselves well”. (Adriana, teacher)

Teachers were also aware of the need to acknowledge that students are progressing, and therefore it is acceptable for them to make some mistakes, which need to be corrected in a respectful and kind manner:

“I think we have to respect our students. Yes, they make mistakes, it’s normal and they have to be corrected, but in a good way. When the teacher correct students’ mistakes in a bad way they get anxious easily and it’s really bad”. (Eli, teacher)

Students’ ideas regarding how teachers can increase their FLE and reduce FLCA largely revolve around their relationship with them and the teacher’s likability. As the positive points, students often mentioned teacher’s creativity in the design of the sessions, their kindness and their respect towards students’ and positive attitude towards their learning. They also valued positively that the teachers were very active during the sessions, and that they participated in the activities:

“I like my teacher, he is very active and creative in the class, the behaviour of the teacher is really important for me in learning English. In general, when you like your teacher you can love the subject, when the behavior of the teacher is horrible you hate the subject. Maybe if you don't like learning English but if you have a good teacher you will love that”. (Sara, student, interview)

“I have a very good teacher, she motivates me to improve my English in my class and even at home. She is very active and positive. I love the positive atmosphere of our class. It helps me to not feel shy or embarrassed. It's a first time in my life that I have positive feeling for my language class”. (Andra, student, interview)

“We have a great teacher. She has a great relationship with her students. For example, yesterday, she participated in a speaking activity with us. We had a lot of fun. She has a good methodology for teaching grammar.” (Albert, student, interview)

“I love the methodology of my teacher for teaching grammar and making class active she is really good teacher”. (Jo, student, interview)

“I normally enjoy each class, because I think the teacher is nice and she is smiling all the time and it feels good to me”. (Serena, student, open-ended question)

“ I like my class I like my teacher because she is so supportive I feel relaxed in her class”. (Ana, student, open-ended question)

Students' reliance on their teacher to regulate their emotional well-being and their engagement to the contents seems to indicate a certain lack of autonomy on their part. The teachers' role in the management of the class, as experts in its contents, as supervisors in charge of repair and as motivators can lead to students' putting all responsibility for their own progress on the teachers' shoulders, which effectively prevents them from becoming autonomous learners who can develop strategies to cope with difficult emotional situations and build their self-confidence:

“I can remember last year I had an amazing teacher he was very very friendly he always made me think that I could do anything. Yes, he made me think that I was good at learning English he gave me self-confidence and motivation and I always felt good in his class and I would like to have him as my English teacher always. In my opinion he is the best English teacher.” (Mel, student, interview)

## **2.2. Connections between FLCA and FLE and other individual variables**

In the current study, no significant differences were found in participants' level of FLCA and FLE and with regard to the age at the beginning and at the end of the year. This finding is in contrast with other researchers (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Donovan & MacIntyre, 2005; Bailey, Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 2000; Dewaele, 2007) who found that the older the participants were the more anxious they would feel. And it did not support either the findings of other researchers who found that younger language learners experienced more anxiety than their older counterparts (Arnias & Guillen, 2012; Dewaele et al., 2008, Dewaele, 2015). As for FLE, we conclude that this study does not mirror Dewaele et al. (2014) who found that older language learners experienced higher level of FLE.

This study did not find any significant relationship between FLCA and FLE and language repertoire at the beginning and at the end of the year. The result obtained from this study supports previous findings (Dewaele, 2015; Thompson & Khawaja, 2015) who did not find any significant relationship between FLCA and language repertoire (bilingualism and multilingualism).

This result is in contrast with some studies (Dewaele, 2004, 2014) that have shown that bilingual/multilingual students experience less FLCA compared with their monolingual counterparts. According to the Dewaele, (2007) it is logical to consider that bilingual/multilingual language learners who know more than one language may experience less FLCA than monolingual ones the reason could be that they have already gone through the experience of learning a new language, so they have become better at learning additional languages. Another reason could be that knowing more than one language might give language learners more confidence in the process of language learning and hence they have have more ability to control their anxiety. Daly, Caughlin & Stafford (1997) found individuals with high level of self-confidence experienced less anxiety compared to low self confidence ones. Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert's (1999) found that low self-confidence of university students in Taiwan was one of the main factors causing students' anxiety in speaking and writing in English. Another possible explanation might be that bilingual or multilingual language learners might use more learning strategies than monolingual ones (Kemp, 2007). Qurban Mohammadi (2003), for example found a negative relationship between language classroom anxiety and overall language learning strategies. As for FLE, the results of this study did not support the findings of Dewaele et al.



(2014) who found language learners who know more languages experience higher level of FLE.

This study did not find any significant relationship between FLCA and FLE and the age at which participants started learning English. This study did not confirm the findings of others studies which found that language learners who started learning a foreign language at a younger age experienced less FLCA (Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham, 2008; Dewaele, 2013b). Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham (2008) claimed that it is possible language learners who started learning a foreign language at early ages may experienced less anxiety than those who started later because of a longer experience in this process, although it may also be a result of the psychological development and its impact on group socialisation as children grow older.

Regarding educational levels, the results in this study were negative. These findings did not support Dewaele et al. (2014) who found that language learners who had higher levels of education experienced lower level of FLCA and higher level of FLE.

In relation to gender, the result shows that FLCA was significantly different between males and females only at the beginning of the year. The result shows that female language learners had higher level of FLCA. This result is in line with the findings of various authors (Ezzi, 2012; Dewaele, 2014;

Gerencheal & Horwitz, 2016), who found female language learners experienced more anxiety than male language learners. As Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley (2001) asserted that a “female oriented foreign language culture” may exist in which men perceive foreign language study as a feminine domain and thus feel less comfortable in the language learning context’ (p. 12). At the end of the year, the result shows that gender differences did not play a significant role on FLCA.

Participants’ proficiency levels showed no significant relationship with FLCA at the beginning of the year, which corresponded to the findings of Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999), who found no significant differences among the FLCA levels of beginning, intermediate and advanced foreign language learners. Liu (2006), who examined FLCA in EFL learners at three different proficiency levels, did not find any significant differences in FLCA among the three groups either. Similarly, Pichette’s (2009) study reports no difference in FLCA between first-semester language students and their more experienced peers. Still our cohort presented lower levels of FLE and higher levels of FLCA in the low-proficiency group, in comparison to the higher group. This information connects very fittingly with the previous section, in which we discussed the issues students experience with their self-image, as lower-level student are likely to feel more challenged and less self-sufficient. At the end of the year, FLCA means significantly differed among different

levels of proficiency ( $p < 0.05$ ). MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, 1993) hypothesise that “as experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a fairly consistent manner” (1991, p. 111), which implies that FLCA is more characteristic at the earlier stages of language learning and is becoming less of a problem for more advanced learners. This study found no significant relationship between FLE and proficiency levels of language learners. However, this study did not support the findings of the Dewaele et al. (2014) who found that advanced language learners experienced higher level of FLE than the intermediate and lower-intermediate.

The results of this study indicates that FLCA did not significantly vary according to abroad experiences and FLCA and FLE at the beginning of the year, but there were significant differences between the level of FLCA and visiting abroad. This study did support Aida (1994) and Matsuda, S., & Gobel, P. (2004), who found that students who have spent time overseas experience lower levels of FLCA. The results of this study is in contrast with the results of Caruso (1996). Caruso explained that the experience of going to French-speaking countries did not generate a significant difference in the anxiety levels of French learners. A reason for these conflicting results could be the different target languages referred to. For example, the Chinese culture and Japanese culture are quite different from American culture; the Chinese Culture and the Japanese culture represent Eastern culture and on

the other hand American culture represents Western culture. Therefore, going to the target language country and experiencing the target culture greatly helps learners of Japanese in the U.S. and learners of English in Taiwan to understand the target culture. However, French culture and U.S. culture are similar in the sense that they both belong to Western culture. Learners of French in the U.S. might have already had a good understanding of French culture even before they went to France. Therefore, going to France would not help them much in understanding the target culture (Aiping Zhao, 2008). There is no study regarding the relationship between foreign language enjoyment and study abroad experiences so further research is needed.

This study found that language learners who speak English outside the classroom experienced less anxiety and higher level of enjoyment at the beginning and at the end of the year. We can assume to a certain extent that students who practised more English than those who only practised in class experienced lower levels of FLCA and higher levels of FLE, as they had more opportunities to improve their skills, to develop strategies to cope with FLCA, and consequently to build their self-confidence as learners and users of the target language. In terms of their conceptualisation of what it means to learn a language, it is likely that students who have had the opportunity to use English in a meaningful way tend to be more focused on meaning than

on form, and can therefore feel more liberated from the pressure of formal perfectionism.

### **2.3. The impact of FLCA and FLE on foreign language learning**

This study found a significant negative relationship between learners' levels of FLCA and their overall language performance, as measured in the end-of-year EOI test, and also in relation to all of the language skills individually (speaking, listening, writing, reading and accuracy) both at the beginning and at the end of the year. This means that language learners who suffered higher levels of FLCA tended to receive lower scores in different skills compared to their less anxious counterparts. This was particularly the case with the speaking and listening sections of the test, as we have discussed previously. On the contrary, language learners with high levels of FLE received higher grades in different skills compared to those with low levels of FLE.

Regarding FLCA, the findings of this study are in agreement with outcomes reported by other researchers who argued that FLCA is a cause of poor language learning and can have a negative effect on language learners' marks, thus making FLCA one of the main obstacles to the acquisition and fluent production for learners (Dewaele, Petrides & Furham, 2008; Williams &

Andrade, 2008; Horwitz, 1986; Aida, 1994; Gardner et al, 1997; MacIntyre, 1999; Horwitz, 2001; Ganschow, 2007; Erden, 2007; Gardner, 2010). Another group of researchers' findings, however, differed from our results, as Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley, (1999) and Marcos-Llinás & Juan-Garau (2009) found a positive relationship between FLCA and language achievement. As mentioned in the theoretical framework in chapter one, such divergence in results may be due to the impact of different levels of anxiety on learners' performance. Kleinmann (1977) and MacIntyre (1995) argued that depending on the level, FLCA can be facilitating or debilitating. Facilitating anxiety is an efficient tool which has positive correlations with learners' willingness to attempt difficult linguistic structures in the target language. Facilitative anxiety is a kind of anxiety which motivates learners and put them in a state of enthusiasm to face a challenging task (Ellis, 2008). Debilitating anxiety, on the other hand, is a kind of anxiety which puts language learners under a lot of stress and pressure to the extent that in some cases they withdraw and give up (Alpert & Haber, 1960; Kleinmann, 1977). Marcos-Llinás & Juan-Garau (2009) also suggested that some degree of anxiety may be beneficial for language learners and can facilitate foreign language learning and can play a positive role by motivating language learners to keep up their effort on learning. In this line, in the interviews some teachers and language learners reported that FLCA can have both negative

and positive effects on language learning process. Regardless of the perception students and teachers agreed on, the results of the quantitative part of our study shows that FLCA has a negative relationship with language performance. Some skills such as listening. Participants of this study reported that FLE can have positive effects on language performance. The results of this study is in agreement with some studies (Dewaele et al.,2014, Ryan, Connell & Plant, 1990) which suggested that positive emotions such as enjoyment has a positive effect on language learning.

This study found a moderate and weak negative relationship between FLCA and speaking at the beginning and at the end of the year respectively. This study confirmed the results of several previous studies (Palacios, 1998; Philips 1992; Price 1991, Wilson, 2006; Hewitt, E., & Stephenson, J. 2012) that had similarly found a negative relationship between FLCA and speaking. Wilson (2006) in the Spanish context found a negative relationship between FLCA and oral performance of 40 Spanish learners of English. Wilson found slightly higher negative relationship between oral exam and FLCA than our current study. One possible explanation for these differences could be that some of the participants in this current study had already had some experiences of oral exams, as they came from previous levels within the same academy, had practised with mock exams or had sit the entrance exams. A further example of this trend was given by Philips (1992) who found a

slightly higher negative relationship between FLCA and oral performance than our current study. One explanation of this difference could be, participants of our study were older, ranging between 16 and 64 years, and had been studying for an average of 10.97 years, in contrast to the cohort described by Philips, who were younger, their ages ranged from 17 to 21 and who had been studying English for an average of 3.2 years.

Many researchers believed that speaking skill is the most anxiety provoking skill and language learners with high level of anxiety afraid of speaking in the class (Horwitz et al., 1986). Speaking skill among other skills requires risk-taking from language learners. This skill requires for language learners to show their possibly insufficient linguistic knowledge in front of their classmates and teacher (Daly, 1991, MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). As Kitano (2001) mentioned speaking skill among all four skills is the first skill that learners compare their levels with their classmates, teachers and native speakers. Kitano added that it is logical to consider that low self-perception of speaking ability can be one of the sources of FLCA.

As Millrood (2004) recommended that language instructors must create a friendly and free anxiety atmosphere in the class so that language learners are not forced to have competition but they have to learn to be collaborative. As Hirvela, (1999) mentioned that group works activities or



working in pairs might be helpful into the classroom practices. In addition, Hirvela asserted that language teachers must use some ice breaking activities which help students to know each other better and support each other without comparing themselves to each other. Yan and Horwitz (2008) also suggested, “In order to reduce pressure from comparison with peers, students of similar levels could be grouped together” (p. 175). We suggested that good relationship of the classroom and positive environment can successfully control FLCA that is created by comparison among peers.

This study found a strong negative relationship between FLCA and the listening section of the EOI exam at the beginning of the academic year, and a weak negative relationship at the end of the year. The findings of our study is an agreement with several previous studies such as (Oxford, 1996; Kim, 2000; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Legac, 2007; Chang, 2008; Wang,2010; Change 2010; Sioson, 2011; Kimura,2011 ; Golchi, 2012) which found the negative relationship between FLCA and listening comprehension. Elkhafaifi found that FLCA correlated negatively with the listening grade. They found slightly higher negative correlation between FLCA and listening marks (Pearson Correlation -.53) than in the current study (Pearson Correlation -.47 and -.33 for the time 1 and time 2 respectively). Several reasons might have contributed to these results such as all participants of this current study chose English as an elective course but in their study more than half of the

participants 53% chose Arabic as a major course and 48% of them chose it as an elective course.

Another explanation could be that participants of Elkhafaifi study were 232 North American university learners of Arabic but the learners of this current study were Spanish language learners of English. According to Dewaele (2010), if the target language belongs to a familiar linguistic family, language learners experience less anxiety. The results of this study is in line with findings of Golchi (2012) who found the negative relationship between foreign language listening anxiety and listening comprehension among 63 Iranian IELTS learners. The foreign language listening anxiety scale (FLLAS) developed by Kim (2000) and a sample of IELTS test were used in this study. They also found slightly higher negative correlation between FLLA and IELTS test (Pearson Correlation  $-.63$ ) than current study (Pearson Correlation  $-.47$  and  $-.33$  for the time 1 and time 2 respectively). One explanation for this difference between the results of this current study and the study conducted by Golchi could be different context of learning a foreign language. According to Tange (2005), having contact with the culture and people of the target language may decrease the level of anxiety of language learners. Iranian language learners do not have direct contact with English native speakers but Barcelona is cosmopolitan country and the

language learners may have some connection with English language and culture.

This study found a negative relationship between FLCA and reading at the beginning and at the end of the year. The findings of this investigation lent support to the view expressed in a number of related studies which found a negative relationship between FLCA and reading (Saito et al., 1999; Seller, 2000; Kuru Gonen,2007). As the cognitive psychologist Eysenck (1992) suggested, one of the possible reasons for the negative relationship between anxiety and reading might be that people are limited in their processing capacity in language learning. The anxiety that language learners suffer while learning to read in a foreign language might occupy their cognitive processing capacity and decrease their attention that they need to allocate to the reading task. Therefore, with less attention on the reading task, those language learners with high level of anxiety might need more time to discover meanings from words or given the same time the more anxious language learners might not reach the same reading effect as the less anxious language learners. Hence, those with higher foreign language reading anxiety might get lower mark in foreign language reading

The result obtained from this study is inconsistent with Mills, Pajares and Herron (2006) and Brantmeier (2005) since they found no significant

relationship between FLCA and reading performance. Franson (1984) and Matsumura (2001) noted that language learners tended to experience less anxiety in a non-exam situation. In Mills et al.'s (2006) participants were third or fourth semester learning French as a foreign language in the U.S. The test which was taken in Mills et.al. study was a standardized reading proficiency test and students were aware that the results of this test would not affect their final grades or affect their likelihood of fulfilling their foreign language requirement. By contrast, in the current study students reading scores were taken from the reading performance scores on final exam. Students knew thus knew the score would affect their final grades for the course and possibly chances of passing or failing. In 2005 Brantmeier conducted a study to find the possible relationship between reading anxiety and comprehension. 92 university students who had enrolled in an advanced level Spanish grammar and composition course participated in this instrument study. The data collected through a modified instrument based on the RAS (Zbornik & Walbrown, 1991), FLCAS (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986) and multiple choice questions. The results of the study indicated that language learners did not experience anxiety in reading.

One of the explanations might be that the reading test of that Brantmeier used in his study was taken from the anthology that students studied in the course. According to the Bailey, (1983), a familiar task creates less anxiety for

language learners. Another discrepancy between the results of this current study and the Brantmeier study might be due to use of different instruments. Brantmeier measured anxiety through a questionnaire which included 10 statements adopted from the Reading Anxiety Scale (RAS) and FLCAS but this current study only used FLCAS. The participants from Brantmeier study were from 90 language learners from advanced level but the participants of this study came from different level of proficiency levels (B1, B2, C1). Several researchers have found that advanced language learners experienced less anxiety than intermediate and beginners learners (Saito & Samimy, 1996; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999) MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, 1993) said that “as experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a fairly consistent manner” (1991, p. 111). The results of this study is in line with findings of Zaho (2009) who conducted a study the possible relationship between foreign language reading anxiety and reading performance of 114 English language learners of Chinese and Zaho found the negative relationship between reading anxiety and reading performance. But Zaho found slightly higher negative correlation between foreign language reading anxiety and reading performance (there was a significant moderate negative correlation between FL reading anxiety and FL reading performance for the Elementary Level I ( $r = 0.45$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and Intermediate Level participants ( $r = 0.41$ ,  $p$

< 0.05) but not for the Elementary Level II participants ( $r = 0.02$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) than current study.

This difference might be fact that language learners in the current study were using a similar writing system to their native language so their experienced less anxiety. As Satio el al., (1999) noted, coping with an unfamiliar writing system is one of the most important sources of FLCA. Chinese has a different writing system and reading Chinese may cause foreign language reading anxiety in for English-speaking learners of Chinese. According to (Perfetti & Liu, 2005; Smythe et al., 2008), Chinese and English writing systems require different word recognition skills. Based on some eye movement studies and Event Related Potential (ERP) studies (Perfetti & Liu, 2005; Symthe et al., 2008), reading Chinese and English require different graphic, phonological, and semantic processing activities. Zhao et al.'s (2013) study argued that FL reading anxiety specific to English speaking learners of Chinese may be high because of the large disparity between the two writing systems. Unfamiliar writing systems and cultural content are only two possible causes of FL reading anxiety and they cannot explain all causes of reading anxiety.

This study found a weak negative relationship between FLCA and writing both at the beginning and at the end of the year. The findings of this

investigation lent support to the view expressed in number of related studies such as (Cheng, 1998; Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999 ; Erkan & Saban, 2011). The results of our present study are not in line with the Mousapour Negari & Talebi Rezaabadi (2012) who found that students who experienced higher level of anxiety scored higher in writing performance. As we mentioned before, some degree of anxiety can be facilitative for some language learners so it has positive effect on language learning. Therefore participants of their study might take advantage of the facilitative aspect of language anxiety and they could improve their concentration as well as writing performance. Another possibility could be that some students with high level of language anxiety study harder than those with low level of anxiety (Putwain, 2008). Another possible explanation could be that participants in their study had stronger motivations for learning a foreign language and higher self-confidence, or better study habits, as any and all these could have positive impact on their writing achievement.

This study found a positive relationship between FLE and language performance (all skills) at the beginning and at the end of the year. There is no study regarding the effect of FLE and language performance. Ryan, Connell & Plant (1990) conducted 2 studies to discover how emotions influence non-directed learning. The results of the first study showed that Interest-enjoyment and task-involvement had positive relationship with

perceived comprehension text recall in addition Ego-involvement, shame, hostility had negative relationship to perceived comprehension text recall. The results of second study indicated that positive emotions such as interest, enjoyment and surprise had a positive relationship with comprehension and recall of text over a one-week period. In addition, negative emotions such as distress, fear, guilt, shame, anger, disgust and contempt had a negative relationship with perceived comprehension and recall of text over a one-week period. Dewaele et al., (2014) suggested that enjoyment has great impact on second language learning. It is associated with better learning. On the other hand, anxiety is negatively related to it. As Pekrun et al. 2000 suggested making language learners aware of their positive and negative emotions may be a methodology that language teachers should employ to help language learners face and overcome negative emotions as well as foster positive one

López & Aguilar (2013) explored the influence of the emotional experiences of Mexican language learners on their motivation to learn English as a foreign language. The Results of this study showed that both negative and positive emotions had impact on enhancing and diminishing their motivation. Although most of studies found that negative emotion have detrimental effect to foreign language learning, the results of this study showed that negative emotions had a positive effect on language learning. As



Fried (2011) asserted, positive emotions can help language learners and teachers to generate more ideas and helpful strategies.

The results of the interviews show that all participants' experience FLCA in the classroom. Two of the participants who were interviewed believed that FLCA could have both positive and negative effects on the language learning process. They believed that a certain amount of anxiety (low level) can have a positive effect on learning English, including pushing language learners to study harder (n=2), making language learners more active in the class (n=2), and obtaining better marks (n=1). The examples below illustrate these views:

“A little bit of anxiety or stress is good for me because it forces me to study more and make me more active in the class and it can have a positive effect on my final marks but when I feel high level of anxiety my mind gets blocked and I can't focus and I feel bad” (Susana, student, interview).

“In my opinion anxiety has both positive and negative effects on language learning process. High level of anxiety is dangerous for language learning and absolutely has a negative effect I think language learners get blocked when they feel anxiety but a certain amount of anxiety can push them to study harder”. (Eli, teacher, interview)

Such views did not seem to be reflected in the quantitative data, and were in fact dismissed by other students, who believed that anxiety only has a negative effect on learning English:

“When I feel pressure in the English class I can't concentrate, I can't learn anything, I forget everything, my feeling is awful and I can't control it and I am sure that anxiety has a negative effect on language learning”. (Mel, student, interview)

Only one student believed that high level of enjoyment had a negative effect on language learning:

“When I am too relaxed I do not study too much so I get lower mark so I think high level of enjoyment sometimes is not good”. (Camila, student, interview)

Teachers believed that FLE has both positive and negative effects on language learning process. They believed that a certain amount of enjoyment can help students to study more (n=3), to get better marks (n=3), to be more motivated (n=3), to feel more interest (n=2), to feel comfortable in the classroom (n=2), to have a better relationship with their classmates and teacher (n=2). As Adriana, one of the teachers, reported:

“I think enjoyment has a big effect on learning, absolutely in every point of life not only in learning a foreign language, positive emotions like enjoyment allow language learners to remove their insecurity and fear and boost their self-confidence”. (Adriana, teacher, interview)

Some of the teachers argued that high levels of enjoyment could have a negative effect on language learning. They believed that students with high levels of enjoyment would stop studying hard (n=3) and that they may get lower marks (n=2), as shown in the example below. However, these conceptions were not reflected in the data at the end of the year:

“High level of enjoyment makes students relax and they stop studying hard”. (Oscar teacher, interview)

### **3. Conclusions**

Having drawn the connections between FLCA and FLE from different perspectives and in relation to a large set of variables, we can conclude that the relationship between FLCA, FLE and performance is more nuanced than we initially expected. The effect of FLCA and FLE on other individual variables produced mixed results due to the differences in sample, contexts and educational levels between our study and the studies conducted in the field. It also seems necessary to explore in more depth the reasons for the impact of FLCA on speaking and listening skills, and decide to what extent it depends on affective factors or on the kind of context in which they occur (because of a traditional view of education, due to official exams, and such).

The connection between FLCA, FLE and other individual differences similarly presents some problems due to the apparent contradictions pervasive to research in this aspect of SLA. This may require focusing on other variables or finding more homogeneous samples in which one could isolate the effect of each variable.

It is clear, however, that FLCA and FLE are not opposite ends of the same phenomenon but rather two complementary and sometimes overlapping

emotions that are intrinsically connected to the FL classroom because of the social nature of learning and its connections to personal identity and growth.

In the context of adult EFL education, students and teachers are extremely aware of the existence of FLCA and FLE, their sources and how they affect learners. Being adults, they have a range of educational experiences to draw their information from, and are capable of analysing and articulating their experiences and the reasons they attribute to them. This could be potentially problematic in some cases, as we have outlined in the first section of this chapter, as some of these explanations do not match the more objective data we collected at times 1 and 2.

We subscribe Gregersen (2007), who suggested that foreign language teachers need to identify language learners who struggle with debilitatingly high levels of FLCA and try to help them (Gregersen, 2007) deal with them in a constructive way. Young (1991) suggests that “recognizing learner manifestations of anxiety related to speaking, negative evaluation, and foreign language learning-generated anxieties are important first steps in coping with language anxiety” (p.429). Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014) suggested that language instructors must find a way to reduce the level of FLCA and increase the level of FLE in foreign language classroom. However, this requires, in our view, a clearer, more precise conception of the

nature of FLE and its impact on cognitive processes in general and language learning in particular. As a solution, Kitano (2001) suggested that language instructors should find ways to support language learners with fear of negative evaluation, which may involve providing them with positive reinforcement, such as encouragement and positive comments.



## **CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSIONS**

In the final chapter of this project, we provide an overview of the key points discussed so far, a series of practical implications for teachers concerned about the role emotions play in their classrooms and some ideas for future lines of research in connection to the limitations encountered throughout the development of this research project.

### **1. Overview of the key points of the study**

This study explored at a theoretical and empirical level the role positive and negative emotions play in the foreign language classroom, and how they interact between them, with other individual differences and with the participants' performance in a language test.

At a theoretical level, it was first necessary to become acquainted with the work carried out regarding anxiety, and to see how anxiety unfolds in the field of foreign language learning: its definition, taxonomy, sources, symptoms and how it was been studied in research before. Using the information on FLCA as a template, we proceeded to review the literature on enjoyment, in an attempt at building a parallel body of knowledge about it. This task proved to be rather daunting, as the field of positive emotions is still not quite as developed, and it was impossible to come across a definition

as precise and detailed as in the case of FLCA for FLE. Finally, the last point regarding the theoretical framework was to revise previous research on individual differences and to choose the approach that seemed to fit best with the context of our research.

Thanks to such deep immersion in the theory of the field of affective factors and other individual differences in SLA, the design of the data gathering tools was built on a solid basis. Complemented with a hybrid quantitative and qualitative approach, the research tools provided us with the necessary tools to be able to analyse the situation with both an objective and a more subjective approach. We could use data from that included different points of view, thus involving all the agents that participate in the learning context. The sample was homogeneous and numerous enough to be able to draw some conclusions, and the qualitative data, although less widespread, provided interesting insights into the participants' perceptions and justifications for the situation.

Regarding data analysis, this was one of the biggest challenges we came across, as the sheer amount of data and the multiple interconnections involved many different variables at the time. During our work on this stage of the research project we became aware of the lack of definitive results regarding the impact emotions have in the field of SLA, and their interaction



with individual differences and performance. As we have discussed in the previous chapter, many studies presented apparently contradictory results, as the settings and participants varied greatly across different contexts and educational levels. What seemed logical and reasonable in some context would not apply in others, and we found ourselves at pains to reconcile our data with the data even from rather similar studies.

We managed, however, to spell out some key findings regarding the goals we had set at the start:

1. FLCA and FLE are not opposite sides of the same emotion, but rather overlap and diverge at different points during the learning process.
2. FLCA is intricately linked to the skills that trigger it, and its symptoms seem to be determined by what skill it is connected to. This may be the case for FLE, but the field is still too undefined to be able to tell with any degree of certainty.
3. Regarding the relationship between FLCA and FLE and language performance at the beginning and at the end of the year, there was a negative significant relationship between FLCA and language performance at the beginning and at the end of the year, and there

was a positive and non significant relationship between FLE and language performance.

4. Both teachers and students are aware of the existence of FLCA and FLE in the foreign language learning process, and both can describe their symptoms and impact. Again, the level of detail is much greater for FLCA than it is for FLE. In this case, the definition provided by the theoretical framework did not match the descriptions of the participants.
5. FLCA generally has a negative impact on students' performance. Although some of the evidence pointed at the existence of facilitating anxiety, this was not quite as definite as in some of the papers revised. However, this matched the results in other studies that found no evidence of a facilitating effect of FLCA, in what seems to be a reflection of Krashen's theory of the affective filter. In the case of FLE, some of the teachers and students argued that it could have a debilitating effect in case of students with high FLE levels, but this belief on the part of both teachers and students did not match the information gathered with the quantitative tools. Most researchers argued, on the contrary, that FLE would have a

facilitating effect, but this was not fully supported by the evidence we gathered.

6. Based on language learners and language teachers' point of the view, FLCA and FLE arise from learner-related factors such as fear of negative evaluations and perfectionist tendencies; teacher-related factors such as harsh manner of correcting mistakes and teacher kindness; and context-related factors such as speaking activities or listening to music in class. In many cases, FLCA is connected to issues of self-image and learner identity, whereas FLE tends to be connected to more social aspects of learning. This has implications for the design of classroom interactions, repair and scaffolding strategies, and for the desirability of connections between the learning that occurs inside and outside of the classroom.
7. The relationship between affective factors and the other individual differences failed to yield any definite results, again in consonance with previous research. Some variables were not significant at all at the beginning and at the end of the year such as age, and other variables remained significant throughout the year, such as proficiency levels; others changed throughout the course, such speaking English outside the classroom. The aspect that seemed to

have a strongest impact on students' performance was the stay abroad experience. Again, this should have implications for the way learning is planned, particularly in the case of adult learners.

8. Regarding students' performance in the language test, it was evident that for many students learning a foreign language is a process that is anchored in the past. There is a strong cultural emphasis on writing and grammatical accuracy, which makes students feel less ready to interact in less structured contexts. This also prevents them from being aware of their progress, as they connect grammatical work with "real" knowledge of the foreign language.

## **2. Practical Implications of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research**

Based on the conclusions just outlined, in this section a set of practical implications are described, both regarding the theoretical and the empirical aspects of the current project, while acknowledging the limitations of the current study and how they may be overcome in the future.

First of all, further work is needed at a theoretical level to define in greater detail positive emotions and their role in SLA. Further developments in this field would enrich the quality of the tools used to gauge data from learners

and other agents involved in the learning process. In this regard, it may be advisable to design tools that enabled researchers to gather data with the least amount of disruption possible. The field of action/research would be worth exploring in this respect, in the sense that the research could be inserted into a teaching intervention to tackle these issues. This would also require changes in the way teacher training approaches this issue, as is now suggested through different networks and organisations such as the OECD and the Department of Education in Catalonia at a more local level. This approach would somewhat bridge the gap between research findings and teaching practice, engaging these two communities in a more collaborative mutually useful relationship. Together with teachers and educators, researchers could help to inform decisions about the atmosphere of the foreign language classroom, which should be secure and less anxiety-provoking and enjoyable. Teachers could engage the learners in some sort of SBI programs and help learners develop their strategic competence. Teachers themselves should also be equipped with a variety of strategies that could be transferred to the learners in case of difficulty in their learning experience. Equipping students with a variety of language learning strategies that include emotional management is also important, because these are essential for students to become more independent learner who can take

control of their learning and maximize their potential for their lifelong growth.

In order to decrease language anxiety as a debilitating factor in learning a foreign language and increase the level of foreign language enjoyment, teachers could make use of the following techniques in language classrooms:

1. Teachers should avoid forcing students to speak in language classroom in early stages of learning and should wait for them to be ready to speak. By focusing the speaking activities on meaning rather than form, and providing them with real communicative goals, these activities could become a source of enjoyment rather than one of anxiety.
2. Teachers should assess and revise their error correction procedures and avoid using direct ways of correction or strategies that challenge students' self-image or that lead to peer competition rather than collaboration.
3. Teachers could engage their students in more pair work and group activities and provide them with some minutes to rehearse before they are requested to present in more formal contexts. This should

be accompanied by more focus on meaning during oral interactions, although bearing in mind the need for repair outlined above.

4. Teachers could give students credit for their current level of language proficiency and teach them to set realistic goals and to see learning as a lifelong process. They should also attempt to enrich students' conceptions of what it means to know a language to convey a more communicative approach to it.
5. Teachers could instruct learners to use relaxation techniques and strategies to deal with anxiety-provoking situations, and scaffold their application in a variety of challenging contexts.
6. Teachers should have a good relationship with their students, and invest class time in building meaningful relationships with them and making sure that group relationships have the chance to blossom as well. This requires that teachers create a non threatening atmosphere and a less competitive environment in the language classroom. Students' input should also be part of this overhaul, both in terms of the contents of the class and of the physical distribution or the design of the activities.

Through these and many other techniques teachers could partially control the students' amount of foreign language classroom anxiety and could promote the level of students foreign language enjoyment.

Regarding the design of the study, the conclusions of this research project are as limited as the context in which it was developed. As the tools have been tested and assessed for reliability, it would be interesting to follow-up research in some other contexts: In primary, secondary school and university levels, across different cultures, across different teaching traditions and for different additional languages... the possibilities in the field of SLA research are endless. It would also be interesting to carry out a longer project in which the same cohort would go through different experiences of EFL, or perhaps to follow up student with whom a teaching intervention is carried out and see their development in other contexts.

The impact of FLCA and FLE on students' performance was not fully clarified, as the contradictory data from different studies, and the apparent contradictions between participants' beliefs and the quantitative data did not shed any light on some interesting concepts that emerged from the literary review. On the one hand, some authors suggested that there exists a facilitative aspect to FLCA. Future research should study this area in order to discover ways to take advantage the determine the existence of facilitative



anxiety on language learning and to gauge the precise level of FLCA that would be necessary to exploit it.

Concerning background variables, this study examined the relationship between FLCA and FLE and some learners' variables namely age, gender, proficiency levels, study abroad experience, language repertoire, age they started learning English, speaking English outside the classroom and educational level. It would be interesting to explore emotions in connection to other individual variables such as motivation or willingness to talk. This kind of exploration would require more resources and would be harder to fit with the everyday work at the EOI, but would shed light on the interactions between emotions and skills such as listening and speaking that are particularly problematic and challenging.



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## **GLOSSARY**

In this section definitions or explanation of some terms used in this study are presented.

**Anxiety:** Anxiety is a feeling of tension associated with a sense of threat of danger when the source of the danger is not always known (Miller, 2000).

**Emotion:** According to Reeve (2005) “Emotions are short-lived, feeling arousal-purposive-expressive phenomena that help us adapt to the opportunities and challenges we face during important life events.” (p. 294).

**Enjoyment:** A feeling of pleasure caused by doing or experiencing something you like, the condition of having and using something that is good, pleasant, etc. Another definition of enjoyment is the things that give you pleasure ([Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary](#)).

**Foreign language classroom anxiety:** Foreign language anxiety is “a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (Horwitz 1986, p. 128).

**Foreign language Enjoyment:** Dewaele & MacIntyre, (2014) defined enjoyment in second language learning as the fun of learning or using a foreign language.

**Foreign language learning:** Foreign language refers to the learning of a non-native language outside of the environment where it is commonly spoken (R. Ellis, 2008).

**Language Anxiety:** MacIntyre and Gardner (1994a) define language anxiety as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with

second language contexts, including, speaking, listening, and learning” (p.284).

**Language proficiency:** Richards et al., 1992) define it as “a person skill in using a language for a specific purpose .... refer[ring] to the degree of skill with which a person can use a language, such as how well a person can read, write, speak, or understand language” (p.204).

**Language test:** Harris and McCann (1994) defined language tests as any form of formal assessment of individual performance in any given area (p.93).

**Second language learning/acquisition:** Brown (2000) defined “second language acquisition is the process of learning a second language other than a speaker’s first language” (p.1)

## **APPENDICES**

Appendix A: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

Appendix B: The Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (FLES)

Appendix C: Emotions in the foreign language classroom

Appendix D: Pilot test of the Emotions in the Foreign Language Classroom scale

Appendix F: Semi-structured Interviews (Teacher)

Appendix G: EOI language test results

Appendix H: Consent Form

Appendix I: Tables for descriptive statistics for FLCA, FLE and individual variables in time 1 and time 2

## **Appendix A: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)**

From: Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-132.

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.

Strongly agree   Agree   Neither agree nor disagree   Disagree   Strongly disagree

2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.

Strongly agree   Agree   Neither agree nor disagree   Disagree   Strongly disagree

3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.

Strongly agree   Agree   Neither agree nor disagree   Disagree   Strongly disagree

4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.

Strongly agree   Agree   Neither agree nor disagree   Disagree   Strongly disagree

5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.

Strongly agree   Agree   Neither agree nor disagree   Disagree   Strongly disagree

6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.

Strongly agree   Agree   Neither agree nor disagree   Disagree   Strongly disagree

7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.

Strongly agree   Agree   Neither agree nor disagree   Disagree   Strongly disagree

8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

12. In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

14. I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

17. I often feel like not going to my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

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

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

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

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree



## **Appendix B: The Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (FLES)**

Dewaele, J.-M., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). The two faces of Janus? Anxiety and enjoyment in the foreign language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(2), 237–274.

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Strongly disagree/ Disagree /Undecided/ Agree /Strongly agree

1. I can be creative
2. I can laugh off embarrassing mistakes in the FL
3. I don't get bored
4. I enjoy it
5. I feel as though I'm a different person during the FL class
6. I learnt to express myself better in the FL
7. I'm a worthy member of the FL class
8. I've learnt interesting things
9. In class, I feel proud of my accomplishments
10. It's a positive environment
11. It's cool to know a FL
12. It's fun
13. Making errors is part of the learning process

14. The peers are nice
15. The teacher is encouraging
16. The teacher is friendly
17. The teacher is supportive
18. There is a good atmosphere
19. We form a tight group
20. We have common “legends”, such as running jokes
21. We laugh a lot

## **Appendix C: Emotions in the foreign language classroom**

This questionnaire is part of an investigation about the role emotions play in foreign language learning. All the information you provide will be strictly confidential, and I will change all names and references to pseudonyms. If you are interested in this study, please feel free to contact me at [golnaz.motiei01@estudiant.upf.edu](mailto:golnaz.motiei01@estudiant.upf.edu)

If it is more comfortable for you, you can also answer the last two questions in Spanish or Catalan. Please answer the questions based on your feeling in your English class.

### **Section 1**

Email address.....).

1) Name and Surname.....).

2) Age .....

3) Gender .....

4 Nationality ..... country of birth .....

5) Profession .....

6) First or initial language(s) ..... (You may write two or more languages if you consider that more than one is your initial language).

7) Do you know another language apart from Spanish, Catalan and English?..... ). How well.....).

8) Have you ever lived or visited an English- speaking country? Yes.....  
No.....

Which country /countries.....How long? Years..... ; months.....; weeks.....; days.....).

9) How old were you when you started to learn English?..... where.....).

10) How long have you studied English?.....).

11) Do you use English outside the classroom? .....

12) What is your purpose for learning English? .....

**Section 2**

Indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements. Circle the answer you choose.

1) I can be creative in the English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

2) I can laugh off embarrassing mistakes in the English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

3) I don't get bored in the English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

4) I enjoy learning English.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

5) I've learnt to express myself better in the English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

6) I'm a worthy member of the English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

7) I've learnt interesting things in the English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

8) In English class, I feel proud of my accomplishments.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

9) It's a positive environment.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

10) It's cool to know English.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

11) It's fun to learn English.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

12) Making errors is part of the learning process.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

13) The peers are nice.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

14) The teacher is encouraging.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

15) The teacher is friendly.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

16) The teacher is supportive.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

17) With my peers, we form a tight group.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

18) As a group we have lots of complicity such as running jokes.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

19) As a group, we laugh a lot.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

20) Even if I am well prepared for the English class, I feel anxious about it.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

21) I always feel that the other students speak the English better than I do.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

22) I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in the English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

23) I don't worry about making mistakes in the English class.(reverse-coded)

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

24) I feel confident when I speak in the English class. (reverse-coded)

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

25) I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

26) I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in my English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

27) It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

28) I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

29) It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

30) I keep thinking that other students in my English class are better at languages than I am.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

31) I am afraid that other students in my English class will laugh at me when I speak English.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

32) I am worried about consequences of failing my English class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

33) I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

### **Section 3**

1. Describe one specific event or episode on your English class that you really enjoyed, and describe your feelings then with as much detail as you can.
2. Describe one specific event or episode on your English class that made you uncomfortable, and describe your feelings with as much detail as you can.



## **Appendix D: Pilot test of the Emotions in the Foreign Language Classroom scale**

(based of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J.,1986) and Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (FLE) (Dewaele, J.-M., & MacIntyre, P. D.,2014).

This questionnaire is part of an investigation about the role emotions play in foreign language learning. All the information you provide will be strictly confidential, and I will change all names and references to pseudonyms. If you are interested in this study, please feel free to contact me at [golnaz.motiei01@estudiant.upf.edu](mailto:golnaz.motiei01@estudiant.upf.edu)

# If it is more comfortable for you, you can also answer the last two questions in Spanish or Catalan. Please answer the questions based on your feeling in your English class.

### **Section 1**

- 1) Name and Surname.....).
- 2) Age .....
- 3) Gender .....
- 4 Nationality .....) country of birth .....
- 5) Profession .....
- 6) First or initial language(s) ..... ) (You may write two or more languages if you consider that more than one is your initial language).
- 7) Do you know another language apart from Spanish, Catalan and English?..... ). How well.....).

8) Have you ever lived or visited an English- speaking country? Yes.....  
No.....

Which country / countries.....How  
long? Years..... ; months.....; weeks.....;  
days.....).

9) How old were you when you started to learn English?.....  
where.....).

10) How long have you studied English?.....).

11) Do you use English outside the classroom?  
.....).

12) What is your purpose for learning English?  
.....).

**Section 2**

Indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements. Circle the  
answer you choose.

1. I can be creative.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

2. I can laugh off embarrassing mistakes in the FL.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

3. I don't get bored.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

4. I enjoy it.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

5. I feel as though I'm a different person during the FL class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

6. I learnt to express myself better in the FL.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

7. I'm a worthy member of the FL class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

8. I've learnt interesting things.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

9. In class, I feel proud of my accomplishments.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

10. It's a positive environment.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

11. It's cool to know a FL.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

12. It's fun.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

13. Making errors is part of the learning process.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

14. The peers are nice.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

15. The teacher is encouraging.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

16. The teacher is friendly.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

17. The teacher is supportive.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

18. There is a good atmosphere.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

19. We form a tight group.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

20. We have common “legends”, such as running jokes.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

21. We laugh a lot.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

22. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

23. I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

24. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

25. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

26. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

28. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

29. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

30. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

31. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

32. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

33. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

34. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

35. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

Strongly agree Agree Neither agree nor disagree Disagree Strongly disagree

### **Section 3**

1. Describe one specific event or episode on your English class that you really enjoyed, and describe your feelings then with as much detail as you can.
2. Describe one specific event or episode on your English class that made you uncomfortable, and describe your feelings with as much detail as you can.

## **Appendix E: Semi-structured Interviews**

### **(students)**

- 1) Please describe your feelings about your English class.
- 2) Can you tell me three positive adjectives that show your feeling in the classroom?
- 3) Can you tell me three negative adjectives that show your feeling in the classroom?
- 4) Do you have any good or bad experiences about your English classroom?
- 5) Please tell me what you like best about your foreign language class.
- 6) Please tell me what disturbs you the most in your foreign language class.
- 7) Please tell me which activities make you anxious and how do you react to them?
- 8) When you feel anxiety in the classes, does it affect your learning positively or negatively?
- 9) When you find yourself in a stressful situation, do you primarily worry, or do you actively seek a solution?
- 10) How can you tell that you are feeling anxious? How does anxiety manifest in your case?
- 11) How does your English teacher make you feel in the classroom?
- 12) How does your peers make you feel in the classroom?
- 13) Describe your teacher's reaction whenever you make a mistake.
- 14) Describe your peers' reaction whenever you make a mistake.
- 15) Please tell me which activities you enjoy more.
- 16) What would the English class less stressful?

- 17) How important your teachers and peers in level of your happiness?
- 18) How can you tell that you are enjoying your English classes? How does enjoyment manifest in your case?
- 19) When you enjoy the classes, does it affect your learning positively or negatively?
- 20) Do you have any ideas of ways to make the English class more enjoyable?
- 21) Please tell me in which skill you feel more anxiety and more enjoyment?



## **Appendix F: Semi-structured Interviews (Teacher)**

- 1) Please describe your general impression of your students in the English class?
- 2) How are students different in speaking, writing, listening, and grammar and reading classes?
- 3) What types of language learners can learn better English than others?
- 4) What is your challenge when you deal with students?
- 5) Please describe your experience with anxious students.
- 6) Please describe your experience with students who really enjoy.
- 7) What role does foreign language anxiety and foreign language enjoyment play on students learning process?
- 8) Do you think language anxiety helps learning English or hinder it?
- 9) Do you think foreign language enjoyment helps learning English better?
- 10) Which skill does provoke foreign language anxiety more than others?
- 11) How do students express their foreign language anxiety and foreign language enjoyment in the classroom?
- 12) What are the most important reasons/ sources to make students anxious and happy in the classroom?
- 13). What are the most important symptoms of foreign language anxiety?
- 14) What are the most important symptoms of foreign language enjoyment?
- 15). How do you deal with anxious students in the classroom?
- 16) What is your role as an English teacher in dealing/ coping with anxiety?
- 17) What do you expect from your students when confronting anxiety?

- 18) What are the difficulties when dealing with anxiety?
- 19) Do you think female language learners experience more foreign language anxiety/ foreign language enjoyment than males?
- 20) Do you think younger language learners experienced higher level of language anxiety /foreign language enjoyment than older language learners?
- 21) Do you think those language learners who have experienced or lived in English speaking countries experienced less foreign language anxiety/ foreign language enjoyment?
- 22) What is your idea about the relationship between the level of foreign language anxiety/ foreign language enjoyment and proficiency levels of students?
- 23) What is your idea about the level of foreign language anxiety and foreign language enjoyment at the beginning and at the end of academic year?

## Appendix G: EOI language test results

Participant n°	Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Accuracy	final score test
1	10.6	12.6	14.74	12	18.6	68.54
2	15.6	16	11	13	15	70.6
3	15.33	18.67	17	14	19.33	84.33
4	8	12.33	15	7.5	16	58.83
5	15	19	12	15	15	76
6	8	12.5	13.74	10	16	60.24
7	12	12	14	12	14	64
8	8	9.33	11	10	10.5	48.83
9	14	13	14	12	12	65
10	14	14	18.67	10	16	72.67
11	15	14	16	11	14	70
12	12	13.33	16	9	11	61.33
13	19.33	16.67	16	18	17.5	87.5
14	12.67	13.33	13.33	14.3	15	68.63
15	12.67	10.67	11.33	11.5	11.5	57.67
16	10	12	7.5	8	17.33	54.83
17	12.33	14.67	13.3	12	17.65	69.98
18	13.33	8	9	12	10	52.33
19	16.5	17	13	14	17	77.5
20	12.67	14.67	12	7	10.5	56.84
21	17.5	16	16	12	17	78.5
22	10	12	7.5	8	17.33	54.83
23	19.33	16.67	16	18	17.5	87.5
24	16	14.33	14.6	15	16	76
25	14	16	15	10	15	70
26	15.33	15	10	11	15.5	66.83
27	17	12	10.5	12	16	67.5
28	15	16	13.33	17	16.5	77.83
29	8	7.5	12	12	13.5	53
30	14	12	12	14	13.5	65.5
31	14	14	12	12	18	70
32	14.67	12.67	18	15.5	19.33	80.17
33	16	17.33	16	18	18	85.33
34	10	11.67	12	9	11	53.67
35	11	12.33	12	7	11	53.33
36	16	13	14.67	13	15	71.67
37	12	11	13.33	9	16	61.33

*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*

38	15.33	17	16	12	15	75.33
39	18	17	16.33	17	16.5	84.83
40	14	13	14	15	14	70
41	18	17.67	16.33	17	17	86
42	8	7.5	13.33	9	12	49.83
43	12	10	14	12.33	9	57.33
44	14.66	15	14.66	14.3	14	72.62
45	16.67	13	14.67	15	17.33	76.67
46	18.33	17.67	17	17	18.5	88.5
47	11	9	13.33	8	14	55.33
48	14.33	14.67	10.33	13	12.5	64.83
49	16	17.33	18.75	18	18.67	88.75
50	8	12	13.67	16	12	61.67
51	15.33	16	15	12	15.33	73.66
52	16	16	19	14.5	18.6	84.1
53	16	16	19	14.5	17	82.5
54	18	20	18.75	19	19.33	95.08
55	17	16.67	14	17	15	79.67
56	7	7.5	12	8	12	46.5
57	19	17	18.33	17	18	89.33
58	10.6	12.6	14.74	12	18.6	68.54
59	17	16.5	16	15	17	81.5
60	13.33	16.53	12	9	12	62.86
61	11	15.75	16	12	17	71.75
62	13.5	15	16.23	15.33	11	71.06
63	13	12.67	14	13	16	68.67
64	18	16.33	14	12.6	14	74.93
65	11	16.67	14.25	12	18	71.92
66	11	13	16.23	13	15	68.23
67	16	16.67	14.25	12	14	72.92
68	17.4	19.3	18.11	17.83	16.9	89.54
69	10	15	11	12	11	59
70	13	12	14	10	16.11	65.11
71	14	13.33	11.5	13	13	64.83
72	16.67	16	16.33	15.75	16	80.75
73	12.67	13	13.33	14.3	15	68.3
74	14	14	12.33	11	15	66.33
75	16.67	16	13.33	18	18	82
76	17	14	18	15	19	83

*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*

77	17	12	15	14	17	75
78	15	16.67	16	13.5	16	77.17
79	9	8	12	10	11	50
80	17	15.33	16	14	17	79.33
81	12.67	12.33	13.33	14	15	67.33
82	8	9.33	12	16	10	55.33
83	18.33	16	17	17	16	84.33
84	12.67	13.67	12	7	10.5	55.84
85	12	13	13	9	10	57
86	9	14	13.33	10	10	56.33
87	14	12	15.33	7	7.5	55.83
88	17	17.33	17	18	18	87.33
89	19	18.33	17	17	18	89.33
90	13	16.33	18	10	17	74.33
91	10	8	14	9	15	56
92	11	12.5	12	10	9	54.5
93	16.33	16.67	15.67	12	15	75.67
94	15	13	14	15.33	16	73.33
95	12.67	13.67	11	7	10	54.34
96	8.5	12	11	9	8.5	49
97	11.33	12.5	13	9	12	57.83
98	11	12	16	13	8	60
99	12.33	15.67	15	10	16.5	69.5
100	12	13	18	10.5	16	69.5
101	18.33	17.67	17	18	18.5	89.5
102	11	10.44	10.5	11	10	52.94
103	7	10	14	8.5	10	49.5
104	14	16.43	17	12	17	76.43
105	16	15.7	14	15.5	16	77.2
106	13	10.5	15	13.5	11	63
107	17	15	18	14	17	81
108	18	16	17	17	18	86
109	18	17	16.67	18	17.67	87.34
110	17.33	12	13	13	15	70.33
111	19.33	16.33	18	18	17	88.66
112	12	16.33	16	9	15	68.33
113	9	12.33	9	10	12	52.33
114	15	12.33	16	14.42	13	70.75
115	12.5	12	13.33	9	13	59.83

*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*

116	8	16.33	15	13	17	69.33
117	12	13.33	14	13	15.5	67.83
118	18.33	19	17	18	16	88.33
119	16.67	17	16.33	17	17	84
120	14	15	17	16.5	12.9	75.4
121	13	11.5	16.33	13	18	71.83
122	16	13	13	12	16.33	70.33
123	12.7	16	12.25	11	11	62.95
124	12	14	14	13.33	14	67.33
125	12.33	16.67	15	10	13.33	67.33
126	14	14.33	16	15	13	72.33
127	15	14	14.33	14	12.33	69.66
128	17	16.5	13	12	15	73.5
129	13.4	12	15	9	13	62.4
130	9	8.5	11	9	12	49.5
131	12	13.33	16	10	16	67.33
132	18	13	16.33	17	18	82.33
133	10	10.5	11	12	10	53.5
134	9	12	13	8	12	54
135	18	17.33	18	17	17.67	88
136	12.67	13.67	12	8	10.5	56.84
137	8	13	12.67	12	17	62.67
138	13	14.33	16	10	15	68.33
139	12.33	14	13	11	12.67	63
140	12.5	12	14	9	11	58.5
141	9	11	13.33	9	14	56.33
142	8.5	11	13	11	16.67	60.17
143	9	8	13.33	10	8	48.33
144	15	17	16.33	16	16	80.33
145	17.33	13	14	13	16.5	73.83
146	12	10	12	12	11	57
147	16	18	17.33	14.3	17	82.63
148	11.33	13	13	12	17.5	66.83
149	8	8.5	13	9	11	49.5
150	10	13	13.33	10	14.67	61
151	16.67	16	13.33	18	18	82
152	13	12.33	14	12.33	13	64.66
153	10	11.33	12.5	12.43	10	56.26
154	16	11.67	17	15	12	71.67

*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*

155	12	12.22	14.33	12	11.6	62.15
156	13	12.33	12.5	12	10	59.83
157	16	14.33	13	16	12	71.33
158	16	14	16	15.33	13	74.33
159	11	14.33	18	12	15	70.33
160	13.5	13.5	17	10	15	69
161	13	12	14.33	12	12	63.33
162	16	11	16.5	14	12	69.5
1623	17.33	15	16.33	16	14.42	79.08
164	14.5	15	16.33	11	16	72.83
165	14.67	16	14.67	15.3	14	74.64
166	12.67	10.5	14	9	13	59.17
167	17	16	18.33	16	16	83.33
168	19	17	18.33	13	17	84.33
169	13.5	16.5	16	15	18.5	79.5
170	15	17	16.33	12	17	77.33
171	15	17	18	16	18	84
172	11	16	12.33	10	16	65.33
173	17.6	18	18	16	17	86.6
174	14.67	16	15	13	14.5	73.17
175	12.67	11	14.67	8	14	60.34
176	17	16	17.33	17	16	83.33
177	11	16	17.33	12	16	72.33
178	17	16.67	16	14	15.5	79.17
179	19	17	16	16	18	86
180	17	14	13	11	17	72
181	13.5	12	13	11	13	62.5
182	10.5	15	14.33	12	15.5	67.33
183	9	15.33	17	12	16	69.33
184	17	16.8	15.33	17	18	84.13
185	15.33	17.67	17	18	16.5	84.5
186	14	9	13	9	12	57
187	18	16.67	15.33	13.5	15	78.5
188	14	8	12	11.67	10	55.67
189	11.33	13.8	8	14	12.67	59.8
190	13	12.33	14	10	14	63.33
191	8.5	12	12	7	11	50.5
192	11.33	15.3	12.5	11	15	65.13
193	15.33	14	14	12	14	69.33

*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*

194	18	14	13.33	13.8	14.5	73.63
195	14.76	13	14	16	13	70.76
196	17	15	16	14.33	15	77.33
197	12	10.5	13.33	9.5	15	60.33
198	12.67	11	13.33	14.3	15	68.63
199	14.33	13	19.33	13	17	76.66
200	17	16	18	16	14	81
201	17.33	16.67	17	16	13	80
202	16.67	16	13.33	16	17	79
203	16	14.33	12	13	14	69.33
204	14.67	16	14.67	15.3	14	74.64
205	9	14	15.5	14	15	67.5
206	14.67	16	15.67	15.3	14	75.64
207	17	16.5	18	19	17	87.5
208	17.6	9	13.6	12	12	64.2
209	14	17.6	17	10	16	74.6
210	16	12	16	12	15	71
211	16	13	17	12	17	75
212	15	15	13	9	13	65
213	12	14	13.33	11	9	59.33
214	12	11.5	15.67	10	12	61.17
215	14.5	14.33	16.67	9	16	70.5
216	12	14	14.75	12	17.33	70.08
217	11	14	15	15	15	70
218	12.67	15.67	13	8	10.5	59.84
219	15.33	14.67	10.67	13	11.5	65.17
220	11	17	11.5	9	17	65.5
221	14	13.33	15	14	16	72.33
222	15	18.5	16	16	17	82.5
223	13	11	14.33	15	12	65.33
224	16.67	15	14.33	17	16	79
225	15	16	17	12	11	71
226	19	18	18.33	17	18	90.33
227	17	16	16	15	18	82
228	12	13.33	14	9	14	62.33
229	14	8	9.5	10	16	57.5
230	12	10.5	10.67	9	12.5	54.67
231	12	9	18	13	12.5	64.5
232	18	17.5	14	16	17.6	83.1



*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*

233	16	16.5	15	16	18.5	82
234	16.33	17.67	17	16	13	80
235	12.67	10.67	11.33	11.5	11.5	57.67
236	11.33	9	10	7.5	7	44.83
237	11.6	8	12	11	12.5	55.1

## **Appendix H: Consent Form**

Dear students,

My name is Golnaz Motiei and I am a PhD candidate at UPF at the Department of Translation and Language Science. For my dissertation I am conducting a research study that explores issues related to foreign language learning and the role that emotions play in learning process. I want to contribute to improve teacher mythologies.

This form details the purpose of this study, a description of the involvement required and your rights as a participant. For my research I need to have volunteers and I will really appreciate your help as language learners. Your participations will consist of answering one questionnaire at the beginning and at the end of the academic year, lasting approximately 20 minutes. Moreover, some voluntary students will participate at an interview with me. Privacy will be ensured both for the questionnaire answers and interviews through confidentiality and anonymity. Participation is voluntary and the interviewee has the right to terminate the interview at any time.

A summary of the results of the study will be available to all participants upon request. You may contact me with any questions or concerns. My email address is [golnaz-motiei01@estudiant.upf.edu](mailto:golnaz-motiei01@estudiant.upf.edu). Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study.

Date -----

Name and surname-----

Class No. -----

Signature of interviewee-----

## **Appendix I: Tables for descriptive statistics for FLCA, FLE and individual variables in time 1 and time 2**

*a) Relationship between FLCA and FLE at time 1 and time 2 (out of 100)*

<b>FLCA score</b>	<b>FLCA score out of 100</b>	<b>FLE score out of 100</b>	<b>FLCA score out of 100</b>	<b>FLE score out of 100</b>
<b>MIN</b>	24.29	54.74	20.00	54.74
<b>MAX</b>	94.29	94.74	97.14	98.95
<b>AVE</b>	57.31	77.06	56.07	77.52
<b>Standard Deviation</b>	13.27	7.09	15.33	9.26
<b>threshold value for low</b>	<b>44.04</b>	<b>69.97</b>	<b>40.74</b>	<b>68.26</b>
<b>threshold value for high</b>	<b>70.59</b>	<b>84.16</b>	<b>71.40</b>	<b>86.78</b>

*b) FLCA and proficiency level*

	<b>group</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>K-S (Z)</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
FLCA time 1	B1	89	40.10	9.270	17	64	.666	.766
	B2	75	40.53	10.288	17	66	.545	.928
	C	73	39.71	8.297	25	61	.874	.430

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	<b>Total</b>	<b>237</b>	<b>40.12</b>	<b>9.292</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>1.096</b>	<b>.181</b>
FLCA	B1	89	43.75	9.802	26	68	.622	.834
time 2	B2	75	37.60	10.462	14	66	.876	.427
	C	73	35.45	10.247	17	64	1.420	.036
	<b>Total</b>	<b>237</b>	<b>39.25</b>	<b>10.731</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>1.418</b>	<b>.036</b>

*c) FLE and proficiency level*

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Variable	group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mi.	Max.	K-S (Z)	Sig.
FLE time 1	B1	89	75.00	6.342	58	90	.688	.732
	B2	75	69.77	6.066	52	85	.829	.498
	C1	73	74.56	6.612	56	90	.819	.513
	<b>Total</b>	<b>237</b>	<b>73.21</b>	<b>6.738</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>.968</b>	<b>.306</b>
FLE time 2	B1	89	69.18	8.858	52	89	.765	.601
	B2	75	75.55	6.519	52	85	.644	.801
	C1	73	80.22	6.661	60	94	.672	.758
	<b>Total</b>	<b>237</b>	<b>73.65</b>	<b>8.797</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>94</b>	<b>.825</b>	<b>.504</b>

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*d) FLCA, FLE and abroad experiences*

N° of countries	N	time 1				time 2			
		FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD	FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD
0	61	42.79	10.323	73.46	6.420	42.61	10.978	73.23	8.821
1	122	39.61	8.875	73.38	7.350	39.37	10.710	73.23	9.109
2	45	38.27	8.910	72.40	5.809	35.84	9.487	74.27	7.475
3	8	37.62	6.323	74.38	3.889	30.25	5.523	82.00	4.504

*e) FLCA and FLE and time spent abroad*

Time spent	N	time 1				time 2			
		FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD	FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD
0-7 days	36	41.33	8.472	72.58	7.721	39.86	11.087	73.11	8.831
8 - 30 days	86	38.66	8.886	73.19	7.013	38.17	10.295	72.93	8.918
1 - 11 months	41	38.73	8.852	73.63	6.437	37.20	10.357	75.68	8.745
+1 year	10	36.80	8.766	73.80	4.290	33.50	10.190	77.80	5.287

*f) FLCA, FLE and language repertoires*

No. Languages	N	time 1				time 2			
		FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD	FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD

0	112	41.29	9.359	73.54	6.539	40.55	10.487	73.24	8.839
1	93	40.11	9.172	73.61	6.889	38.86	11.085	74.45	8.986
2	24	36.71	9.309	71.54	7.150	36.71	10.336	73.71	7.590
3	5	33.40	5.727	68.60	6.107	34.20	9.257	69.00	11.467

*g) FLCA and FLE and different languages*

Language	N	FLCA time 1				FLCA time 2			
		FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD	FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD
No	112	41.29	9.359	73.54	6.539	40.55	10.487	73.24	8.839
French	78	39.88	9.745	72.90	7.068	38.37	11.580	74.15	8.943
Italian	14	38.36	8.617	72.50	6.136	39.57	9.485	71.21	8.031
German	16	35.31	7.507	76.31	5.839	36.06	9.110	77.19	8.002
Others	14	40.36	7.977	70.29	7.559	38.71	10.499	73.00	9.535

*b) FLCA and FLE and educational level*

Education Level	N	time 1				time 2			
		FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD	FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD
Diploma	74	39.41	8.685	73.85	6.755	38.82	9.676	73.82	8.962
Bachelor	90	41.48	10.162	72.04	7.044	40.03	12.402	74.03	9.140
Master	59	39.29	9.075	73.93	5.720	38.61	9.900	73.76	7.914
PhD	8	37.75	6.882	73.00	7.578	38.38	8.700	71.12	8.271

*i) FLCA and FLE and age*

Age groups	n°	time 1				time 2			
		Mean FLCA score	SD	Mean FLE score	SD	Mean FLCA score	SD	Mean FLE score	SD
Under 20	54	39.20	8.807	74.19	7.271	38.24	9.615	74.19	9.126
20 - 30	76	40.38	9.762	73.04	6.863	40.84	11.639	73.11	8.766
30 - 40	50	41.72	10.075	73.72	5.890	39.54	11.622	74.94	8.648
40 - 50	27	38.37	8.536	72.26	6.131	37.56	11.033	73.63	7.831
50 - 60	23	38.61	8.500	71.74	7.944	37.26	8.341	71.48	10.027
Over 60	7	44.57	5.884	72.43	5.318	40.71	7.825	73.29	8.015

*j) FLCA and FLE and age started learning English*

Age groups	N	time1				time 2			
		FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD	FLCA M	FLCA SD	FLE M	FLE SD
under 5	34	39.50	8.404	73.09	6.886	38.03	8.643	73.47	8.144
05 - 10	117	39.47	10.119	74.08	6.671	39.31	12.072	74.15	9.158
10 - 20	57	40.30	8.000	72.19	6.909	38.32	8.965	73.74	8.408
20 - 30	13	44.15	8.581	72.08	6.639	43.46	10.541	71.00	11.015
30 - 40	4	43.75	15.945	70.75	7.762	39.25	13.074	75.00	5.598
40 - 50	7	40.57	8.715	70.29	6.211	42.86	11.246	70.43	7.656

Over 50 5 43.40 4.980 74.40 5.459 40.80 8.167 72.40 8.325

*k) FLCA and FLE and gender*

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	T	df	Sig.
FLCA time 1	Female	152	41.35	9.630	.781	3.431	2.764	235	.006
	Male	85	37.92	8.259	.896				
FLCA time2	Female	152	40.16	10.920	.886	2.534	1.751	235	.081
	Male	85	37.62	10.247	1.111				
FLE time 1	Female	152	73.02	6.302	.511	-.533	-.583	235	.560
	Male	85	73.55	7.483	.812				
FLE time 2	Female	152	73.52	8.472	.687	-.351	-.294	235	.769
	Male	85	73.87	9.398	1.019				

*l) FLCA and FLE and speaking English outside the classroom*

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	T	df	Sig.
FLCA time 1	No	127	42.61	9.387	.833	5.467	4.694	233	.000
	Yes	108	37.14	8.289	.798				
FLCA time 2	No	127	42.08	11.003	.976	6.097	4.529	233	.000
	Yes	108	35.98	9.369	.902				
FLE	No	127	72.33	6.553	.581	-1.993	-2.276	233	.024



*Learner Perceptions Of Emotions In The Foreign Language Classroom*

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time 1									
	Yes	108	74.32	6.849	.659				
FLE	No	127	72.79	9.046	.803	-1.898	-1.648	233	.101
time 2									
	Yes	108	74.69	8.494	.817				

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