ESCUELA SUPERIOR POLITÉCNICA DEL LITORAL

Facultad de Ciencias Sociales y Humanísticas

"THE EFFECT OF GENDER AND EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY (FLA) AMONGST EFL STUDENTS AT AN ECUADORIAN UNIVERSITY"

PROYECTO DE TITULACIÓN

Previa la obtención del Título de:

MASTER IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Presentado por:

EMMA JANE PEDLEY

Guayaquil – Ecuador

2017

Acknowledgements

Thanks to God for providing His strength, will and intelligence not only in the completion of this thesis, but the whole Master's program. I couldn't have done it without You!

Next, I have to thank my family. Oswaldo, your patience and sacrifice – looking after the kids for whole weekends while I went to classes and all the hours I was locked away studying – was invaluable. Mum and Dad, I wouldn't have coped without your moral and financial support. Abigail and Lucas, thank you for doing without mummy at times so I could achieve this personal and professional goal. Alicia, I really appreciate you for being there as much as you could to help out.

I'd also like to thank all my colleagues who collaborated with this study during the data collection phase.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge the support of Rosita, our nanny, without whose overnight stays I could not have finished writing up this thesis.

Thank you ALL! This is for you …

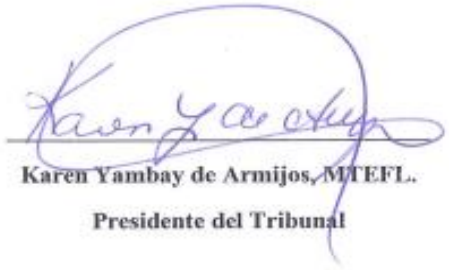
EMMA

Dedication

For my Lord and Saviour, Jesus Christ. May Your name be glorified.

EMMA JANE PEDLEY

Defence Committee



Karen Yambay de Armijos, MTEFL.

Presidente del Tribunal

Dennis Maloney, MPA.

Tutor del Proyecto

Jorge Flores, MSc.

Evaluador

III

Declaración Expresa

"La responsabilidad del contenido de este Trabajo de Titulación, corresponde exclusivamente al autor, y al patrimonio intelectual de la misma **ESCUELA SUPERIOR POLITÉCNICA DEL LITORAL**"

Emma Jane Pedley

General Index

Summary

The causes, effects and ways to deal with anxiety in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom have been well-researched and documented over the past thirty years - but not in Ecuador. This quantitative study measures the Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) of EFL students at a public Ecuadorian university (N = 301) using a Spanish version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Findings show that Ecuadorian students may be more prone to communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation than test anxiety in the English language classroom. Moreover, whilst male and female scores are not significantly different in general, women do seem to suffer more for speech and receiver anxiety (communication apprehension) and test anxiety. Interestingly, a significant relationship is established between the cost of the high school a student graduated from and his/her level of anxiety suggesting that past negative or positive learning experiences may influence current levels of FLA. However, further research is necessary in this area to confirm this assumption.

Index Of Tables

Index Of Figures

Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CELTA	Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
FLA	Foreign Language Anxiety
FLCAS	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
ID	Individual Difference
L1	First language
L2	Second language
M	Mean
Mdn	Median
Mo	Mode
N	Number of cases in a sample
SD	Standard deviation
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TKT	Teaching Knowledge Test

Chapter 1

Background to the Study

When working in Ecuador with undergraduate English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners whose major is not English, it is common to come across students who seem reluctant to learn - students who sit as far away from the teacher as possible; students who disappear from the classroom to take regular "toilet breaks"; students who never volunteer information in feedback sessions; students who avoid doing written homework; students who are regularly absent from class; students who are extremely reticent about participating in speaking activities. The list is long, and whilst it may be tempting to label these undergraduates as lazy, dull or unmotivated, there is a large body of EFL literature that suggests that another factor may be at play: anxiety.

The anxiety experienced in the classroom by learners of a second language, known as foreign language anxiety (FLA), is unique (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986); that is, it is an anxiety specifically triggered by the circumstances of language learning. This phenomenon is also considered to be "multi-faceted" (Horwitz, 2010) in nature and related to several types of anxiety. Indeed, an early work in the field suggested that it comprises three salient anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz et al., 1986).

FLA doesn't affect everyone. Some students do not suffer from high levels of anxiety. However, for those that do, the causes or triggers are considered to be many, stemming from insecurities within the learner, the student's relationship with his/her teacher, and/or the type of classroom activities and assessments that are undertaken (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). Furthermore, in the Ecuadorian context, it is not uncommon to hear apparently anxious or

uncomfortable EFL students complain about previous language learning experience to explain away any present (or future) deficiencies. Anecdotal evidence suggests that students who did not attend private schools sometimes feel at a disadvantage in their university English classes, even when they are starting from the first level. Thus, it is possible that negative perceptions of past language learning may influence present anxiety too.

Educational background aside, it has been found that in certain cultures one gender may suffer from more anxiety than the other. This has often been explained by differences in socialization processes (Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012; Park & French, 2013). Whilst there is currently no anecdotal evidence of this in Ecuador, it is possible that the existence of mixed-gender classes exerts a social pressure on students to perform well in front of the opposite sex. Some research suggests that opposite-sex pairings trigger more emotions (Barrett, Lane, Sechrest & Schwartz, 2000, as cited in Dewaele, 2007). If this emotionality is felt disproportionately by each sex, it could generate a gender difference in classroom anxiety levels.

Regardless of the EFL context, the existence of high levels of FLA is considered a problem. Despite some debate to the contrary (see Ganschow, Sparks & Javorsky, 1998), most researchers would agree that FLA can have a significant, and often detrimental, effect on language learning and performance. What is more, common sense tells us that a student with high levels of anxiety is an unhappy one. Identifying FLA in the classroom, and its possible causes or triggers, is the first step to developing ways of dealing with it in Ecuador.

Aims and Rationale

The objective of this study is to establish the extent to which undergraduate EFL students taking obligatory English courses at an Ecuadorian public university suffer from FLA in general. Subsequently, this study aims to determine whether the subjects are

particularly prone to any specific aspect of FLA (communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation or test anxiety). Finally, the researcher hopes to identify any correlations between the gender and educational background of the students, and their FLA levels and types.

The specific objectives are as follows:

1. To determine the levels of FLA amongst Ecuadorian university EFL students
2. To determine whether three underlying dimensions of FLA – communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety - are more or less prevalent amongst Ecuadorian students
3. To measure the relationship between the overall level of FLA, and gender and educational background
4. To measure the relationship between the three dimensions of FLA, and gender and educational background

This quantitative study is seen as a springboard to further research into the nature of FLA in Ecuador, and the development of educational policies and classroom practices that acknowledge and deal with the phenomenon within the Ecuadorian education system. The study does not aim to determine the causes or effects of FLA. However, any correlations found between levels of FLA, gender and educational background may open the door to some exploratory research that can better establish the direction of and the reasons behind the interaction of these variables.

Research Hypotheses

This study is situated within the positivist research paradigm, conceptualizing anxiety as a quantifiable phenomenon. In light of this, the researcher aims to test the following hypotheses:

H1: Some Ecuadorian EFL undergraduate students suffer from high levels of FLA.

H2: Ecuadorian students suffer more from communication apprehension than test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

H3: There is a difference between the levels of FLA suffered by male and female students.

H4: There is a difference between the respective levels of communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation suffered by male and female students.

H5: Students who studied at expensive private schools suffer from lower levels of FLA than students from other schools.

H6: Students who studied at expensive private schools suffer from less communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation than students from other schools.

Significance to the Field and Praxis

As far as is known, although there is extensive literature in this field, no study has ever been undertaken into anxiety in the Ecuadorian EFL classroom. Since the current literature on anxiety suggests that FLA may be partly caused by social and cultural factors in the areas of "identity formation, cultural connotation and parental intervention" (Zhang & Zhong, 2012, p.31), it is highly relevant to measure FLA in this unique socio-cultural and historical context.

Additionally, the researcher has found few quantitative studies that consider the previous language learning experience of a student in relation to his/her level of FLA. The nature of the Ecuadorian education system – the range of high schools and quality of English language teaching - enables the creation of an educational background variable to represent

previous language learning experience. If a correlation exists between the type of high school a student attended and their level of FLA, this will indicate a pressing need for exploratory research into anxiety and previous educational experience.

Chapter 2

Anxiety in the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Literature

Anxiety is considered to be one of many causes of individual differences (IDs) in second language acquisition. Put simply, it is one of several factors that has been used to explain why not every student achieves the same level of success when studying a foreign language. Although Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) place anxiety outside "the four canonical language learner IDs" (p.170) of personality, language aptitude, motivation and learning strategies, it is still regarded by Ellis (2008) as a "core factor" (p.644). Moreover, anxiety has been the subject of a large body of second language (L2) research over the last 30 years (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

In a broad sense, anxiety can be described as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system (Spielberger, 1983)" (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986, p.125). Yet, despite having been widely researched, anxiety in SLA remains a complicated construct to define for the following reasons:

- there are different types of anxiety which may affect a language learner
- anxiety is not conceptualized as completely independent or separate from other ID variables (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Ellis, 2008), such as personality and motivation (see Gardener's Motivation Theory, Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).
- like other ID factors, anxiety is thought to be a "multidimensional" (Scovel, 1978, p.134), "multicomponential" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p.8) or "multi-faceted" (Horwitz, 2010) concept

On the one hand, anxiety is seen as a *component* of personality. The "Big Five" model, a widely-recognized theoretical framework of five basic personality dimensions[1], includes a dimension called "Neuroticism-Emotional stability", of which anxiety is part. Indeed, Costa and McCrae (1992, as cited in Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015) specify anxiety as a facet of neuroticism in their instrument for assessing personality, the NEO-PI (Neuroticism-Extraversion-Openness Personality Inventory). Thus, being anxious can be seen as a personality trait, also known as *trait anxiety* (Spielberger, 1983, as cited in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

Nevertheless, anxiety can also be state or situation-specific. *State anxiety* is a temporary nervousness aroused in a moment of stress, for example, when waiting for exam results or when a loved one is hospitalized. It is not completely distinct from trait anxiety, since someone who suffers from trait anxiety is more likely to suffer high levels of state anxiety (Spielberger, 1983, as cited in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). With s*ituation-specific anxiety*, specific situations act as a trigger to the anxiety, and tend to repeat themselves, so people suffering for this type of anxiety repeatedly demonstrate an anxious response in those given circumstances.

The distinction between the three types of anxiety may not be as clear cut as some think. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) relate situation-specific anxiety back to trait anxiety arguing that it is just trait anxiety "limited to a given context" (p.90), for example, during public speaking, test taking or classroom activities in a particular academic subject. It is also possible the origins of situation-specific anxiety lie in state anxiety. In the language learning context, for example, a person experiences some state anxiety in their first class. In following classes, the anxiety returns making it situation-specific (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

[1] This "Big Five" model cannot be attributed to the work of one single theorist or researcher, but is the outcome of many decades of research and cooperation from different academics in the field (see Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's Foreign Language Anxiety Construct

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) were the first to theorize foreign language anxiety as a distinct type of anxiety (Young, 1991), and their FLA construct and instrument are still widely used today in quantitative research. Based on conversations with foreign language students at support group meetings at the University of Texas, anecdotal evidence and some existing instruments, Horwitz et al. created the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to measure what they consider to be a unique, situation-specific anxiety[2]:

> We conceive foreign language anxiety as a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process. (pp.128)

The FLCAS is a self-report questionnaire with 33 items that use a 5-point-Likert scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The statements tend to focus on situations where students are expected to speak or listen in the foreign language classroom. This is intentional since the researchers themselves explain in their paper that the evidence gathered at the University of Texas pointed to the fact that the skills of speaking and listening are those that cause the most anxiety. It should be noted that subsequent research has also uncovered the existence of separate anxiety constructs for the individual skills of reading, writing and listening (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). Nevertheless, the FLCAS is still used as a tool and theoretical framework for the analysis of FLA today.

Studies have shown that FLA, as defined by the FLCAS, is distinct from other types of anxiety. Horwitz (1986) carried out some criterion-related studies to test the construct validity of the FLCAS. She found no significant correlations with the Trait scale of the State-

[2] Although, subsequently, some leading authors have suggested that FLA could also be an example of trait anxiety (Aida, 1994), or a combination of trait, state and situation-specific anxiety (MacIntyre 2007, as cited in Horwitz, 2010)

Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, 1983, as cited in Horwitz, 1986), the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (McCroskey, 1970, as cited in Horwitz, 1986), nor the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (Watson & Friend, 1969, as cited in Horwitz, 1986). That is to say, students who suffer from high levels of trait anxiety, communication apprehension or fear of negative evaluation may not necessarily suffer to the same extent from FLA, and vice versa. A moderate correlation was found with the Test Anxiety Scale (Sarason, 1978, as cited in Horwitz, 1986), however.

The Sources of FLA

FLA is thought to be a product of the relationship of language to the self. Simply put, language enables us to express who we are and so when our language is restricted, as it is when we are learning a new language, we feel that we can no longer project the image of ourselves which we would like others to see, or which we have been accustomed to others seeing. As the authors of the FLCAS put it:

The importance of the disparity between the "true" self as known to the language learner and the more limited self as can be presented at any given moment in the foreign language would seem to distinguish foreign language anxiety from other academic anxieties such as those associated with mathematics or science. (Horwitz et al., 1986, pp.128)

Thus, learning a second language can involve "tak[ing] on a new identity" (Guiora, Beit-Hallahmi, Brannon, Dull & Scovel, 1972, p.422). To be successful at doing this, a person needs his/her ego boundaries to be permeable and must be prepared to "temporarily give up one's separateness of identity from others" (Guiora et al., p.427), particularly in the area of pronunciation, and develop a new "language ego" (Guiora, 1972, as cited in Young, 1991). This idea has led some to see FLA as a kind of existential anxiety (Interview with Rardin, Young, 1992).

Young (1991) classifies this source of anxiety under the heading of "personal and interpersonal anxieties". However, in her much-cited literature review, she goes on to give numerous other sources of FLA. Her six categories of FLA triggers are as follows:

- **Personal and interpersonal anxieties** including low self-esteem or self-perceived low ability (Price, 1991 as cited in Young, 1991); competitiveness (Bailey, 1983, as cited in Young, 1991); social anxiety - fear of performing or speaking in front of others, and being evaluated by them (Leary, 1982, as cited in Young, 1991); existential anxiety (Rardin, as cited in Young, 1992)
- **Learner (unrealistic) beliefs about language learning** including placing too much importance on pronunciation (Gynan, 1989, as cited in Young, 1991) as well as being overly concerned with accuracy (perfectionism), equating language acquisition with the ability to translate from the mother tongue, or thinking that fluency is possible in a short time span (Horwitz, 1988, as cited in Young 1991).
- **Instructor beliefs about language teaching** including the notion that errors should always be corrected, that it is too chaotic to do pair work, that the teacher talk time should be high, and that a teacher's role is "like a drill sergeant's" (Young, 1991, p.428).
- **Instructor-learner interactions** including when the teacher gives "harsh" (p429) corrections and makes his/her students look stupid in front of others (Koch & Terrell, 1991, as cited in Young 1991; Horwitz, 1988, as cited in Young 1991)
- **Classroom procedures** involving students having to speak in front of an audience, for example, in oral skits or presentations (Koch & Terrell, 1991, as cited in Young, 1991)
- **Language testing** involving particular test formats, or different content and question-types from those practiced (Madsen, Brown & Jones, 1991, as cited in Young, 1991),

and tasks and formats that are unfamiliar and ambiguous (Daly, 1991, as cited in Young, 1991)

Zhang and Zhong (2012) add some further insights to Young's analysis of instructor-learner interactions by including the conflict between the teaching style of the teacher and the learning style of the student. Drawing on findings by Oxford (1999), they argue that students can become frustrated when a teacher does not consider their "sensory preferences" (p.29). For example, if the teacher relies on listening activities and neglects to use any visual materials, students who like to learn by seeing may become tense.

These authors also discuss the issue of how much the second language (L2) ought to be used in the classroom. Whilst avoiding the first language (L1) entirely is seen as anxiety-provoking, research has shown that using a lot of the target language may not always be anxiety-inducing (Levine, 2003). In Levine's study of 600 Canadian students studying predominantly French, German or Spanish as a second language, only around 40% of students reported that using the target language made them anxious. In fact, Levine found a negative relationship between the amount of use of the second language and anxiety levels.

Zhang and Zhong (2012) can also be seen to add a new category to the six areas defined by Young (1991). What they call "society-imposed anxiety" (p.31) consists in sources that stem from a wider community or culture. For example, students from an ethnic minority learning an L2 in a country where it is the native tongue may feel anxiety about the idea that their own cultural identity (connected to their first language, L1) is being eroded away, a process known as "subtractive bilingualism" (Lambert, 1974, as cited in Zhang & Zhong, 2012). Cultural differences can also cause anxiety in the classroom. For example, Chinese students may feel uncomfortable about answering questions in class because their culture has taught them to keep silent in order to demonstrate modesty (Tsui, 1996, as cited by Zhang & Zhong, 2012). Parental expectations may also play a role. Some parents see the

ability to communicate effectively in English as a requirement to communicative success (Liao, 1999, as cited in Zhang & Zhong, 2012) and this places pressure on their children.

The Manifestations of FLA

According to Horwitz et al. (1986), FLA manifests itself in three ways in line with other specific anxiety reactions: (1) subjective feelings, (2) psycho-physiological symptoms, and (3) behavioural responses. Subjective feelings are defined by the authors as "worry, or even dread" (p.126).

Psycho-physiological symptoms include a lack of concentration, forgetfulness, sweating and trembling (Horwitz et al., 1986). Other researchers have identified the following responses too:

> blushing, […] headaches, tension and pain in any part of the body, abnormal verbal behaviour, such as staggered voice, either too fast or too slow speed of speech, rubbing the palms, squirming, fidgeting, playing with hair or clothes, touching objects, stuttering or stammering, […] less eye contact because of reading from the paper or screen while giving presentations. (Hashemi & Abbasi, 2013, as cited in Kralova & Petrova, 2017, pp.116)

Behavioural responses fall into two contrasting categories: avoidance and overstudying. Typical avoidance behaviours may involve not coming to class and putting off homework (Horwitz et al., 1986). With regards to speaking the foreign language, students may give short, superficial answers to questions, and avoid intellectual or emotional topics, or just participate less overall (Gregersen, 2003). Gregersen also notes that highly-anxious students tend to revert to native language use more often. Contrastingly, overstudying involves spending excessive amounts of time trying to prepare for the class or an examination.

The Impact of FLA

In the same way that the definition of anxiety is complex, its effects on SLA have also been cause for debate. It is generally agreed that anxiety can have both a facilitating and debilitating effect on the performance and achievement of second language learners (see, for example, MacIntyre & Gardner, 1995), although a minority believe that it does not affect performance at all, but is, in fact, a *consequence* of low achievement (see Ganschow, Sparks & Javorsky, 1998).

MacIntyre (1995) speculates that cognitive anxiety – where the person is distracted by negative thoughts about him/herself – may interfere with learning. At first, the learner may compensate for the worry by increasing effort (Eysenck, 1979, as cited in MacIntyre, 1995), making the anxiety initially a facilitating factor in learning. Indeed, this theory is supported by research that suggests that some high achieving students suffer from FLA (Horwitz, 1996, as cited in Horwitz, 2000; Park & French, 2013; Maturanec, 2015).

However, since a student with FLA will be undertaking dual cognitive activity – worrying and focusing on a language activity - as task difficulty increases there will come a point where the anxiety becomes debilitating (see the Yerkes-Dodson Law in Smith, Sarason & Sarason, 1982, as cited by MacIntyre, 1995). In other words, the cognitive anxiety will diminish the brain function dedicated to the task, leading to lower performance and achievement.

Like many other researchers, MacIntyre is wary about speculating too much on the direction of the causal relationship between FLA and performance. Instead, he suggests that there may exist a cyclical relationship between cognition, anxiety and behaviour in which anxiety is both a cause and effect of lower performance. Gregersen (2003) agrees:

> Anxiety about learning a foreign language is cyclical: As errors are made, learners become more anxious, and the more anxious they are, the more errors they make. High anxious learners will protect their social image with diminishing participation. Without participation, anxious students reinforce the cyclical dilemma of negatively effected performance due to the lack of practice. Similarly, because high anxious students believe that they have made more errors than they actually have, they are creating a cyclical syndrome of self-fulfilling prophecy. (pp.29)

As Gregersen points out above, in addition to the effects of cognitive anxiety, students' language learning will also be affected by avoidance behaviour. This idea is supported by Swain's output hypothesis, which suggests that "the act of producing language (speaking and writing) constitutes, under certain circumstances, part of the process of second language learning" (1985, as cited in Nation & Newton, 2009). If anxious students avoid performance tasks, they may be compromising their ability to pick up the language. Thus, it is possible that both the cognitive and behavioural manifestations of FLA may have a significant impact on English language learning.

Performance aside, some researchers have also emphasized the negative psychological impact of FLA (Horwitz, 2001, as cited in Trang, Moni & Baldauf, 2012). Quite simply, experiencing high levels of anxiety is unpleasant. This could lead to students failing to continue with their studies or not using their second language skills in the future (Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009). However, it is worth noting that FLA is not a good predictor for dropout rates and other factors have to be taken into consideration such as a strong resolve and appreciation of the importance of English (Trang et al., 2012).

Nonetheless, the possible negative impacts of FLA on student performance, learning and happiness make it necessary to both identify it and find ways to alleviate it in different EFL contexts.

Overall Levels of FLA

Many studies have been conducted across the world over the last three decades using the FLCAS to measure levels of FLA in university EFL students. Recent studies have found high variance in overall anxiety levels amongst students with the average student suffering from moderate levels. It is worth noting that these studies fall into three groups: (1) those that involve students who are majoring in English-related subjects; (2) those that involve students who are not majoring in languages, but are obliged to take some EFL courses as part of their degree program; and (3) those that involve both English and non-English majors.

With regards to Europe and the Middle East, a Turkish study (N = 488) established a mean FLCAS score of 88.67 (SD 21.19) (Karatas, Alci, Bademcioglu & Ergin, 2016). Another study carried out in Turkey reported a mean score of 102.22 (SD = 22.04), and subsequently three years later 103.59 (SD = 23.02) for the same sample of 98 English Language and Literature majors (Elaldi, 2016). Elaldi suggests that FLA in this culture may be a result of outdated teaching methods where the emphasis is more on grammar and less on speaking and listening skills. Additionally, since the students are majoring in English, high professional expectations might also be a cause of this anxiety. Thus, Elaldi assumes that when English is a core subject in the curriculum, it generates more pressure and, thus, more anxiety.

In their study of 216 Spanish students in Gran Canaria (some of whom were studying English-related majors), Arnaiz and Guillén (2012) found an average anxiety level of 104.12 (SD = 23.53). Interestingly, in contrast to Elaldi (2016), these researchers postulated that where *lower* anxiety levels occur it may be due to the fact that those populations are students who have chosen to study a degree in English in order to become teachers. In other words,

they assume that students who choose to study English for professional reasons are *less likely* to suffer from anxiety, although they admit that this idea is still being researched.

A recent study carried out at two universities in Iran reported a mean FLA score of 100.27 (SD = 32.57) amongst 437 EFL students taking a variety of different non-English majors (Moghaddam Kiya, 2015). Differences between the mean scores at the two universities in question – Tehran University (M = 97.80, SD = 39.00) and Shahed University (M = 103.00, SD = 23.00) – were attributed to the higher proficiency of students at Tehran University and/or "better English instructions offered at that university" (p.73).

With regards to research in Asia, Gopang, Ansari, Kulsoom & Lahari (2017) recently carried out a study into FLA levels at a Pakistani university across four different majors (one English and three non-English). They found that the predominantly male students show moderate levels of anxiety with a mean score of 88.2 (SD = 13.99). In another study carried out at a Chinese university with 183 non-English major sophomores, the mean FLCAS score was 98.55 (Wang, 2014).

FLA and Its "Related Anxieties" or Components

Many researchers have turned their attention to the multi-componential nature of FLA, identifying its different "components" (Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012; Lian & Budin, 2014; Tóth, 2008), "dimensions" (Wang, 2014), "integral parts" (Maturanec, 2015, p.5) or "related performance anxieties" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p.127). In the original study of FLA, Horwitz et al. identify three "conceptual building blocks" (p.128): 1) communication apprehension, 2) test anxiety, and 3) fear of negative evaluation. It is worth pointing out that the leading researcher in this field Elaine Horwitz is emphatic about the fact that these three constructs are *related anxieties*, which help us to better understand FLA, rather than *components* of it, as many in this field of research have assumed (Horwitz, 2010). It is easy to see how this

assumption arose, however, since the FLCAS contains many items that relate to these three types of anxiety so it seems to make sense that they should also be referred to as components of the FLA construct. Nevertheless, Horwitz et al. (1986), reject the reductionism involved in seeing these types of anxiety as component parts because FLA, they argue, is unique and not just an amalgamation of other anxieties. Indeed, the FLCAS contains some items that measure feelings or behaviours that don't appear to be related to the three anxieties mentioned; Wang (2014) labels them fear of making mistakes, lack of self-confidence, fear of learning burdens and lack of learning interests.

Communication apprehension refers to being nervous when having to communicate with people. Horwitz el al. (1986) give the following examples: "difficulty in speaking in dyads or groups (oral communication anxiety) or in public ("stage fright"), or in listening to or learning a spoken message (receiver anxiety) are all manifestations of communication apprehension" (p.127). These authors theorize that in the language learning context this anxiety may be compounded by the fact that learners know they will not be able to communicate or understand a complete message, given their limited knowledge of the target language. However, it is also possible, that otherwise anxious learners actually find communication in the L2 liberating exactly for that reason – that is, that they are not expected to communicate or understand everything.

Test anxiety is also described as "relevant" (Horwitz et. al., 1986) to FLA. Interestingly, it is the only related anxiety that has been found to moderately correlate with FLA (Horwitz, 1986). The authors describe this type of anxiety as the "fear of failure" (p.127) in evaluative situations. Language learners may have unrealistic expectations about their performance in assessments, and place too much pressure on themselves. This can be seen as a type of perfectionism. Unfortunately, say these researchers, this anxiety may be a

big problem in English language teaching (ELT) due to the frequency of testing in language classrooms.

The final "related anxiety" is fear of negative evaluation, which seems to bear a resemblance to test anxiety, but is in fact a distinct concept since it goes beyond formal teacher assessments to include what others (teachers, peers etc.) *think* about our performance in a language. For this anxiety, Horwitz et al. take their definition from Watson and Friend (1969), who define it as "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (p.449, as cited in Horwitz et al., 1986, p.128). This anxiety often leads to avoidance behaviours such as failing to start conversations or participating as little as possible, using body language or short utterances to show interest (Pilkonis, 1977 as cited in Aida, 1994; Natale, Entin & Jaffe, 1979, as cited in Aida, 1994; Cheek & Buss, 1981, as cited in Aida, 1994; Leary, Knight & Johnson, 1987, as cited in Aida, 1994).

Since this study was carried out, numerous researchers have employed the FLCAS in various different socio-cultural and historical contexts, and run factor analyses to identify and describe what they consider to be the components of FLA. Aida (1994) found four factors to explain the "underlying structure" (p.159) of the FLCAS with a group of 96 university students of Japanese. The first factor, "Speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation", explained 37.9% of the variance and represented the fears of students to speak in class and make mistakes in front of their classmates. Aida argues that speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation may not be two separate concepts, but are in fact part of the same construct. The other factors in Aida's analysis include "Fear of failing the class" "Comfortableness in speaking with Japanese people" and "Negative attitudes towards Japanese class" accounting for 6.3%, 5.6% and 4.7% of the variance respectively.

In their study of 252 English majors at a Japanese university, Matsuda and Gobel (2004) selected a two-factor solution. The first factor was labelled "General English classroom performance anxiety" and the second "Low self-confidence in speaking English" each accounting for 31.1% and 6.1% of the variance respectively. In other words, these researchers found anxiety related to performance to be the most compelling component.

A three-factor solution is put forward by Tóth (2008) in her study of students majoring in English at a Hungarian university (N = 117). The first two factors – "Communication apprehension" and "Fear of inadequate performance in English classes" – are seen as related to each other, with a third "Attitudes to the English class" dismissed as separate. Tóth concludes that her solution resembles the findings of Aida (1994) and Cheng, Horwitz and Schallert (1999), and is "in line with Horwitz et al.'s three part model" (p68), but shows that the three anxieties are "not easily separable from each other" (p68).

Similarly, in their study with Spanish-speaking EFL students, Arnaiz and Guillén (2012) identify three factors, two of which - "communication apprehension" and "evaluation anxiety" (p.15) - echo the original conceptualization of FLA by Horwitz et al. (1986). These two factors account for 34.99% and 5.41% of the variance respectively with "Discomfort in using English inside and outside the classroom" accounting for another 5.04%.

What is interesting is that, despite all the different attempts to re-define the factors or components underlying FLA, many studies conclude that communication apprehension, whether given that name or some other title like "speech anxiety", is the most salient (Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012). Indeed, Arnaiz and Guillén conclude that "the composition of this factor is roughly the same in all studies reviewed" (p.20) and highlight the fact that FLA is predominantly related to speaking skills and the perceptions of students' in and outside of the language classroom. This may not come as a big surprise since many of the items in the

FLCAS relate directly to worries about speaking and understanding what is being said in class.

FLA and Gender

When it comes to the relationship between FLA and gender, some studies have shown significant gender differences. However, results are not consistent across cultures and learning contexts. Where a gender difference exists, explanations (if there are any) tend to focus on the socialization processes.

Some researchers have found men to suffer more from FLA than women. Elaldi's study in Turkey (2016) found that male students showed significantly higher levels of anxiety, both in their overall FLA scores and in communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Similarly, research from Taiwan revealed that male students had higher levels of test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, although, in this context, female students suffered more from communication apprehension (Hsu, 2009, as cited in Elaldi, 2016). In a study carried out in Pakistan (N = 149), overall levels of anxiety were also higher for men (Awan, Azher, Anwar & Naz, 2010).

Nevertheless, another group of studies suggest that women are more prone to language anxiety than men. In contrast to the Elaldi study mentioned above, an alternative study in Turkey (N = 383) found that female university students from a variety of different degree programs suffered from more speaking anxiety than their male counterparts (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013). Indeed these researchers comment that the levels of speaking anxiety amongst men were "low", although they offer no cultural insights as to why this might occur in the Turkish classroom, except that women may fear negative evaluation more. Karatas et al. (2016) also reported Turkish female students to be more anxious.

In Gran Canaria, Arnaiz and Guillén (2012) found female EFL students to be more anxious in their overall scores as well as on 17 of the 33 items in the FLCAS. They also conclude that women suffer from more communication apprehension and evaluation anxiety. These researchers cite two possible social reasons for the differences. Firstly, it may be that women "tend to undervalue their own performance, experience more negative feelings and feel less comfortable than men (Benson, Bandalos, & Hutchinson, 1994)" (p.18). The second reason relates to the reliability of survey research into anxiety; it may be that women are just more likely to confess to suffering from anxiety than men.

A large study at a Korean university (N = 948) also found that female non-English majors were more anxious than male ones (Park & French, 2013). Park and French attribute this difference to the effects of a "conventionally male dominant society" (p468), but also highlight that the same anxious female students received higher grades than their male counterparts suggesting that the anxiety may have been facilitating. In any case, like Arnaiz and Guillén (2012), they believe that differences stem from the socialization processes of women.

Similarly, Maturanec (2015) found that female Croatian students studying English majors were more likely to suffer from FLA. She claims that female learners in general "tend to be more fearful and less able to reduce stress levels" (p24) even though studies have shown them to have a more positive attitude and higher motivation (Spolsky, 1989, as cited by Maturanec, 2015; Bacon & Finnemann, 1992, as cited in Arnaiz and Guillén, 2012; Kaylani, 1996, as cited in Arnaiz and Guillén, 2012), and use more learning strategies more efficiently than men (Ehrmann & Oxford, 1990, as cited by Maturanec, 2015; Nyikos, 1990, as cited by Maturanec, 2015). What's more, she cites Piechurska-Kuciel (2008) to argue that women are under more pressure to achieve in languages because of the general teacher belief that they are better at them, but at the same time receive less attention in class than men, which triggers

negative emotions and anxiety. Interestingly, Maturanec also found that the female student with the highest level of anxiety in her sample was, nevertheless, a high achiever.

A possible explanation for women suffering more from anxiety than men is that they generally describe themselves as more emotionally charged, although this has not been linked to a specific context (Barrett, Lane, Sechrest & Schwartz, 2000, as cited in Dewaele, 2007). What's more, as in the literature mentioned above, these researchers have found inconsistent results regarding "fear or anxiety, anger, depression, or sadness" (Dewaele, 2007) regarding gender difference in the studies they reviewed.

There is a body of literature that has found no significant gender differences in anxiety levels too. Matsuda and Gobel's study (2004) of Japanese students of English found no difference when gender was considered as an independent variable, and several recent studies have found the same.

Findings from Moghaddam Kiya's study in Iran (2015) show that there is no statistically significant difference between men's and women's FLCAS scores, although the female students in his sample were more anxious on an EFL reading anxiety scale adapted to the Iranian context. Similarly, another smaller study of Iranian students (N = 61) (Shabani, 2012) and a study from Saudi Arabia (N = 373) (Alsowat, 2016) reported no significant gender difference with regards to anxiety levels.

Additionally, in their study of language anxiety using the FLCAS plus items from a reading and a writing anxiety scale, Razak, Yassin and Maasum (2017) found no significant gender difference between male and female students (N = 155) at a Yemeni university. These researchers expected female students to be more anxious due to their "shy nature" (p.80); they argue that the lack of significant difference between the sexes may be because there are more women than men in the classroom, and they have been studying English for a long time.

Furthermore, while looking specifically at English speaking anxiety, Ahmed, Pathan and Khan (2017) found neither sex more anxious amongst 240 Pakistani postgraduates.

FLA and Previous Language Learning Experience

There are not many studies that relate directly to the effect of a student's previous language learning experience on their level of FLA. Nevertheless, some researchers do shed some light on the topic.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) are the most prominent researchers to have developed a theory in this area. They argue that FLA may not initially be present in a new language learner, but may develop over time *after* the learner has accumulated some negative experiences in the foreign language classroom.

> At the earliest stages of language learning, motivation and language aptitude are the dominant factors in determining success […] Anxiety aroused in this context, as a result of early language experience, would best be called state anxiety. After several experiences with the second language context, the student forms attitudes that are specific to the situation, that is, emotions and attitudes about learning a new language. If these experiences are negative, foreign language anxiety may begin to develop. As negative experiences persist, foreign language anxiety may become a regular occurrence and the student begins to expect to be nervous and to perform poorly. (pp.110)

The implications of this theory is that a bad experience with a certain teacher or teaching methodology could lead to a student expecting to feel anxious. We could conclude therefore that in future learning situations, the anxiety may persist, although proponents of complex dynamic systems theory refute the idea of anxiety being stable over time (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

The importance of previous negative experience as a source of FLA is further corroborated by Aida (1994). She argues that the fourth factor obtained from her factor analysis of the FLCAS - "Negative attitudes towards the Japanese class" – demonstrates that past experience can contribute to the formation of anxiety. Likewise, Okon Effiong (2013) also mentions "painful memories of stressful classroom experience" (p.45) as one of the causes of FLA.

Moreover, a large study of 1187 university and college students in Taiwan demonstrated a clear correlation between FLA and a history of English learning difficulties as well as classroom learning characteristics and developmental history (Chen & Chang, 2004). These researchers conclude that "students whose learning experience has been negative and who have suffered low grades are more prone to anxiety" (p.284).

Referring to a different type of experience, Matsuda and Gobel (2004) found that travelling overseas and using the target language abroad served to increase confidence levels in speaking. In their sample of Japanese EFL students (N =252), 62 had studied in an English-speaking country for two weeks to five years (Mo = 1 month) and they reported significantly lower anxiety on items related to "Low self-confidence in speaking English" than those who hadn't spent time abroad. As the researchers point out, "… students who have spent time overseas have greater opportunities to communicate in the target language. Not only do they have the opportunity for more practice, but other affective factors such as motivation may come into play" (p.32). This echoes previous findings by Aida (1994).

Karatas et al. (2016) studied the possible correlation between the high school a learner had graduated from and their current level of FLA in the English preparatory level at university. This study took place in the Turkish educational context where there are a number of different types of high school: Anatolian high schools, science high schools, Anatolian teaching training high schools, open high schools and vocational high schools. The authors

provide little information, however, as to the differences between these schools and how they may affect English language learning, other than the fact that the hours of English teaching had been reduced in all the types of school except the science schools in years previous to the study. In any case, the study found no significant differences in anxiety levels between learners from different schools.

EFL in Ecuador

Regarding ELT in Ecuador, studies and articles have been critical of the quality of language teaching. English is a compulsory subject in primary and secondary education in Ecuador. However, the way English is taught varies greatly from school to school. There are expensive private schools that often employ native-speaker English teachers. Some less expensive private schools claim to be bilingual, teaching some of their core curriculum in English, but with non-native speaker teachers, whilst other schools incorporate English classes into their curriculum, but do not teach any other subjects in English. At the same time, it is commonly believed that the state school system in Ecuador does not provide adequate English teaching – not only has the knowledge of teachers been brought into question, but also some of the teaching techniques used, which has led to calls for much more professional training in ELT (see, for example, Burgin & Daniel, 2017). Indeed Ecuador's low position in the EF English Proficiency Index 2014 (Education First, 2014) was put down to poor teaching in schools (Gordon, 2015). Such is the questionability of the quality of English teaching at school that many undergraduate students report to have taken classes at private institutes to supplement their primary and secondary education (see this study). Not all students, however, can afford this luxury (Gordon, 2015).

Chapter 3

Research Paradigm

This quantitative study is a piece of associational, non-experimental research designed to measure the foreign language anxiety (FLA) levels and determine how closely gender and educational background may be related amongst a population of Ecuadorian undergraduate students. In line with this type of research, no conclusions can be drawn about the causes of any correlations (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The research is approached from within the positivist research paradigm and, thus, assumes that FLA is a stable, measurable phenomenon. This pre-supposes that the general nature of anxiety does not vary between subjects, although the levels may.

The Subjects

The population.

This study was carried out on a sample of undergraduate students from a public Ecuadorian university in the second half of a university semester. English is an obligatory subject at this particular institution and at the time of the study[3] all students were expected to pass six English levels from low A2 (elementary) to high B1 (intermediate), according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), as part of their various degree programs. This university does not offer undergraduate degrees in languages or language teaching, so all the students are majoring in a subject other than English. Students who feel that they already have a good grasp of English can be exonerated from the courses by taking and passing exams for each level.

[3] The curriculum at this university has since changed.

The curriculum was based on general English and largely textbook-driven, with the preferred teaching methodology being the communicative approach. Emphasis is placed on the practice and development of the four skills – reading, writing, listening and speaking - but the language systems (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) are also taught. At the time of the study, the university was also in the process of implementing a flipped classroom approach, meaning that teachers were being encouraged to set homework activities before each class to pre-teach content or introduce a topic and, in theory, leave more time for communicative activities during the classes themselves. Most teachers at this university have a Master's degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, and many hold additional teaching certificates such as the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) or Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT). Most of the teachers are non-native speakers of English certified at the B2 or C1 level of the CEFR, but there are a few native English speakers too.

Sampling.

A random sample of 380 subjects was selected from a population of 3,130 students registered in EFL classes at the time of the study. McKay notes that "stratified random samples should be used … when researchers are using the strata as the basis for their analysis" (2006, p.36). Therefore, in this study, the sample should also have been stratified according to educational background (one of the variables to be studied), but this was not possible since information relating to each student's high school was not readily available prior to the sample selection. However, sampling was done separately by sex. There were 1853 men and 1277 women in the English student population so 59.2% (225) of the selected sample was male, and 40.8% (155) female in accordance with the proportions found in the population as a whole.

The overall size of the sample was determined using the table offered by Israel (2009), based on Cochran's equation for calculating sample size (1963). Israel recommends that with a population of 3000 with a precision level of ±5% and a confidence level of 95% (p = 0.05), the sample should be 353. It should also be noted that Creswell (2014) recommends samples of "approximately 350" (p.145) subjects for survey studies. Considering that a 100% response rate was unlikely, a sample of 380 was selected.

To create the random sample, the attendance lists of all the English classes were obtained and the students divided by gender. Subsequently, each student was given an "identification number" as suggested by McKay (2006, p.36). The random numbers function in Microsoft Excel was then used to generate 225 random numbers between 1 and 1853 for the men, and 155 random numbers from 1 to 1277 for the women. In the case where one number was generated more than once for the same population, the function was run again to select a different number. In each case every number in the range, and, thus, every subject in the population, had an equal chance of being selected, as is required in random sampling (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2010).

The Instrument

General information.

This study employed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), an attitudinal survey of 33 statements that requires the subject to respond on a 5-point-Likert scale from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5) (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). The questionnaire provides an overall anxiety score for each subject from 33 to 165 (low to high anxiety). As Horwitz, et al. (1986) point out in their analysis, it includes items relating to anxiety about speaking in a foreign language, not understanding exactly what someone is

saying, not performing as well as other students or "being negatively evaluated by them" (p.130), and making mistakes.

In addition to the FLCAS, a short questionnaire was created to obtain pertinent demographic data (age, sex, high school at time of graduation, and whether or not the student had taken classes at a private language institute). The two surveys were printed together on one double-sided sheet of A4 paper, the short survey coming first. The subjects were thanked at the end for their participation, as recommended by McKay (2006).

Adaptation of the instrument.

The original FLCAS was written in English, so a Spanish version of the scale created by Pérez-Paredes and Martínez-Sánchez (2000-2001), and since employed by other researchers (see Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012), was used. The source of this translation was considered to be reliable as the authors point out,

> This Spanish version of the FLCAS was developed by Spanish psychologists and linguists fluent in both languages. Minor changes in the way statements were presented to students tended to reflect peculiarities of the Spanish education system. (Pérez-Paredes & Martínez-Sánchez, 2000-2001, pp.341)

Nevertheless, given that this Spanish version of the FLCAS was created for Spanish speakers from mainland Spain, it was deemed necessary to review the language employed in the questionnaire to ensure its appropriateness for an Ecuadorian audience. Three native Ecuadorian Spanish speakers, who are also EFL teachers, were asked to read the FLCAS and short questionnaire that preceded it to check the language. One teacher gave her feedback by email; the other two met with the researcher to discuss how the final version of the instrument ought to be worded. Where it was decided that the Spanish version of the FLCAS was not clear for Ecuadorian students, the researcher and teachers referred to the original English scale to come up with a better translation.

As a result of this process, changes were made to items 1, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 30 and 33. In several cases, the effect of the re-wording not only made the phrases sound more natural in Ecuadorian Spanish, but more literally reflected the wording of the English original. A summary of these changes can be seen below in Table 1:

Table 1

Changes in Wording of the Questionnaire that Reflected the English Original More Closely

Item	Wording in the Pérez-Paredes & Martínez-Sánchez version	Re-wording for an Ecuadorian audience	Original in English
1	nunca estoy completamente seguro	nunca me siento completamente seguro	I never feel quite sure
7	a los otros compañeros se les dan mejor los idiomas que a mi	los otros compañeros son mejores en inglés que yo	the other students are better at languages than I am
15	Me irrita no entender	Me siento mal cuando no entiendo	I get upset when I don't understand
30	Me abruma la cantidad de cosas que hay que aprender	Me abruma la cantidad de reglas que hay que aprender	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn

In one case, a word was changed to better reflect the Ecuadorian educational context. In item 8, the word "exámenes" (exams) was replaced with the word "evaluaciones". In Ecuador "exámenes" are very formal tests taken at the end of a course or period of study. In the English version of the FLCAS, however, the authors use the word "tests", which the researcher and reviewers interpreted as any evaluation taken under test conditions during or at the end of a course of study. That is to say, not just formal exams. Thus, the word "evaluaciones" (evaluations), which is a more general word in Spanish, was used in the survey to reflect this.

In other cases, the expression used in the Spanish version was simply not very natural, not very common or not used at all in Ecuadorian Spanish. A summary of these changes can be seen below in Table 2:

Table 2

Changes in Wording of the Questionnaire to Reflect Natural Ecuadorian Spanish

Item	Wording in the Pérez-Paredes & Martínez-Sánchez version	Re-wording for an Ecuadorian audience	Original in English
10	las consecuencias que pueda traer el suspender	las consecuencias al reprobar la materia	the consequences of failing my foreign language class
11	No entiendo por qué alguna gente se siente tan mal	No entiendo por qué algunas personas se sienten tan mal	I don't understand why some people get so upset
13	Me da corte	Me da vergüenza	It embarrasses me
17	A menudo no me apetece ir a clase.	A menudo no me da ganas de ir a clase.	I often feel like not going to my language class.
19	cada fallo	cada error	every mistake
20	me van a pedir que intervenga en clase	me van a pedir que participe en clase	I'm going to be called on in language class
21	Cuanto más estudio, más me lío.	Cuanto más estudio, más me confundo.	The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.
22	No tengo ninguna presión ni preocupaciones para prepararme bien las clases.	No siento presión que me impida prepararme bien para las clases.	I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.
24	Me da mucho corte	Me siento nervioso	I feel very self-conscious
33	Me pongo nervioso cuando el profesor pregunta cosas que no me he podido preparar.	Me pongo nervioso cuando el profesor pregunta cosas para las que no me he podido preparar.	I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.

In addition, the terms “idioma extranjero” (“foreign language”) and “el idioma que estudio” (“the language that I study”) were replaced with the word “inglés” (English) since the survey would be taken by students of English, and no other foreign languages. This is consistent with how other researchers have employed the scale (see, for example, Tóth, 2008).

It was pointed out at this stage by one of the reviewers that modern research literature recommends even-numbered Likert scales to avoid the situation where “students consistently choose the middle option as a way to avoiding taking a clear stand on a topic” (McKay, 2006, p38). However, in this case, it was decided that the scale could not be altered in this way since the beauty of using an instrument that has already been used by other researchers is that it enables comparisons to be made between studies to establish whether different socio-cultural contexts lead to different results (Bryman, 2012). Changing the Likert scale would prevent these comparisons from being made.

Reliability and validity.

Another advantage of using a pre-existing survey without making any major changes is that the items have already been piloted, and reliability and validity testing has already taken place (Bryman, 2012). In both the original and Spanish versions of the FLCAS, internal consistency in other studies has been high with a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.93 and 0.89 respectively, and also in terms of test and retest over 8 weeks (0.83 and 0.90 respectively) (Horwitz, 1986; Pérez-Paredes & Martínez-Sánchez, 2000-2001). Testing of the scale in relation to other scales, as recommended by Creswell (2014), has also proven its construct validity. That is to say, it doesn’t correlate very highly with other anxiety scales (although there is moderate correlation with test anxiety) suggesting that FLA really is a unique construct to be measured (Horwitz, 1986).

The Pre-Test

As Bryman (2012) argues, in the case of survey studies it is always a good idea to conduct a pilot study to make sure that "the instrument as a whole functions well" (p.263). This is particularly true if a self-completion questionnaire is being used because there will be no interviewer present to check that the subjects have understood each item. Although the FLCAS has already been piloted in other studies, it was deemed necessary to run a pre-test to make sure that the instructions are clear and to get an idea about how long the questionnaire would take the subjects. This latter piece of information would help the researcher to inform teachers about how long the study would take with their students. Bryman also advises that a pilot could highlight any misunderstandings with regards to the interpretation of questions. However, since the researcher was using a pre-existing questionnaire with the hope of making this study comparable with others, it would be impossible to make anything more than minor changes in the wording, as in the adaptation stage. Thus, the main focus of the pre-test was to check for clarity of instructions and the time needed to complete the survey.

Bryman (2012) recommends not selecting participants for the pre-test from the study population itself as this would prevent these subjects from participating in the main study, thus reducing the representativeness of the sample. However, since the researcher did not have access to a similar population to that of the study in question, a convenience sample was selected from the study population itself, *after* the random sample for the main study had already been selected. This ensured that all members of the population had an equal chance of participating in the main study.

Five students (three male, two female) participated in the pre-test, which took place during class time on 10th January 2017. The students were taken to a quiet room where the purpose of the pre-test was explained to them verbally and they were asked to sign a consent

form, which also gave them information about the study as a whole and their role in it (see Appendix B).

The pre-test participants took between 4 minutes 40 seconds and 7 minutes 40 seconds to complete the questionnaire and main study consent form. They found the layout and font acceptable, and expressed the opinion that had they been asked to participate in the main study they would have willingly. To explore the possibility of reducing any "lack of coverage or authenticity" presented by the closed questions of the FLCAS (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p.158), the researcher asked if the pre-test participants thought the questionnaire ought to include a section for comments, but they all agreed that it was not necessary and they would probably not fill it in if there were one.

With regards to the questionnaire and its items, one participant expressed a bit of confusion with the wording of the first item which starts "never", saying that perhaps a positively worded sentence would have been more appropriate. The researcher decided not to re-word this item since it may alter the questionnaire too radically from its original form.

Another student was concerned about the middle option on the Likert scale, which was described as "No sé" (I don't know). This participant questioned what exactly that meant in terms of the 1 to 5 scale. As a result of this comment, the final version of the questionnaire described option 3 as "No estoy ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo" ("I neither agree nor disagree").

One student also objected to item 11 – "No entiendo por qué algunas personas se sienten tan mal por las clases de inglés" ("I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes") because he felt that he could not express agreement or disagreement with such a statement. Interestingly, a study into the efficacy of the FLCAS translated for a Hungarian audience also took issue with this particular item, although not for exactly the same reason (Tóth, 2008). In this study, the researcher used think-aloud protocols to test the

response validity of the FLCAS questionnaire and found that, although the participants in the procedure were not particularly anxious, they did nevertheless choose to agree with item 11, demonstrating that this statement (at least in its original Hungarian wording) did not seem to act as a measure of FLA.

In the case of the current study, only one student in the pre-test expressed a concern with item 11, and, as mentioned above, changing the item radically would also have made it less easy to compare the results from this study with other previous studies. Item 11 was therefore left untouched.

Data Collection

Method.

Prior to the sampling and data collection stages of this study, permission was sought and obtained from the university authorities via a letter. Subsequently, the researcher selected the random sample (see above).

With the sample created, the researcher contacted the English teachers whose students had been selected as part of the sample. Each teacher received an email explaining the purpose of the study and how long it was expected to take. To ensure that teachers did not feel that the study could have negative consequences for them as teachers, the email included the following: “the relationship between individual teachers and student anxiety levels will NOT be researched. That is to say, in no way will the effect of your particular teaching be evaluated.”

The email also requested authorization to distribute the survey during class time. Teachers were asked to give a preference as to when they would like the researcher to approach their students.

The researcher received both verbal and written replies to the email. She used any teacher preferences along with information regarding the scheduling of all the English classes that semester to create a timetable for collecting the data. Teachers were then informed via email or verbally of the time and day when the researcher planned to visit their classroom.

Given the great number of subjects, courses and timetables, the data collection took place over one month in the second half of a university semester, just before the final exams. In many cases, and ideally, the researcher visited a classroom and identified the subjects from the sample. She then met with them outside the classroom, in a separate room or at the back of the classroom. Firstly, subjects were informed verbally (in Spanish) that they had been selected as part of a *random* sample. It was considered important to explain this so that the subjects would not feel that they had been singled out for any particular reason. Secondly, the researcher explained that she was interested in discovering how they *felt* during their English classes. The word "ansiedad" (anxiety) was not used so as not to bias the subjects – the researcher did not want them to immediately think of negative emotional reactions to learning a language. Finally, the subjects were assured that their teacher was not being studied in anyway – that's to say, the researcher was not interested in the effect of any given teacher in the department. This information was important to make sure that the subjects were not concerned about any possible negative ramifications for their teacher. The subjects then sat quietly in a separate room or at the back of the classroom, and filled out the questionnaire whilst the researcher supervised.

Unfortunately, due to practical constraints relating to the size and nature of the sample, the procedure above was not strictly upheld in all cases. Firstly, in order to reach all the subjects in the sample, it was often necessary for the researcher to leave the subjects while they were completing the questionnaires in order to go to another classroom and carry out the same procedure. Secondly, subjects were not always able to answer the questionnaire

in a quiet environment since often the English class continued around them, and, in some cases, the layout of the classroom meant that they remained sat amongst their classmates. Thirdly, given that many students in the sample were absent on the day when the data collection was scheduled, it was deemed necessary in some cases to give the surveys to the teacher so that he/she could administer the questionnaire when the subject came to a subsequent class. In one case, a teacher asked if he could hand out the surveys himself because he wanted to find an appropriate moment as he felt pressed for time to finish the course content with his students before their final exams. Obviously, these factors meant that the conditions for filling out the survey were not controlled. Nevertheless, this data collection method was favourable to sending the survey via email since using this medium there is even less control and no guarantee that subjects will take the time to respond to the survey, making the sample unrepresentative (Royse, Thyer & Padgett, 2010).

Final sample.

The response rate to the survey was 79.2%. Despite attempts to access all of the students in the sample, not all selected students were able to take part in the study. Firstly, of the 380 students, 54 students were not in class on the day the survey was administered nor in subsequent attempts. Secondly, 11 students had dropped out of their English courses, according to their teachers. Finally, there were 14 questionnaires that could not be processed due to missing key information or failure to sign the informed consent form. The incomplete nature of the sample is clearly a limitation of this study (see Chapter 5).

Ethical Considerations

The questionnaire was accompanied by a form which all subjects had to read and sign so as to ensure informed consent; that is, “an affirmative agreement by free choice to provide

information under stated or agreed upon conditions" (National Commission, 1979, p.25-7). The questionnaires of any students who did not sign the form were omitted from this study.

On this form, subjects were informed not only of the conditions of their participation, but also the purpose of the study (see Appendix D). In line with the Belmont Report (see National Commission, 1979, p.25-8), the form included an assurance that the anonymity of the subjects would be upheld and that their voluntary participation (or choice not to participate) would generate neither benefits nor risks for them. Information regarding what was required for participation (filling out the attached questionnaire) was also incorporated as well as the contact details of the researcher, should they require more information or should they subsequently wish to withdraw from the study, which remained their right.

The researcher was very careful to try and avoid disrupting classes in the data collection stage. Since not every student in every English class at the university was a subject of the study, classes could not come to a standstill while the survey took place. For this reason, teachers were given the option of choosing when the data collection would take place, and subjects were sometimes not removed from the class whilst they completed the questionnaire. This attempt to administer the instrument in an ethical manner without disadvantaging the English students and halting their normal class activities must, however, be seen as a limitation of this study since, as mentioned above, this prevented the complete control of the environment in which the questionnaire was being answered (see Chapter 5).

This study was designed so as not to produce any negative consequences for teachers at the university in question. Both subjects and teachers were informed that the teacher would not be a variable in the study. As previously mentioned, teachers were told this in writing; students verbally on handing out the questionnaire.

Data Analysis

Operationalization of categorical variables.

In order to analyse the data, it was necessary to operationalize the variables that were not immediately quantifiable (numerical).

The gender variable (SEX) was created with 0 to represent female and 1 male. Similar coding was used to represent students who professed not to have attended a private language institute to study English (0) and those who had (1) (ACAD).

The most complex variable to create was the type of high school attended (SCHOOL1 and SCHOOL2). The registration fees and monthly school fees of primary and secondary schools in Ecuador are controlled by a Government regulation. Each school receives an upper and lower limit to what they can charge in each academic year, according to certain criteria (Reglamento para el cobro de matrículas y pensiones, 2013). The Government takes into consideration outgoings related to educational management, administrative costs, the cost of student counselling services, financial costs and contingency planning. Schools must present their annual budget to the Ministry of Education, accounting for these expenses, well before the start of each academic year, and the corresponding school fees are determined.

To create the variable SCHOOL1, the researcher first divided all the high schools of the subjects by Ecuadorian province. Subsequently, each school was sought on the Ecuadorian Ministry of Education website and the monthly school fees for the academic year 2017-2018 noted (Ministerio de Educación, 2017; Ministerio de Educación, 2017a). The information on this website, however, was incomplete for 2017-2018, presumably because not all schools had submitted their annual budgets on time. Lists of school fees for the academic year 2016-2017 were also used (Ministerio de Educación, 2016), and other sources such as online newspaper articles (El Universo, 2013; El Universo, 2015) were also

consulted. Thus, apart from using the 2017-2018 fees, eight of the figures were taken from the 2016-2017 academic year, one from 2015-2016 and one from 2013-2014.

Ecuador currently has two kinds of state school - "colegios fiscales" and "colegios fiscomisionales". The latter are schools that "receive support from the State, but also self-finance themselves with the help of parents, with the charging of monthly fees[4]" (La Hora, 2008). "Colegios fiscales" are non-fee-paying. Where no information was available about a school on the Ministry of Education list, the school website or related website (see www.bachilerdigital.com and www.guialocal.com) was sought. If the name of the school included "fiscal", it was assumed to be a free-of-charge state school.

Information gathered also suggested, however, that some schools charge differently according to class schedule. High schools in Ecuador can have morning ("matutina"), afternoon ("vespertina") or evening ("noctura") schedules. In a few cases, it appeared from cross-referencing information that the school charged different fees (or no fee and a small fee) depending on the schedule. In these cases, the highest fee charged was used to create the variable SCHOOL1. It is worth noting, however, that despite all efforts information was not found about every school in the sample.

Having created the continuous variable SCHOOL1, an ordinal variable SCHOOL2 was created by dividing the schools into three categories:

- Group 1: schools that charge $0-99 (predominantly, the "colegios fiscales" and "fiscomisionales")
- Group 2: schools that charge $100-299
- Group 3: schools that charge over $300 per month in school fees.

[4] Researcher's translation from Spanish to English.

Re-coding of FLCAS items.

The FLCAS contains 33 items, some measuring the existence of FLA and others the absence. In order to calculate anxiety levels, it was necessary therefore to reverse the scoring of the former to ensure that the preference "5" would indicate high anxiety and "1" low anxiety for every item. This was done by identifying the items that required re-coding and then using a combination of the IF and OR functions provided by Excel.

Creation of "related anxieties" variables.

Using the descriptions of communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation provided by Horwitz et al. (1986) and others (see Chapter 2), two variables (COMAPP and FEAREV) were created.

The variable COMAPP consists of a sum of the scores (minimum score 9; maximum score 45) for the items in the FLCAS relating to speech and receiver anxiety, as follows[5]:

- Item 1: I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.
- Item 4: It frightens me when I don't know what the teacher is saying in English.
- Item 9: I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.
- Item 14: I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.
- Item 15: I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.
- Item 18: I feel confident when I speak in English class.
- Item 24: I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.
- Item 27: I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.
- Item: 29: I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.

[5] The wording of the FLCAS items is taken directly from the original FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) with "language" or "the foreign language" changed to "English". For the actual Spanish wording on the questionnaire used, please see Appendix A.

The variable FEAREV consists of the sum of scores (minimum score 5; maximum score 25) for the items in the FLCAS relating to the expectation of negative evaluation by others and the sense of being less competent than others, as follows:

- Item 7: I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.
- Item 13: It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.
- Item 19: I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
- Item: 23: I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.
- Item 31: I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.

Statistical techniques.

Central tendency statistics (mean, median and standard deviation) were calculated to describe the data. Subsequently, the researcher used a two-tailed independent measures t-test to establish any significant mean difference for FLCAS scores, as well as communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation scores between the two genders.

A scatterplot was used to visualize any correlation between FLCAS scores and SCHOOL1. A one factor independent measures ANOVA was then applied to find any significant relationship between the FLA scores and SCHOOL2. The Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests were used to confirm the results of the ANOVA and Scheffe test was used as a post hoc test to study where the significant mean differences could be found.

A one factor ANOVA was also used to establish any significant differences between the mean comprehension apprehension scores (COMAPP) by school (SCHOOL2). The Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests were used to confirm the results of the ANOVA and Scheffe test was used as a post hoc test to study where the significant mean differences could be found. Due to the nature of the data, the Kruskal-Wallis H test was used to find significant

differences in the mean rank of test anxiety scores (item 8 on the FLCAS) and fear of negative evaluation scores (FEAREV) by SCHOOL2.

A two factor independent measures ANOVA was run to distinguish any interaction between SCHOOL2 and ACAD on the FLCAS scores. An independent measures two-tailed t-test was also calculated to test the effect of ACAD on the FLCAS scores. Additionally, a Pearson's Correlation was run to test for the relationship between two items in the FLCAS.

Chapter 4

Description of the Sample

The sample of 301 subjects contains 181 (60.1%) men and 120 (39.9%) women, percentages which reflect the respective proportions (59.2% and 40.8%) of the two sexes in the population as a whole. The subjects are between 18 and 41 years old. However, 86% of the subjects are between 19 and 23 years of age (M = 21.5, Mdn = 21).

With regards to educational background, the subjects represent 165 different high schools from 17 of the 24 provinces of Ecuador, the majority of schools (111) being located in the province of Guayas, which is where the university in question is also located. Two subjects were educated abroad in Spain and Peru, respectively. It was not possible to obtain school fee data from 50 schools in the sample, but of the other 115 schools, 89 are state schools ("colegios fiscales"), 34 charge between $4 and $99 per month (many of these are "colegios fiscomisionales"), 29 charge between $100 and $199 a month, 14 charge between $200 and $299.38 per month, and 9 charge over $300 a month. The most expensive school in the sample costs $579.72 a month in school fees.

Additionally, 102 out of 297 subjects (34%) reported having studied English at a private institute (4 didn't respond to that question on the questionnaire).

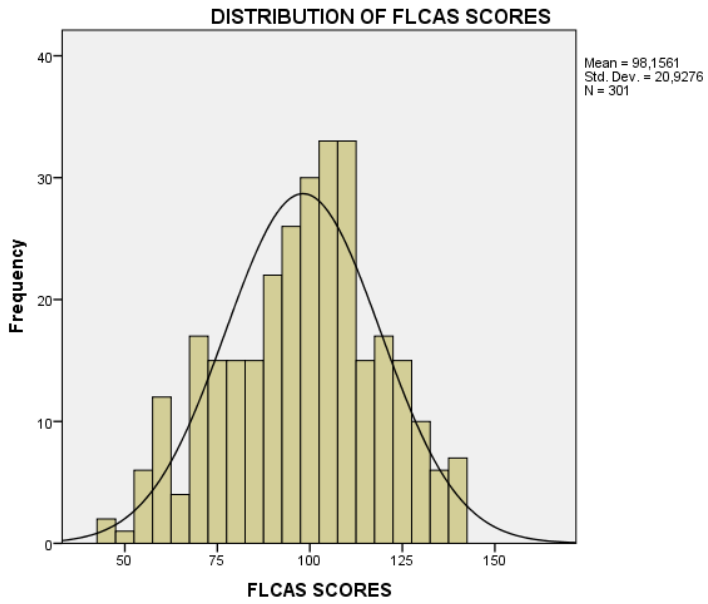
FLA in General

H1: Some Ecuadorian EFL undergraduate students suffer from high levels of FLA.

From a possible range of 33 to 165, the levels of FLA of the subjects in this study range from 45 to 142 (M = 98.16, Mdn = 100, Mo = 106, SD = 20.93), demonstrating an

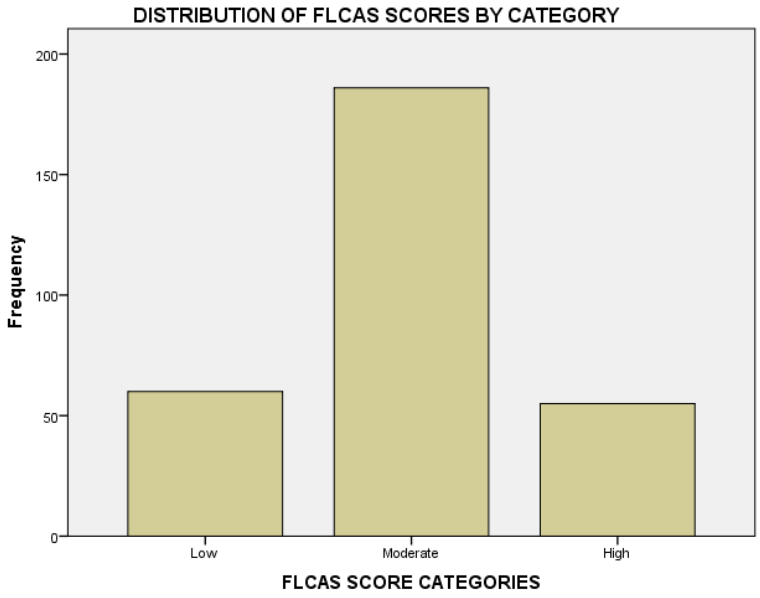
almost normal distribution (see Figure 1). In line with results from other studies using the FLCAS, internal consistency is high with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.923.

Figure 1



Employing the categorization used by Arnaiz and Guillén (2012) (that is, 79 or less = low anxiety; 80-117 = moderate anxiety; 118 or more = high anxiety), it can be seen that 60 (20%) students report low anxiety levels and a similar number of 55 (18%) report high levels, whilst the vast majority 186 (62%) appear to suffer from moderate levels of FLA (see Figure 2). This data supports the hypothesis that *some* students suffer from high levels of FLA.

Figure 2



H2: Ecuadorian students suffer more from communication apprehension than test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

Items relating to communication apprehension in the FLCAS show a spread of results (see Table 3). Interestingly, less than a third of the subjects (29.2%) seem to be concerned about interacting with native speakers, suggesting, perhaps, that FLA is stronger inside the classroom than outside it. In contrast, over two thirds of the subjects (68.8%) find speaking without prior preparation in class very disconcerting, although half or less of the subjects seem to find speaking in general anxiety-provoking (item 1: 50.5%. item 18: 34.8%, item 24: 43.5% and item 27: 39.8%).

Table 3

Items relating to Communication Apprehension with Percentages of Students Selecting Each Alternative[6]

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.				
	10.3	40.2	26.6	15.0	8.0
4	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.				
	12.3	35.9	17.6	21.9	12.3
9	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.				
	23.6	45.2	14.6	12.3	4.3
14	I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.				
	19.6	25.2	25.9	21.6	7.6
15	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.				
	14.0	38.2	24.9	14.3	8.6
18	I feel confident when I speak in English class.				
	7.0	22.9	35.2	26.9	8.0
24	I feel very conscious about speaking English in front of other students.				
	11.3	32.2	25.2	19.3	12.0
27	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.				
	7.6	32.2	27.2	20.9	12.0
29	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.				
	10.0	31.2	26.6	20.9	11.3

With regards to items that are theoretically related to test anxiety, there are mixed results (see Table 4). Whilst over 40% of students show some signs of perfectionism (item 2), very few (item 8, 15%) report getting nervous during tests. In stark contrast, the majority of subjects (item 10, 78.7%) seem anxious about the consequences of failing English,

[6] The wording of the FLCAS items is taken directly from the original FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) with "language" or "the foreign language" changed to "English". For the actual Spanish wording on the questionnaire used, please see Appendix A.

suggesting that items 8 and 10 are not measuring the same type of anxiety at all. The subjects may not equate their performance in a test with their ability to pass or fail a course.

Table 4

Items Relating to Test Anxiety with Percentages of Students Selecting Each Alternative

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
2	I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.				
	15.9	26.2	15.3	34.2	8.3
8	I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.				
	13.0	33.9	37.5	12.3	3.3
10	I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.				
	55.1	23.6	10.6	5.0	5.6

With respect to items related to the fear of negative evaluation (see Table 5), almost 50% of subjects agree that they feel inferior to their peers (item 7, 44.5% and item 23, 47.8%), and this appears to be significantly positively correlated to feeling embarrassment when answering questions in class (item 13, 49.9%) at the 0.001 level (see Table 6 and Table 7) suggesting that a perception of low ability leads to negative feelings at the moment of public participation. Moreover, item 31 shows that almost a third of students are worried about being laughed at by their peers. Perhaps, this is less than the 49.9% who feel embarrassed because not all subjects expect to be laughed at, although they may still suspect that others *think* badly of them. Less than a third of subjects (item 19, 27.2%) are concerned about teacher correction, however.

Table 5

Items Relating to Fear of Negative Evaluation with Percentages of Students Selecting Each Alternative

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
7	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.				
	16.9	27.6	32.6	14.6	8.3
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.				
	19.3	30.6	21.3	17.6	11.3
19	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.				
	8.6	18.6	27.9	23.3	21.6
23	I always feel that the others students speak English better than I do.				
	16.6	31.2	30.9	15.3	6.0
31	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.				
	10.0	22.3	27.9	20.6	19.3

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics (Items 7 and 13)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Item 7	3.30	1.160	301
Item 13	3.29	1.275	301

Table 7

Correlations (Items 7 and 13)

		Item 7	Item 13
Item 7	Pearson Correlation	1	.351**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	N	301	301
Item 13	Pearson Correlation	.351**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
	N	301	301

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

In conclusion, looking at the descriptive statistics, more subjects in this study seem to be anxious about speaking without prior preparation (68.8%) (a component of communication apprehension) than about taking tests (15%) and being negatively evaluated by their peers (32.3%-49.9%). However, in terms of communication apprehension in general, there is no conclusive evidence in items 1, 4, 15, 18, 24 and 29 to suggest that it affects more students than fear of negative evaluation (items 7, 13, 19, 23, 25 and 31). Test anxiety, in contrast, affects just a few. So this study suggests that Ecuadorian students may suffer more from communication apprehension than test anxiety, but not fear of negative evaluation.

FLA and Gender

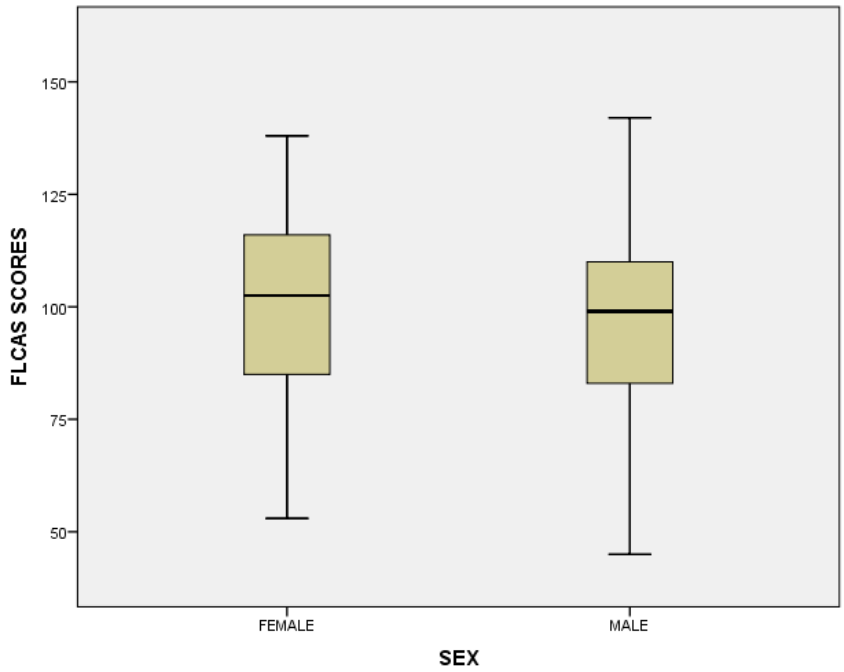
H3: There is a difference between the levels of FLA suffered by male and female students

The mean FLCAS score for female subjects is 100.07 (Mdn = 102.50). In comparison, the mean for male subjects is slightly lower at 96.89 (Mdn = 99.00). Both data sets, as seen from the median values, are almost normal in line with the combined data set.

The range of scores for male subjects (45-142) is greater than for female subjects (53-138). Nevertheless, standard deviation measures, and the box plots below (see Figure 3), reveal that there is in fact slightly more variance among the women in the sample (SD = 21.55) than the men (SD = 20.47).

Figure 3

Distribution of FLCAS Scores by Sex



To check for homogeneity of variance between the FLCAS scores for male and female subjects, Levene's Test was run on the data. The Levene statistic was not significant ($p = 0.479$), confirming what we can see in Figure 4.3, that the variances are similar. Given this result, an independent measures 2-tailed t-test was used to determine if the differences between the mean values of male and female subjects was statistically significant or not. As can be seen from Table 8, the mean difference is not significant ($p = 0.198$) so the null hypothesis stands and we can reject our hypothesis 3 that there is a difference between the sexes in terms of overall anxiety levels.

Table 8

Independent Measures 2-tailed T –test (FLCAS Scores/Sex)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
FLCAS SCORES	Equal variances assumed	.503	.479	1.29	299	.198	3.18	2.46	-1.67	8.02
	Equal variances not assumed			1.28	245.84	.203	3.18	2.49	-1.72	8.07

H4: There is a difference between the respective levels of communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation suffered by male and female students.

For the three variables of communication apprehension (COMAPP), test anxiety (item 8) and fear of negative evaluation (FEAREV), the female subjects in the sample consistently provide higher mean scores (M = 29.56, M= 2.75 and M = 15.62) than the male subjects (M = 27.80, M = 2.49 and M = 15.40) . These results appear to echo the trends found in the overall FLCAS scores. Similarly, Levene's test for homogeneity of variance when applied to these three variables individually was not significant, meaning that independent measures t-tests could be run on the data to establish any significant mean differences.

Interestingly, the results of the t-tests appear to show that Ecuadorian female undergraduates *are* more likely to suffer from communication apprehension (p = 0.030) and test anxiety (p = 0.021) than their male counterparts as these mean differences are significant

at the 0.05 level. The mean differences for fear of negative evaluation is not statistically significant, suggesting no gender difference (p = 0.484). Thus, hypothesis 4 is partially sustained. The results of the three t-tests can be seen in tables 9, 10 and 11 below.

Table 9

Independent Measures 2-tailed T–test (Communication Apprehension/Sex)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
COMAPP	Equal variances assumed	.005	.942	2.18	299	.030	1.76	.81	.17	3.34
	Equal variances not assumed			2.18	255.16	.030	1.76	.81	.17	3.35

Table 10

Independent Measures 2-tailed T–test (Test Anxiety/Sex)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ITEM 8	Equal variances assumed	.192	.662	2.32	299	.021	.264	.114	.040	.488
	Equal variances not assumed			2.31	253.44	.022	.264	.114	.039	.488

Table 11

Independent Measures 2-tailed T–test (Fear of Negative Evaluation/Sex)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
FEAREV	Equal variances assumed	1.457	.228	.701	299	.484	.36	.52	-.66	1.38
	Equal variances not assumed			.688	238.50	.492	.36	.53	-.68	1.40

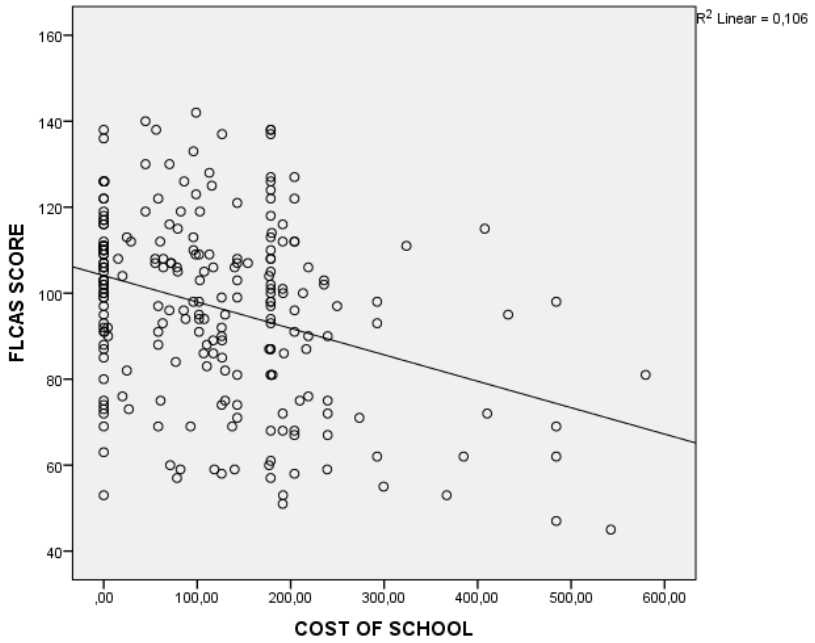
FLA and Educational Background

H5: Students who studied at expensive private schools suffer from lower levels of FLA than students from other schools.

A basic scatterplot (see Figure 4) shows that there is a negative correlation between the cost of the high school a subject graduated from, and their present level of FLA.

Figure 4

Effect of Cost of High School on Anxiety Level



The distribution of FLCAS scores by school (using the ordinal variable SCHOOL2) can be seen below (Figures 5, 6 and 7). Information is missing for 72 subjects due to the lack of information about certain schools.

Confirming the trend in the scatterplot above, mean FLCAS scores vary greatly depending on the cost of the high school. Students from the least expensive schools (group 1) seem to suffer from the highest levels of overall anxiety (M = 102.45, Mdn. 106.00, Mo = 106.00). In fact, the subject with the highest anxiety score (142) is in this group. Group 2 have a lower mean score (M = 93.77, Mdn = 95, Mo = 81) and students from the most expensive schools (group 3) show even less anxiety (M = 75.83, Mdn = 70.50, Mo = 62). Interestingly, the two subjects with the lowest anxiety scores in the sample (45 and 47) are in this group, and no subject in group 3 suffers from high levels of anxiety (as defined by Arnaiz and Guillén, 2012) with only two subjects (17%) receiving a FLCAS score of over 100. The range of scores for this group is also the lowest, although this is perhaps to be expected as the sample size is small (12).

Figure 5

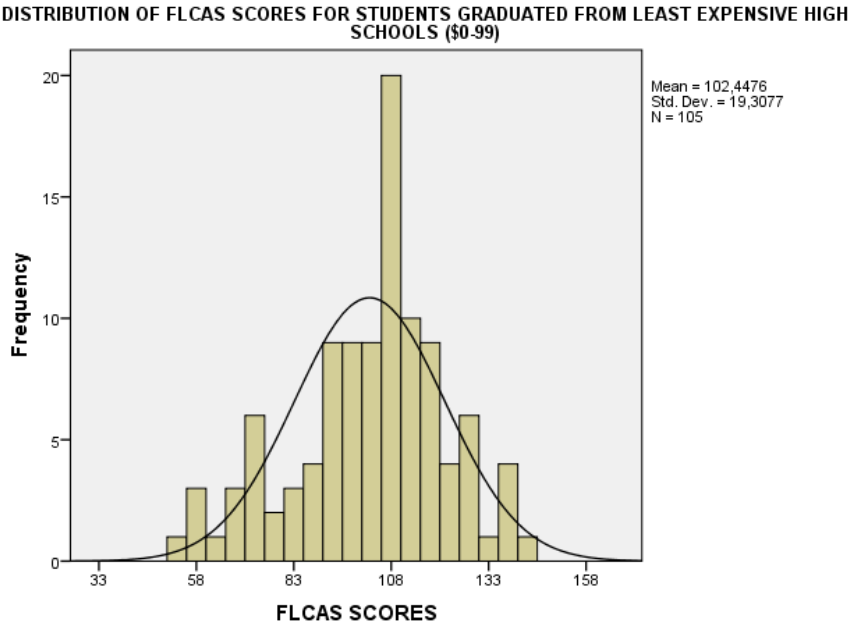


Figure 6

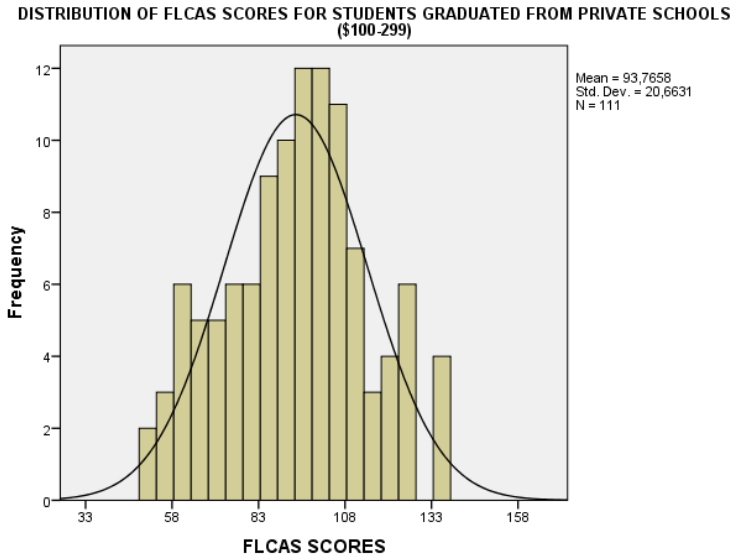
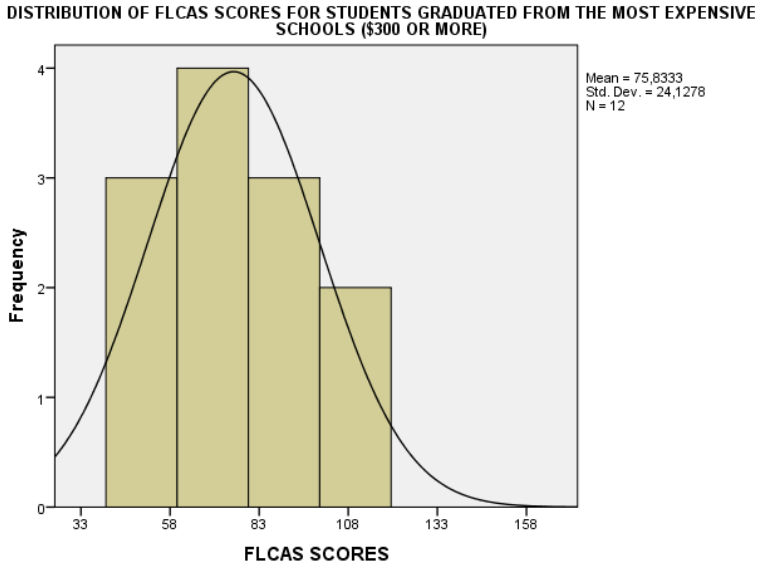


Figure 7



To test this data for statistical significance, a one factor independent measures ANOVA was calculated. Levene's test showed sufficient homogeneity of variance to proceed (see Table 12). The results of the ANOVA show a statistically significant difference between means at the 0.001 level (see Table 13).

Table 12

Test of Homogeneity of Variance (FLCAS Scores/School)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.184	2	225	.308

Table 13

One Factor Independent Measures Analysis of Variance (FLCAS Scores/School)

FLCAS SCORES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9646.089	2	4823.044	11.778	.000
Within Groups	92139.538	225	409.509		
Total	101785.627	227			

However, given that the distribution of group 3 is positively skewed and the number of subjects in each group is unequal i.e. it's not a balanced model, the Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests were also run and found the differences between groups 1, 2 and 3 to be statistically significant at the 0.001 level too (see Table 14). This result was also confirmed by the Kruskal-Wallis H test ($p = <0.001$).

Table 14

Robust Tests of Equality of Means (FLCAS Scores/School)

FLCAS SCORES

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	9.877	2	29.833	.001
Brown-Forsythe	9.927	2	33.158	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

To determine where the significant difference lies, post hoc tests were carried out using Scheffe's test (Tukey's test could not be used due to unequal group sizes). The results show that all the groups are significantly different from each other (see Table 15). Groups 2 and 3 are significantly different at the 0.05 level. Groups 1 and 2, and 1 and 3, are significantly different at the 0.01 level. Again, this result was confirmed by running Kruskal-Wallis tests for each pair of groups.

Table 15

Multiple Comparisons (FLCAS Scores/School)

Dependent Variable: FLCAS SCORES

Scheffe

(I) SCHOOL2	(J) SCHOOL2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Group 1	Group 2	8.68*	2.75	.008	1.89	15.47
	Group 3	26.61*	6.17	.000	11.42	41.81
Group 2	Group 1	-8.68*	2.75	.008	-15.47	-1.89
	Group 3	17.93*	6.15	.015	2.78	33.09
Group 3	Group 1	-26.61*	6.17	.000	-41.81	-11.42
	Group 2	-17.93*	6.15	.015	-33.09	-2.78

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

So the data seem to not only support the hypothesis that students from the most expensive private schools suffer from lower levels of FLA than students from other schools, but that students from schools that cost $100-$299 per month also differ significantly from students who attended less expensive schools. In other words, according to this data, the more expensive the school a student has graduated from, the lower the anxiety when learning English at university.

H6: Students from expensive private schools suffer from less communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation than students from other schools.

The same trends for the overall FLCAS scores that exist between subjects who graduated from different types of high schools are repeated for communication comprehension (COMAPP). Subjects that studied in a less expensive high school (group 1) have a mean score of 30.16, whereas subjects who graduated from more expensive high schools (groups 2 and 3) have a mean score of 26.74 and 20.17 respectively. It is also worth noting that the maximum score for group 3 is just 34, in contrast to the maximum scores of 43 and 42 for groups 1 and 2, respectively.

This trend is confirmed by the graphs (Figures 8, 9 and 10). There is a slight negative skew towards the higher levels of communication apprehension for group 1 and normal distribution for group 2. The distribution of group 3 is positively skewed (towards low anxiety). Variance is similar (See Table 16).

Figure 8

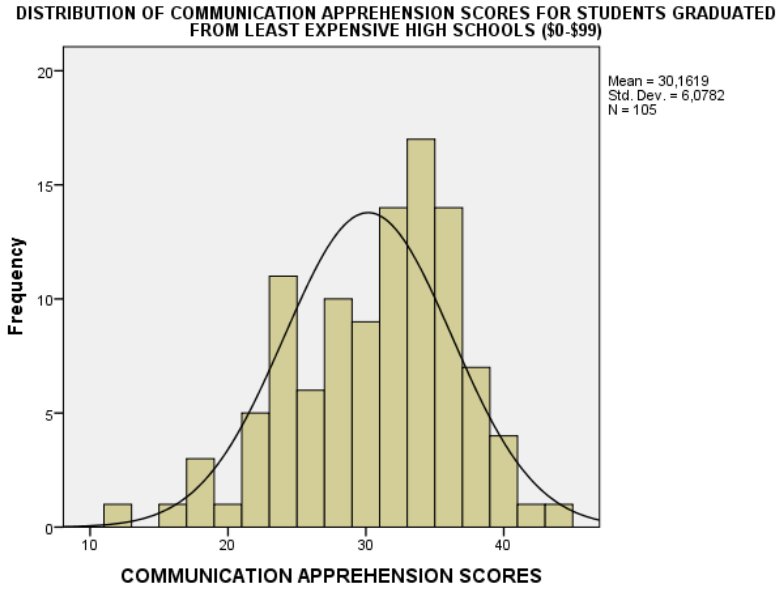


Figure 9

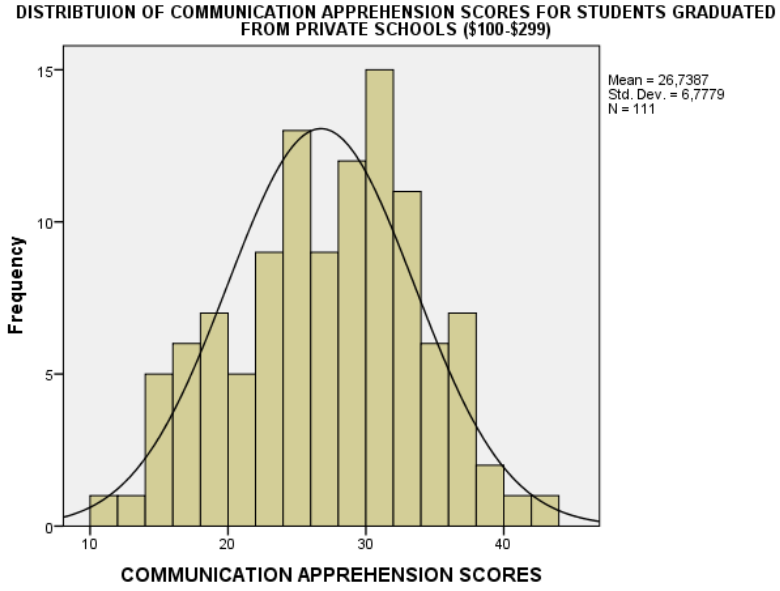


Figure 10

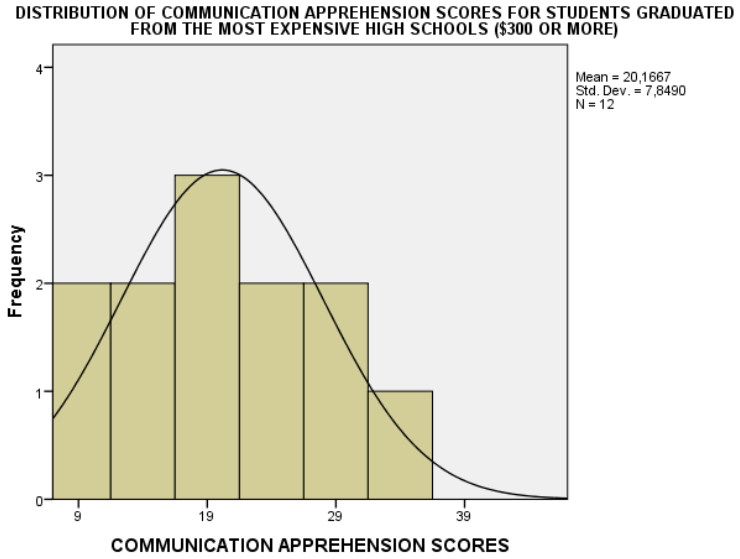


Table 16

Test of Homogeneity of Variance (Communication Apprehension/School)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.316	2	225	.270

Just as with the FLCAS scores, the differences between the communication apprehension of the three groups is significant at the 0.001 level, both in an ANOVA, and Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests (see Tables 17 and 18). Post hoc tests (using Scheffe's test) revealed that all the groups are significantly different from each other at the 0.01 level (see Table 19).

Table 17

One Factor Independent Measures Analysis of Variance (Communication Apprehension /School)

COMAPP

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1403.447	2	701.724	16.492	.000
Within Groups	9573.338	225	42.548		
Total	10976.785	227			

Table 18

Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Communication Apprehension/School)

COMAPP

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	14.000	2	29.777	.000
Brown-Forsythe	13.777	2	32.578	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Table 19

Multiple Comparisons (Communication Apprehension/School)

Dependent Variable: COMAPP
Scheffe

(I) SCHOOL2	(J) SCHOOL 2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Group 1	Group 2	3.42*	.89	.001	1.24	5.61
	Group 3	10.00*	1.99	.000	5.10	14.89
Group 2	Group 1	-3.42*	.89	.001	-5.61	-1.24
	Group 3	6.57*	1.98	.005	1.69	11.46
Group 3	Group 1	-10.00*	1.99	.000	-14.89	-5.10
	Group 2	-6.57*	1.98	.005	-11.46	-1.69

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Thus, the hypothesis that students from the most expensive schools suffer from less communication apprehension has been proven. Likewise students from moderately expensive schools ($100-299) also suffer from less communication apprehension than the students from the least expensive schools.

The differences between the mean scores for test anxiety (item 8) for groups 1 (M = 2.52), 2 (M = 2.60) and 3 (M = 1.83) are less marked because the possible range is much smaller (1-5). Here there appears to be very little difference between groups 1 and 2, and group 2 is slightly more anxious. Group 3 is the least anxious group.

As can be seen in Figures 11, 12 and 13, not all the data is normally distributed. The data for group 1 is negatively skewed towards the higher levels of anxiety (as reflected by the mean), whilst the data for group three is very irregular.

Figure 11

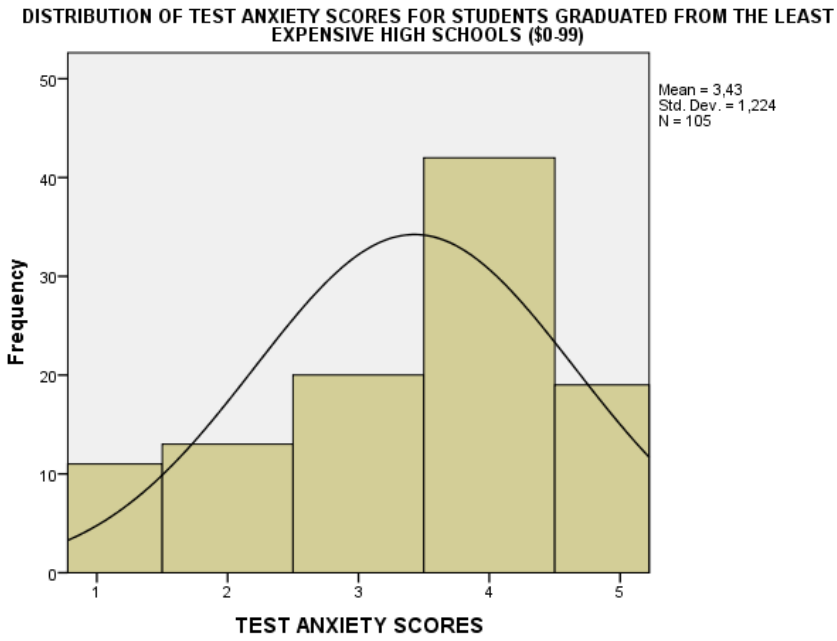


Figure 12

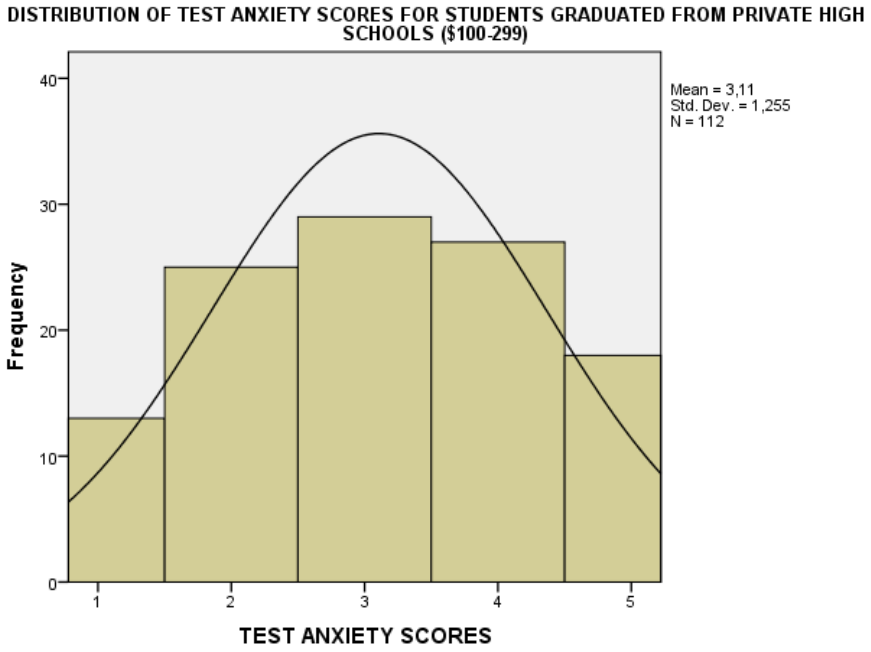
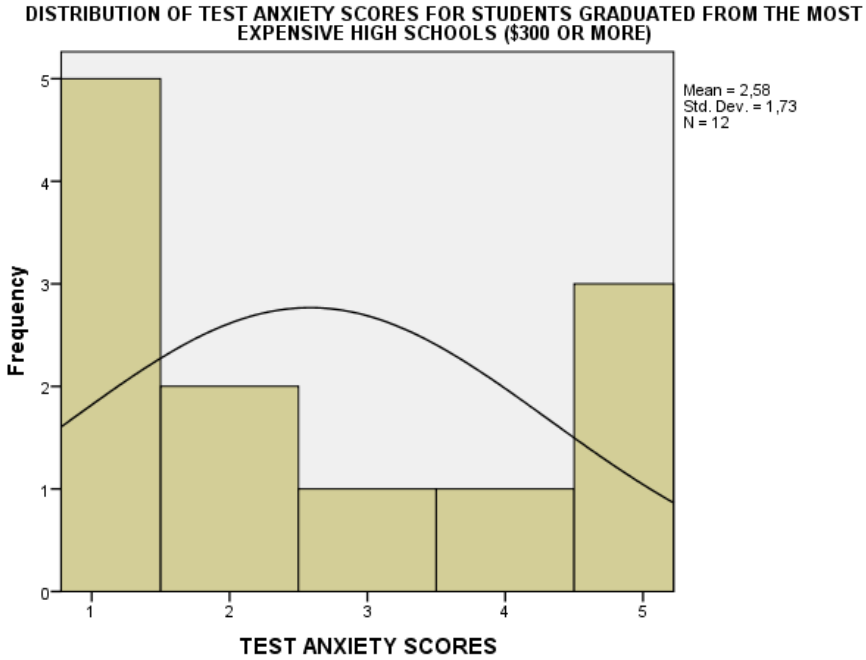


Figure 13



Given the non-normal distribution of group 3 and the limited range of the dependent variable (test anxiety), a non-parametric test (the Kruskal-Wallis H Test) was applied, as

recommended by Gravetter and Wallnau (2010). The results show a significant difference at the 0.05 level (see Table 20).

Table 20

Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics (Test Anxiety/School)

	ITEM 8
Chi-Square	8.669
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.013

To find out where the significant differences in mean rank lie, the Kruskal-Wallis test was re-run between each pair of groups. This analysis revealed that that the mean rank difference between group 1 and group 2 is insignificant, as expected (see Table 21). However, the mean rank difference between groups 2 and 3, and groups 1 and 3 is significant at the 0.01 level (see Tables 22 and 23).

Table 21

Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics (Test Anxiety/School – Groups 1 and 2)

	ITEM 8
Chi-Square	.236
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.627

Table 22

Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics (Test Anxiety/School – Groups 2 and 3)

	ITEM 8
Chi-Square	8.133
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.004

Table 23

Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics (Test Anxiety/School – Groups 1 and 3)

	ITEM 8
Chi-Square	7.828
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.005

Thus we can say that our data shows that students from the most expensive high schools seem to suffer from less test anxiety in their English classes than those from other high schools.

In the case of fear of negative evaluation (FEAREV), the differences between the mean scores of groups 1 (M = 16.36), 2 (M = 14.58) and 3 (M = 11.58) again resemble the differences in the overall FLCAS data. The distributions for groups 1 and 2 are nearly normal. However, once again, the distribution for group three is distinct with a very strong positive skew towards the lower levels of anxiety.

Figure 14

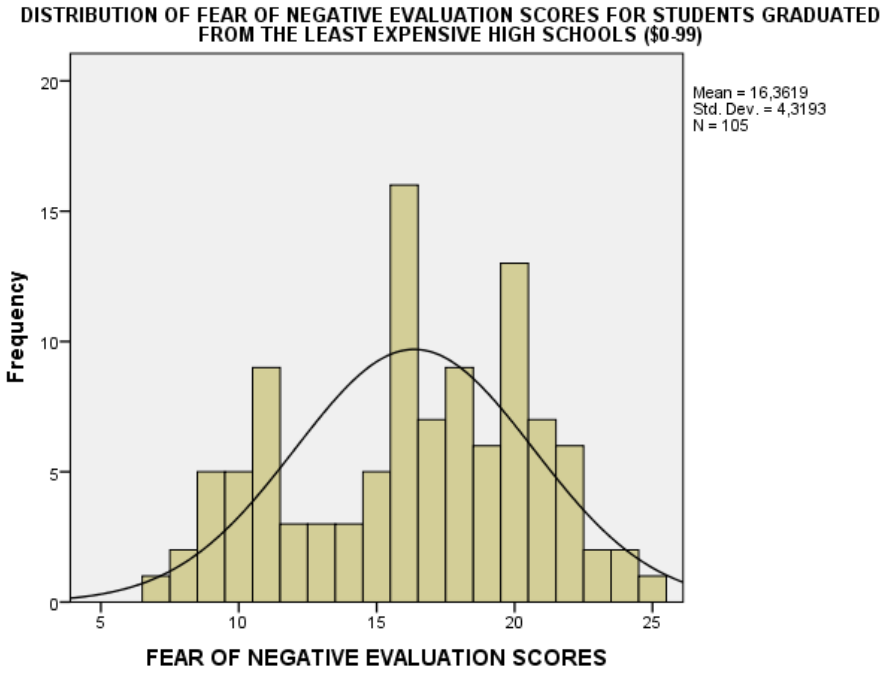


Figure 15

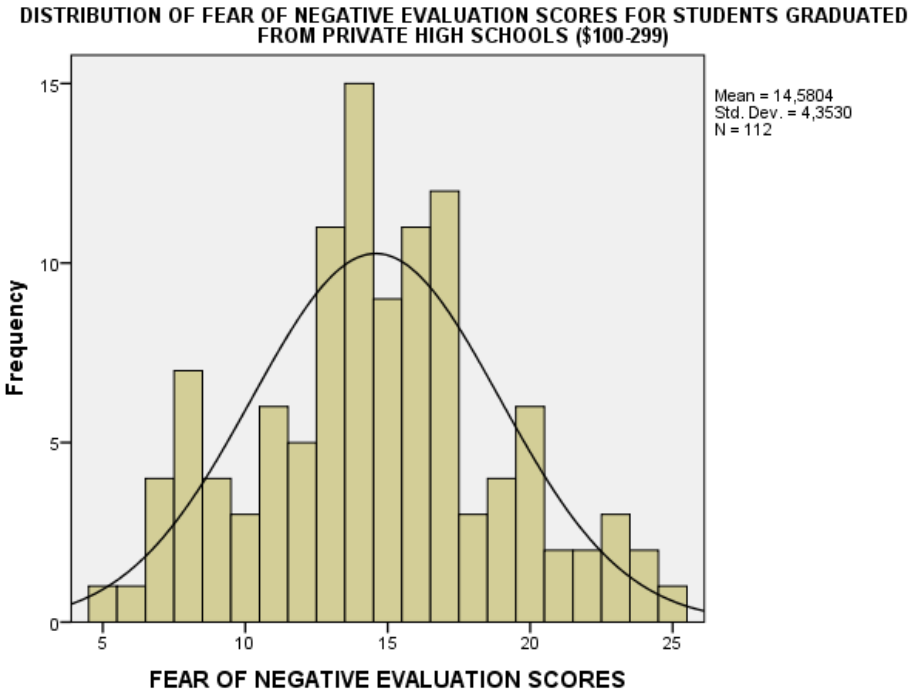
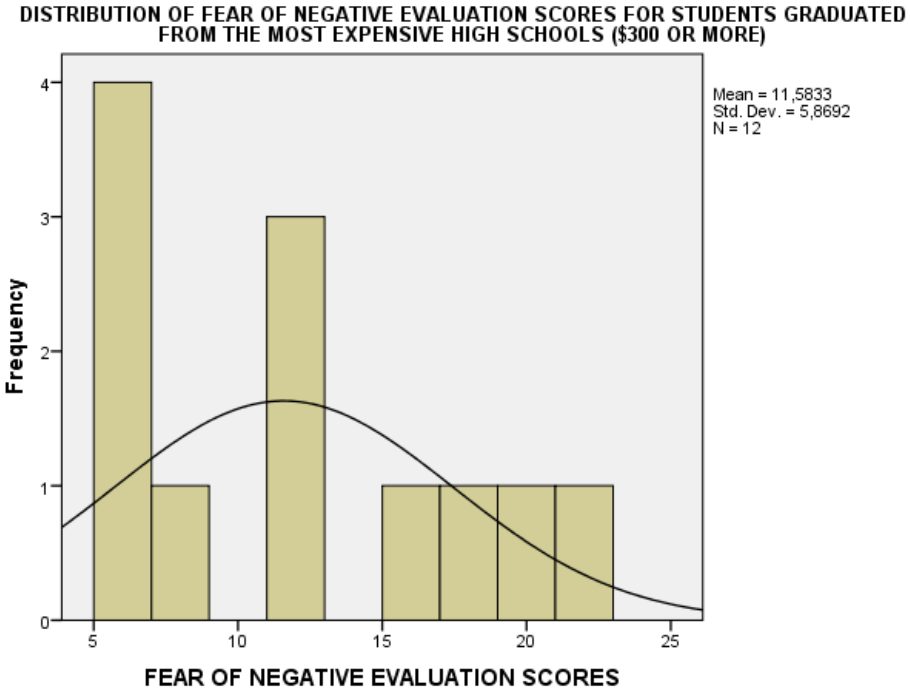


Figure 16



Given the non-normal distribution of group 3, the Kruskal-Wallis H Test was applied. The results show a significant difference in the mean ranks of the three school groups at the 0.001 level (see Table 24).

Table 24

Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics (Fear of Negative Evaluation/School)

	FEAREV
Chi-Square	15.341
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

To find out where the significant differences in mean rank lie, the Kruskal-Wallis H test was re-run between each pair of groups. For this fear of negative evaluation variable, all the mean rank differences between groups 1, 2 and 3 are statistically significant. The differences between groups 1 and 2, and between groups 1 and 3 are significant at the 0.01 level. The difference between groups 2 and 3 is significant at the 0.05 level (see Tables 25-27).

Table 25

Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics (Fear of Negative Evaluation/School – Groups 1 and 2)

	FEAREV
Chi-Square	9.983
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.002

Table 26

Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics (Fear of Negative Evaluation/School – Groups 2 and 3)

	FEAREV
Chi-Square	4.035
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.045

Table 27

Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics (Fear of Negative Evaluation/School – Groups 1 and 3)

	FEAREV
Chi-Square	7.438
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.006

Thus, despite the small sample size in group 3, we can say that the data suggest that students from the most expensive high schools fear the negative evaluation of their peers and teacher in their English classes less than students from less expensive high schools. In fact, even students from moderately expensive high schools show less fear than those from the least expensive schools.

The Effect of Studying at a Private Language Academy

It is possible that the experience of studying at a private language institute interferes with the effect of school on the FLCAS scores. To check for this, a two factor independent measures ANOVA was run with FLCAS scores, SCHOOL2 and ACAD. The sums of squares type III model was used due to the unequal group sizes in SCHOOL2 and ACAD (how2stats, 2011). It is worth noting that despite the difference in sample sizes, the homogeneity of variance assumption has not been violated with similar standard deviations across all groups; Levene's Test is not significant (see Table 28).

Figure 17 seems to show that subjects that have studied at a private language school have lower levels of anxiety than those who haven't. If we suppose that the experience of studying at an academy is positive, this appears to support the idea that positive language learning experience leads to lower anxiety levels. However, this is not true for the students from the most expensive schools, who, in fact, seem to be more anxious if they have studied at a private institute. Thus, we can see an interaction between the two variables.

Nevertheless, the ANOVA results reveal that actually only the main effect of SCHOOL2 is statistically significant (p = 0.01) (see Table 29). This result is probably due to the very small sample size in group 3 of the SCHOOL2 variable. Thus, statistically speaking, we cannot say that there is not a combined effect of studying at an academy and school background on FLA.

Figure 17

Estimated Marginal Means of FLCAS Scores by School and Private Academy

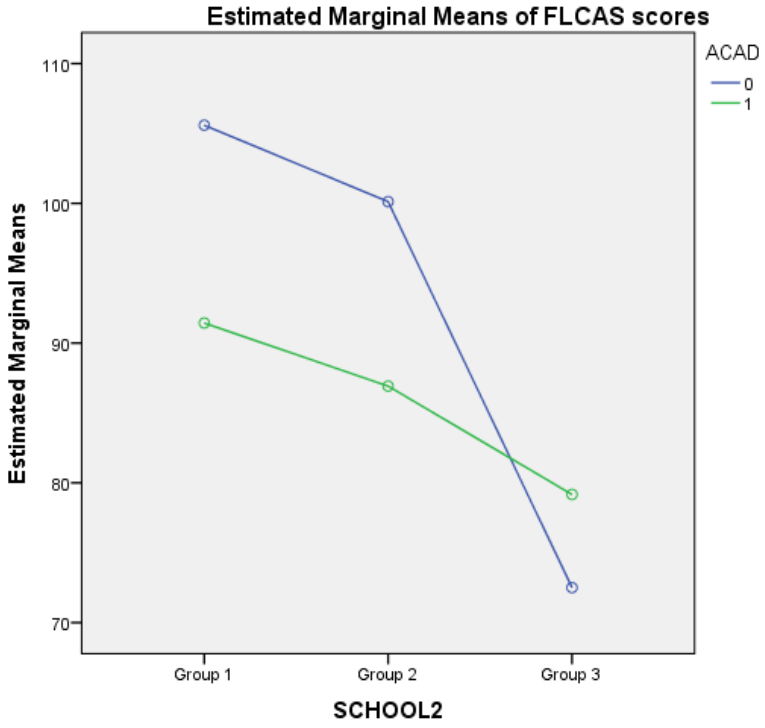


Table 28

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

Dependent Variable: FLCAS Scores

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.579	5	219	.716

Table 29

Two Factor ANOVA (FLCAS Scores/School/Academy)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: FLCAS Scores

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	17946.013[a]	5	3589.203	9.473	.000	.178
Intercept	673730.063	1	673730.063	1778.158	.000	.890
SCHOOL2	5430.197	2	2715.099	7.166	.001	.061
ACAD	1004.884	1	1004.884	2.652	.105	.012
SCHOOL2 * ACAD	1162.957	2	581.478	1.535	.218	.014
Error	82977.383	219	378.892			
Total	2214264.000	225				
Corrected Total	100923.396	224				

a. R Squared = .178 (Adjusted R Squared = ,159)

Interestingly, an independent measures two-tailed t-test does show a significant effect of ACAD on FLCAS scores at the 0.001 level (since this test uses the descriptive means and not the harmonic means calculated for the ANOVA). So subjects that have studied at a private institute do seem to suffer from lower anxiety than those who haven't (see Tables 30 and 31).

Table 30

Descriptive statistics (FLCAS Scores/Academy)

	ACAD	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FLCAS Score	No	195	103.26	20.02	1.43
	Yes	102	89.069	19.22	1.90

Table 31

Independent Measures Two-tailed T-test (FLCAS Scores/Academy)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
FLCAS Score	Equal variances assumed	.088	.767	5.88	295	.000	14.19	2.41	9.44	18.94
	Equal variances not assumed			5.96	212.51	.000	14.19	2.38	9.50	18.89

Chapter 5

Discussion

This study has investigated the levels of FLA and related anxieties in Ecuadorian undergraduate students, considering the relationship between anxiety, and gender and educational background (the cost of the high school attended). Results shows that over 60% of undergraduates may suffer from moderate levels of FLA, with 18% reporting the more worrying high levels. These results are not vastly dissimilar from findings from studies carried out at universities in other parts of the world where mean scores fall within the moderate levels of anxiety too. The mean score found amongst Ecuadorian undergraduates also sits between mean scores reported in other studies, which range from 88.2 (Gopang, Ansari, Kulsoom & Lahari, 2017) and 104.12 (Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012). It is closest to the mean score of Chinese students (M = 98.55) reported by Wang (2014), who interestingly also surveyed non-English majors.

A study of some of the individual items and "related anxieties" in the FLCAS seems to reveal that students are more anxious about communicating in English and being judged by others than being tested. This finding related to test anxiety could be explained by the nature of the evaluation system at the university studied. At the time of the study, students were being assessed in several ways. Their final grade[7] was a result of scores from two written exams (40%), two oral exams (10%), and homework and tests (50%). In practice, therefore, there was quite a lot of summative assessment taking place, not all of which happened under test conditions. Additionally, the students all had a second opportunity to pass the course in a "mejoramiento" exam. This was an optional exam taken at the end of the semester graded out of 100. The score on this exam could replace either the score from the first half of the course

[7] The semester was divided into two, and students received a grade over 100 for each half. The grades were then added, averaged and divided by 10 to get a final grade over 10.

or the score obtained for the second half of the course. In short, doing badly in just one test or exam was unlikely to lead to a failing grade. Thus, perhaps, the students did not feel too much pressure in tests and exams because some of their grade had already been decided through coursework or other evaluations, or could be improved upon with a future exam. Moreover, many students may just be used to, and therefore comfortable with, being tested regularly.

This finding may also be testimony to good assessment practices at this particular university. Perhaps, its teachers are careful not to use unfamiliar tasks or question-types in tests, and to prepare their students for the particular exam or test formats that are going to be used.

What is interesting is that more than three quarters of students are concerned about the consequences of failing a university English course. So whilst 85% are not "ill at ease" in tests, many do worry about what might happen if they don't pass the subject at the end of the semester. This is, again, perhaps, a product of this particular education system. The English courses form part of the official university curriculum. Failing a course could have up to three consequences:

- The student has to pay a fine. (Undergraduate courses at public universities in Ecuador are free, unless you fail them.)
- The student may be blocked from taking certain subjects in the following semester. (Because the English courses are part of the curriculum, they can be requirements for the registration in other, apparently unrelated, subjects in their degree program.)
- The student may not be able to graduate. (A student who fails a subject twice cannot continue with that degree, except under exceptional circumstances. Since all the degrees include the English courses, failing an English subject for the

second time means that the student cannot graduate from that degree program, nor any other degree program offered by the university.)

Given the consequences, it is understandable that students may express concern about failure, even if they think their English is good enough to pass the subject. They may be anxious about missing important evaluations, for example.

Many students do not seem to worry too much about interactions with native speakers outside the classroom. Their communication apprehension, then, appears to stem more from speaking and listening inside the classroom, and being asked to speak without time to prepare first is a problem for over two thirds of students. It is worth noting that class sizes at this university are large (around 35) so, although the teachers should be using the communicative approach, the students may not be practising speaking as much as in smaller, more personalized environments. It is therefore possible that they lack the fluency (or think they lack the fluency) to enter into conversation unprepared, even though this is actually a spoken interaction indicator at the CEFR B1 level (Council of Europe, 2001) and 83.1% of the sample were studying a course at the B1 or B1+ level at the time of the survey.

With regards to the fear of negative evaluation, it is telling that almost half of the subjects in the sample perceive their level of English to be inferior to that of their classmates and feel embarrassed to participate in public. Self-perceived low ability and social anxiety (see Young, 1991), then, may be significant causes of anxiety in the EFL classroom in Ecuador.

Like several other studies (Alsowat, 2016; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Moghaddam Kiya, 2015; Razak, Yassin & Maasum, 2017; Shabani, 2012) this research has failed to find a significant difference between male and female students in terms of overall anxiety levels. However, a difference was found in terms of the items on the FLCAS relating to communication apprehension – speech and receiver anxiety – and test anxiety. This partially

echoes the findings of Hsu (2009, as cited in Elaldi, 2016) in Taiwan, who reported women to suffer from more communication apprehension than men in her sample, even though the men suffered from more test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Likewise, Arnaiz and Guillén (2012) also found higher levels of communication apprehension and evaluation anxiety among women.

This finding in Ecuador is intriguing. Since the data cannot give us any indication as to why there may be a gender difference in terms of communication apprehension, we can only hazard a guess. Perhaps, the fact that there are more men (59.2%) in the student population at the university in question means that women feel outnumbered and intimidated when trying to communicate. The idea that women are by nature more anxious (Maturanec, 2015) cannot be upheld since the overall scores show no significant difference by gender, nor, for the same reason, does it seem probable that women are more likely to report anxiety than men as suggested by Arnaiz and Guillén (2012). The slightly higher levels of test anxiety are also difficult to explain. Since the overall anxiety levels did not differ by sex, it may be wise to carry out further quantitative studies to check this result. Qualitative research is also required in this area to provide a better notion of the reason or possible reasons behind these outcomes.

The most interesting and significant result of this study lies in the differences in FLA levels by high school. The differences occur both in general terms, and across the individual items in the FLCAS relating to communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. There is clear evidence that the more expensive the high school from which a student graduated, the lower the level of anxiety suffered in the university English classroom. Only test anxiety failed to provide a statistically significant result across all the high school categories, but results did show that students from the most expensive schools are significantly less anxious in tests than the rest.

We must be very cautious about drawing conclusions about this finding. What the data tell us is simply that there is a relationship between two variables. We cannot determine a *reason* for this relationship using the data in this study, and there are many possible explanations for the correlation.

Firstly, high language anxiety could be triggered by past negative learning experiences (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991) so the differences in anxiety levels by high school could be reflective of the varying quality of English teaching (and thus learning experiences) in Ecuadorian high schools. State schools may offer teacher-centric classes, where students don't get to communicate except in traditional question and answer sessions, as found by Burgin and Daniel (2017). High teacher talk time, and no group or pair work are well-cited triggers for anxiety (Young, 1991). Additionally, students may perceive themselves to be at a disadvantage because they are not attending a "bilingual" private school, and this lowers their perceived language ability and self-esteem, also traditional causes of anxiety (Young, 1991).

Conversely, we could postulate that anxiety is prevented by positive learning experiences. We could assume that the most expensive high schools offer the best English teaching. Since they charge more, they have the resources to pay higher salaries and, thus, can hire the most fluent teachers (perhaps, native speakers) with greater experience and more professional qualifications than the less expensive schools. Highly-qualified teachers may be more likely to use the communicative approach rather than more traditional methods. We could also assume that they have smaller class sizes and other subjects taught in English (Content and Language Integrated Learning - CLIL) so students are encouraged throughout their school education to communicate more in English and get used to interactions with proficient speakers of the language. Expensive schools can also invest in more infrastructure and high quality materials making, perhaps, for a more stimulating and attractive classroom

environment. So, students from expensive schools have positive memories of language learning and, thus, lower overall anxiety, and less fear of communicating.

These assumptions seem to be supported by the fact that students in this study who have attended a private language institute appear to suffer on average from lower levels of FLA too. If we assume that the language learning experience at local academies is a positive one (small class sizes, well-qualified instructors, attractive facilities), this finding could suggest that positive experiences may prevent or reduce anxiety too. Nevertheless, these are all simply assumptions for which we do not currently have any concrete supporting data.

An alternative way to view the relationship between the high school variable and anxiety scores is to conceptualize it as a dummy variable for another latent variable. It is very possible, for example, that the cost of the high school where someone studied actually reflects the household income and/or social class of that person. In Ecuador, parents and guardians tend to choose a school for their children in line with their means. The state school system is not viewed favourably so parents with enough income often decide to enrol their children in private schools. What we may be seeing in this study, therefore, is not the effect of past "good" or "bad" English learning experiences on present anxiety, but, in fact, the effect of upbringing and wealth.

According to research, the experience of travelling overseas to a country where the target language is spoken reduces anxiety in language learning (Aida, 1994; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). Students from more affluent Ecuadorian families may have had more opportunities to travel abroad, particularly to the US, and this might have increased their confidence when learning English.

It is also possible that the home environment of wealthier families is more conducive to language learning. The parents might well be professionals with university qualifications and, thus, speak English themselves. A child that grows up with family members who can

speak English may be at a psychological advantage to a child who was raised in a working class family with little knowledge of English. Additionally, more affluent teenagers will probably have access to cable TV providing more exposure to English at home. As a consequence the foreign language classroom environment seems less foreign to them. In contrast, it may be that the working class student feels ill at ease in the language classroom precisely because the environment seems alien, and at odds with his/her cultural upbringing and ensuing dispositions, reminiscent of Bourdieu's concept of habitus (1977). Obviously, this is just a potential theory, and exploratory research in the area is vital to determine if this is actually the case or not.

Finally, whilst statistics enable us to simplify our data in order to identify trends, we must be careful not to overgeneralize. Although there are many students with high anxiety levels who have graduated from inexpensive high schools, there are some with lower levels too. Equally, not all the students graduated from expensive schools reported low anxiety. At the end of the day, we are dealing with individuals with individual personalities, life stories and experiences, and the variance in the data supports this. In the end, only 6% of the variance is explained by the high school background variable demonstrating that there are other existing variables that could also account for the differing levels of anxiety amongst students.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study must be noted. Firstly, although the sample was randomly selected, it wasn't possible to reach all the subjects. Only data from 301 of the 380 subjects selected could be used, and the recommended sample size was in fact around 350 (Cochran, 1963; Creswell, 2014). Significantly, 54 students were not surveyed because they were absent on the day of the survey, and another 11 were considered drop outs. Given that

avoidance behaviour is a typical manifestation of FLA, it is possible that the students that were not included in the study were in fact amongst the most anxious. Additionally, the lack of data about some Ecuadorian high schools and missing demographic data for some subjects meant that not all the analyses run could include the 301 subjects. Therefore, there is the possibility that the sample was biased.

Another problem relating to the sample arose during the analysis of the high school data. The sample includes a very small proportion of subjects from expensive high schools. This is understandable since most students from expensive schools tend to have a good level of English and can exonerate themselves from the university courses. Unfortunately, for practical reasons, it was impossible to stratify the sample by cost of high school so the number of students from each type of school could not be controlled for in the same way that gender was. As a result, the statistical analyses of the variable SCHOOL2 were problematic due to group sample size. Nevertheless, it should be noted that very low p values (less than 0.001) did enable some conclusions to be drawn from the data.

Furthermore, due to the overall large size of the sample, it was very difficult to always control the conditions under which subjects answered the questionnaire. This may also have generated some bias in the results, although the high Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.92$) suggests that, in fact, there was high internal consistency in the way subjects answered the questionnaire so this should not provoke too much concern.

Finally, as mentioned in the discussion section above, the data presented in this study do not provide the reasons for the trends seen. Any suggestions that explain the significant relationships between the variables are pure speculation. The absence of qualitative data means that further research is vital. Self-reporting attitudinal surveys can give us a snap-shot of what may be going on, but more exploratory qualitative research is necessary to draw deeper conclusions that can influence classroom practice and policy. It is also worth noting

that this was not a longitudinal study so changes to anxiety over time have not been studied. Moreover, other variables that could explain more of the variance in FLCAS scores, such as teacher beliefs and classroom procedures, were not studied.

Chapter 6

Summary of the Findings

This quantitative study set out to determine the overall levels of foreign language anxiety (FLA) amongst Ecuadorian students taking obligatory English courses at a public university. Using an adaptation of Spanish translation of the widely-used Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Pérez-Paredes & Martínez-Sánchez, 2000-2001; Horwitz et al., 1986) and a short demographic survey, the FLA levels of 301 randomly-sampled students were calculated. The extent to which these students suffer from the "related anxieties" (Horwitz, 2010) of communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, measured by specific items in the instrument, was also established. The data was then used to establish any relationships between levels of anxiety, and gender and educational background – specifically, the type of high school the students had graduated from.

This unique study has found that 18% of Ecuadorian university students suffer from high levels of anxiety when they are studying English, with the average student reporting moderate levels. The students seem to find communication in English (speaking and listening skills), particularly in class, and performing in front of others to be more anxiety-provoking than taking tests. The majority of students also report a concern for failing the course, even though they appear not to be uncomfortable in test situations.

In general, female undergraduates don't seem to be more anxious than their male counterparts. However, in the area of communication apprehension, which comprises an important part of the FLA construct (Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012; Tóth, 2008) and test anxiety, there is a significant difference. There is no evidence in the current data to explain these trends, however.

Perhaps, the most significant finding from this study has been the relationship between the high school a student graduated from and their present anxiety level. Results show that students that graduated from the more expensive high schools in general suffer from lower levels of anxiety than those from the least expensive, and this is also true in the specific areas of communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. This finding seems to suggest a negative correlation between past language learning experience and present language anxiety. That is, negative language learning experiences at high school may trigger higher levels of anxiety. Conversely, positive past experiences may reduce the risk of developing high levels of anxiety. This notion is supported by the fact that students who have attended a private institute for English classes tend on average to show lower levels of FLA too. However, we cannot jump to conclusions. Since the data we have is purely quantitative, the reasons for the trends cannot be verified. Indeed, it is possible that there are latent variables at play such as wealth and upbringing, which have caused the correlations in the data between high school and levels of anxiety. Much more research is required in this area.

Recommendations for Further Research

The most exciting aspect of this study is the door it has opened for more research into FLA in Ecuador.

Firstly, in terms of quantitative research, it may be useful to run a factor analysis to see if the underlying factors of the FLA construct reflect the analyses undertaken in other socio-historical contexts (see Aida 1994; Arnaiz & Guillén, 2012; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004; Tóth, 2008). Additionally, in view of the results, it might be interesting to conduct a study into the FLA levels of students across a range of Ecuadorian high schools to see if the difference recorded in this study is present at the high school level itself.

Moreover, having established the existence of FLA at an Ecuadorian university, perhaps, the biggest field for further research lies in the qualitative research paradigm. Since emerging theories in individual difference (ID) research (see Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015) emphasise the dynamic nature – instability over time and interaction with other ID variables – of anxiety, exploring the nature of anxiety in individuals as well as its ebb and flow over time would be helpful. Is anxiety experienced in the same way by different individuals? What classroom activities provoke or reduce anxiety in the Ecuadorian EFL context? Does anxiety impact motivation?

What's more, qualitative research is necessary to discover the reasons behind the trends found in the data in this study. Why should female students suffer from more communication apprehension than males? Why is there a significant correlation between the cost of the high school that a student attended and their current level of FLA? These questions remain unanswered by this study and so require further investigation.

Bibliography

Ahmed, N., Pathan, Z. & Khan, F. (2017). Exploring the causes of English language speaking anxiety among post-graduate students of University of Balochistan, Pakistan. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 7*(2), 99-105.

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: the case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(2), 155-168.

Alsowat, H. H. (2016). Foreign language anxiety in higher education: a practical framework for reducing FLA. *European Scientific Journal, 12*(7), 193-220. doi: 10.19044/esj.2016.v12n7p193

Arnaiz, P & Guillén, F. (2012). Foreign language anxiety in a Spanish university setting: interpersonal differences. *Revista de Psicodidáctica, 17*(1), 5-26

Awan, R., Azher, M., Anwar, M. N. & Naz, A. (2010). An investigation of foreign language classroom anxiety and its relationship with students' achievement. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning, 7(11),* 33-40.

Bachillerdigital.com (n.d.). *Listado de Colegios.* Retrieved from: http://bachillerdigital.com/listado-de-colegios

Barrett, L. F., Lane, R., Sechrest, L., & Schwartz, G. (2000). Sex differences in emotional awareness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26,* 1027–1035.

Benson, J., Bandalos, D., y Hutchinson, S. (1994). Modeling test anxiety among men and women. *Anxiety, Stress and Coping, 7,* 131-148.

Bourdieu, P. (1977). *Outline of a Theory of Practice.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Burgin, X. & Daniel, M. (2017). Exploring English language teaching in an Ecuadorian urban secondary institution. *Gist Education and Learning Research Journal, 14,* 107-134.

Bryman, A. (2012). *Social Research Methods* (4th ed.). New York, US: Oxford University Press

Cheek, J. M. & Buss, A. H. (1981). Shyness and sociability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 41,* 330-339.

Chen, T. Y., & Chang, G. B. Y. (2004). The relationship between foreign language anxiety and learning difficulties. *Foreign Language Annals, 37(2),* 279-289. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2004.tb02200.x

Cheng, Y., Horwitz, E. K. & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language anxiety: differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning, 49,* 417-446.

Cochran, W. G. (1963). *Sampling Techniques* (2nd ed.). New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education* (6th ed.). Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge

Costa, P. T. Jr. & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual.* Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment*. Strasbourg. Retrieved from http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/cadre1_en.asp

Creswell, J, W. (2014). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Daly, J. (1991). Understanding communication apprehension: an introduction for language educators. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language Anxiety: From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications* (pp3-13). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Dewaele, J. M. (2007). The effect of multilingualism, sociobiographical and situational factors on communicative anxiety and foreign language anxiety of mature language learners. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 11(4),* 391-409.

Dewaele, J. M. & Thirtle, H. (2009). Why do some young learners drop foreign languages? A focus on learner-internal variables. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 12(6),* 635-649. Retrieved from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050802549656

Dörnyei, Z. & Ryan, S. (2015). *The Psychology of the Language Learner Revisited*. New York: Routledge.

Education First. (2014). *EF English Proficiency Index.* Retrieved from: http://www.ef.com/__/~/media/centralefcom/epi/downloads/full-reports/v4/ef-epi-2014-spanish.pdf

Elaldi, S. (2016). Foreign language anxiety of students studying English language and literature: a simple from Turkey. *Educational Research and Reviews, 11(6),* 219-228. doi: 10.5897/ERR2015.2507

Ellis, R. (2008). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press

El Universo. (2013, April 11). Algunos colegios se exceden del 5% en cobro de pensiones. *El Universo*. Retrieved from http://www.eluniverso.com

El Universo (2015, April 23). Ya se matricula para nuevo año lectivo. *El Universo*. Retrieved from http://www.eluniverso.com

Eysenck, M. W. (1979). Anxiety, learning and memory: a reconceptualization. *Journal of Research in Personality, 13,* 363- 385.

Ganschow, L., Sparks, R.L. & Javorsky, J. (1998). Foreign language learning difficulties: a historical perspective. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 31*(3), 248-258.

Gordon, A. (2015). Latinoamericanos tienen bajo nivel de inglés y Ecuador no es la excepción. Diario El Comercio. Retrieved from http://www.elcomercio.com/tendencias/ecuador-niveldeingles-latinoamerica-idiomas-educacion.html

Gregersen, T. S. (2003). To err is human: A reminder to teachers of language-anxious students. *Foreign Language Annals, 36*(1), 25-32. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2003.tb01929.x

Gregerson, T & MacIntyre, P.D. (2014) *Capitalizing on Language Learner's Individuality: From Premise to Practice.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Gopang, I.B., Ansari, S., Kulsoom, U. & Laghari, A. (2017). An empirical investigation in foreign language anxiety at Pakistani university. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 7*(2), 21-31.

Guialocal.com (n.d.). *Listado de Colegios Fiscales en Guayaquil*. Retrieved from http://guialocal.com.ec/search/lista%20de%20colegios%20fiscales/guayaquil

Guiora, A. Z. (1972). Construct validity and transpositional research: toward an empirical study of psychoanalytic concepts. *Comprehension Psychiatry, 13,* 139-50.

Guiora, A. Z., Beit-Hallahmi, B. Brannon, R. C. L., Dull, C. Y. & Scovel, T. (1972). The effects of experimentally induced changes in ego states on pronunciation ability in a second language: an exploratory study. *Comprehensive Psychiatry, 13*(5), 421-428. Retrieved from

https://deepblue.lib.umich.edu/bitstream/handle/2027.42/34041/0000318.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

Gynan, S. N. (1989, August). *Preferred learning practices of selected foreign language students.* Presented at the annual meeting of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, San Antonio.

Hashemi, M. & Abbasi, M. (2013). The role of the teacher in alleviating anxiety in language classes. *International Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences, 4(3),* 640-646.

Horwitz, E. K. (1986) Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. *TESOL Quarterly, 20(3),* 559-562

Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *Modern Language Journal, 72,* 283-294.

Horwitz, E. K. (1996). Even teachers get the blues: recognizing and alleviating non-native teacher's feelings of foreign language anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals, 29,* 365-372.

Horwitz, E. K. (2000). It ain't over 'til it's over: on foreign language anxiety, first language deficits, and the confounding of variables. *The Modern Language Journal, 84*(2), 256-259.

Horwitz, E.K. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 21,* 112-126.

Horwitz, E. K. (2010). Foreign and second language anxiety. *Language Teaching, 43,* 154-167 doi:10.1017/S026144480999036X

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70(2),* 125-132. Retrieved from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05256.x

how2stats. (Producer). (2011). *Two Way ANOVA - SPSS (Part 2)* (video). Retrieved from: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=soPX6rO7WZ8

Hsu, S. C. (2009). Foreign language anxiety among technical college students in English class. *National Formosa University J. 28*(1):113126.

Israel, G. D. (2009). *Determining sample size.* Agriculture, Education and Communication Department, University of Florida/IFAS Extension.

Karatas, H., Alci, B., Bademcioglu, M. & Ergin, A. (2016). Examination of university students´foriegn language classroom anxiety. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences, 232,* 396-402. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.055

Koch, A. & Terrell, T. D. (1991). Affective reactions of foreign language studentsto natural approach activities and teaching techniques. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language Anxiety: From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications* (pp109-126). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kralova, Z. & Petrova, G. (2017). Causes and consequences of foreign language anxiety. *XLinguae Journal, 10*(3), 110-122. doi:10.18355/XL.2017.10.03.09

La Hora (2008, April 21). Instituciones fiscomisionales en incertidumbre. *La Hora.* Retrieved from https://lahora.com.ec

Lambert, W. E. (1974). Culture and language as factors in learning and education. In F.F. Aboud and R.D. Meade (Eds.) *Cultural Factors in Learning and Education.* Bellingham, WA: Western Washington State University.

Leary, M. R., Knight, P. D. & Johnston, K. A. (1987). Social anxiety and dyadic conversation: a verbal response analysis. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 5*, 34-50.

Levine, G. S. (2003). Student and instructor beliefs and attitudes about target language use, first language use, and anxiety: Report of a questionnaire study. *The Modern Language Journal, 87*(3), 343-364. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00194

Lian, L.H. & Budin, M.B. (2014). Investigating the relationship between English language anxiety and the achievement of school based oral English test amongst Malaysian form four students. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research, 2* (1), 67-79.

Liao, Y. (1999). The effects of anxiety on Taiwanese EFL learners. The Proceedings of the Eighth International Symposium on English Teaching, 11-13, 453-463

MacIntyre, P. D. (1995). How does anxiety affect second language learning? A reply to Sparks and Ganschow. *The Modern Language Journal, 79*(1), 90-99.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second-language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning, 39*(2), 251-275. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1989.tb00423.x

MacIntyre, P. D. & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: a review of the literature. *Language Learning, 41*(1), 85-117. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00677.x

Mackey, A. & Gass, S. M. (2005). Second Language Research: methodology and design. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

McKay, S. L. (2006). *Researching Second Language Classrooms.* New York, USA: Routledge

Madsen, H.S., Brown, B.B. & Jones, R. L. (1991). Evaluating student attitudes towards second language tests. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language Anxiety: From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications* (pp65-86). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Matsuda, S. & Gobel, P. (2004) Anxiety and predictors of performance in the foreign language classroom. *System, 32,* 21-36. doi:10.1016/j.system.2003.08.002

Maturanec, I. (2015). *Foreign language anxiety: interaction with gender, length of study and self-perception of competence.* (Graduation thesis). Retrieved from http://darhiv.ffzg.unizg.hr/5721/1/Foreign%20language%20anxiety%20-%20interaction%20with%20gender%2C%20lenght%20of%20study%20and%20self-perception%20of%20competence.pdf

McCroskey, J.C. (1970). Measures of communication-bound anxiety. *Speech Monographs, 37,* 269-277.

Ministerio de Educación. (2016). Valores de pensión y matrícula para régimen Sierra-Amazonía 2017-2018. Retrieved from: https://educacion.gob.ec/pension-matricula-regimen-sierra-amazonia/

Ministerio de Educación. (2017). Valores de pensión y matrícula para régimen Costa 2017-2018. Retrieved from: https://educacion.gob.ec/valores-de-pension-y-matricula-para-regimen-costa-2017-2018/

Ministerio de Educación. (2017a). Valores de pensión y matrícula para régimen Sierra-Amazonía 2017-2018. Retrieved from: https://educacion.gob.ec/valores-de-pension-y-matricula-para-regimen-sierra-2017-2018/

Moghaddam Kiya, R. (2015). The effect of second language learning anxiety on reading comprehension of Iranian university students. *International Journal of Humanities, 22*(1), p53-85.

Natale, M., Entin, E. & Jaffe, J. (1979). Vocal interruptions in dyadic communication as a function of speech and social anxiety. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37*, 865-878.

Nation, I. S. P. & Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL Listening and Speaking.* New York: Routledge.

National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. (1979). *The Belmont Report. Ethical Principles and Guidelines for the Protection of Human Subjects of Research.* Washington, D.C., USA: DHEW Publication No. (OS) 78-0014

Nyikos, M. (1990). Gender-related differences in adult language learning: socialization and memory factors. *Modern Language Journal, 74*, 273-287.

Okon Effiong, M. (2013). *Factors Influencing Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety: An investigation of English learners in four Japanese universities.* (Doctoral Thesis, University of Southampton) Retrieved from https://eprints.soton.ac.uk/367372/1/Okon%2520Effiong%2520PhD%2520Thesis.pdf

Oxford, R. L. (1999). "Style wars" as a source of anxiety in language classrooms. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere* (pp. 216-237). Boston: McGraw Hill.

Öztürk, G. & Gürbüz, N. (2013). The impact of gender on foreign language speaking anxiety and motivation. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences, 70,,* 654-665. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.106

Park, G. P. & French, B. F. (2013). Gender differences in the foreign language anxiety scale. *System, 41,* 462-471.

Pérez-Paredes, P. & Martínez-Sánchez, F. (2000-2001). A Spanish version of the foreign language classroom anxiety scale. Revisiting Aida's factor analysis. *Revista Española de Lingüística Aplicada RESLA, 14,* 337-352.

Piechurska-Kuciel, E. (2008). *Language anxiety in secondary grammar students.* Opole: Uniwersytet Opolski

Pilkonis, P. A. (1977). The behavioral consequences of shyness. *Journal of Personality, 45,* 596-611.

Razak N. A., Yassin, A. A. & Maasum, T. N. R. B. T M. (2017). Effect of foreign language anxiety on gender and academic achievement among Yemeni university EFL students. *English Language Teaching, 10*(2), 73-85. doi: 10.5539/elt.v10n2p73

Reglamento para el cobro de matrículas y pensiones. ACUERDO No. 0387-13. (2013).

Royse, D., Thyer, B. A. & Padgett, D. K. (2010). *Program Evaluation: An Introduction* (5th ed.). Wadsworth, CA: Cengage Learning.

Sarason, I.G. (1978). The test anxiety scale: Concept and research. In C.D. Spielberger & I.G. Sarason (Eds.), *Stress and anxiety: Vol. 5* (pp. 193-216). Washington, DC: Hemisphere.

Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: a review of anxiety research. *Language Learning, 28*(1), 129-142

Shabani, M. B. (2012). Levels and sources of language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation among Iranian EFL learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2 (11),* p2378-2383. doi:10.4304/tpls.2.11.2378-2383

Smith, R. E., Sarason, I. G. & Sarason, B. R. (1982). *Psychology: the Frontiers of Behavior*. New York: Harper & Row.

Spielberger, C. D. (1983*). Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Form Y).* Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Spolsky, B. (1989). *Conditions for Second Language Learning.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.) *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, p235-253. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Tóth, Z. (2008). A foreign language anxiety scale for Hungarian learners of English. *WoPaLP 2.*

Trang, T. T. T., Moni, K. & Baldauf, R. B. Jr. (2012). Foreign language anxiety and its effects on students' determination to study English: To abandon or not to abandon? *TESOL in Context Special Edition S3*. Retrieved from http://tesol.org.au/files/files/271_trang_tran.pdf

Tsui, A. B. M. (1996). Reticence and anxiety in second language learning. In K. M. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voice from the language classroom* (pp. 145-167). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Wang, M. (2014). An empirical study on foreign language anxiety of non-English major students: take the sophomores in Inner Mongolia University of Technology as an example. *Studies in Literature and Language*, *9* (3), 128-135

Watson, D., & Friend, R. (1969). Measurement of social-evaluative anxiety. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 33,* 448-451.

Young, D. J. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: what does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal, 75*(4), 426-439.

Young, D. J. (1992). Language anxiety from the foreign language specialist's perspective: interviews with Krashen, Omaggio Hadley, Terrell, and Rardin. *Foreign Language Annals*, *25*(2), 157-172. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.1992.tb00524.x

Zhang, R. & Zhong, J. (2012). The hindrance of doubt: causes of language anxiety. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 2*(3), 27-33. doi:10.5539/ijel.v2n3p27

Appendices

Appendix A

Por favor llene el formulario con sus datos personales y siga las instrucciones.

Edad: _____ Sexo: M F

Nombre y ubicación (cuidad) del colegio donde usted se graduó: _____

_____

¿Alguna vez ha estudiado inglés en una academia de lenguas (fuera de su colegio o escuela)?

Sí No

Instrucciones: *Las siguientes afirmaciones se refieren a diversas situaciones frecuentes en el aprendizaje de inglés. Su tarea consiste en valorar su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con cada una de las siguientes afirmaciones, utilizando para ello la siguiente escala.*

1 ***Estoy totalmente de acuerdo***	***2*** ***Estoy de acuerdo***	***3*** ***No estoy ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo***	***4*** ***No estoy de acuerdo***	***5*** ***Estoy totalmente en desacuerdo***

1. Nunca me siento completamente seguro de mí mismo cuando hablo en la clase de inglés…… ☐
2. No me preocupa cometer errores en clase..…… ☐
3. Tiemblo cuando sé que me van a preguntar en clase…… ☐
4. Me asusta no entender lo que el profesor está diciendo en inglés…… ☐
5. No me molestaría en absoluto asistir a más clases de inglés…… ☐
6. Durante la clase, me doy cuenta que pienso en cosas que no tienen nada que ver con la clase…. ☐
7. Pienso que los otros compañeros son mejores en inglés que yo…… ☐
8. Normalmente estoy a gusto cuando hago evaluaciones en clase…… ☐
9. Me pongo muy nervioso cuando tengo que hablar en clase y no me he preparado bien…… ☐
10. Me preocupan las consecuencias al reprobar la materia…… ☐
11. No entiendo por qué algunas personas se sienten tan mal por las clases de inglés…… ☐
12. En clase, me pongo tan nervioso que se me olvidan algunas cosas que sé…… ☐
13. Me da vergüenza salir de voluntario en clase…… ☐
14. Creo que no me pondría nervioso si hablara inglés con una persona nativa…… ☐
15. Me siento mal cuando no entiendo lo que el profesor está corrigiendo…… ☐
16. Aunque vaya con la clase preparada, me siento nervioso…… ☐
17. A menudo no me da ganas de ir a clase…… ☐

18. Me siento seguro a la hora de hablar en la clase…… ☐
19. Me da miedo que mi profesor corrija cada error que cometo…… ☐
20. Siento cómo mi corazón palpita cuando sé que me van a pedir que participe en clase…… ☐
21. Cuanto más estudio, más me confundo..... ☐
22. No siento presión que me impida prepararme bien para las clases…… ☐
23. Tengo la sensación de que mis compañeros hablan inglés mejor que yo…… ☐
24. Me siento nervioso hablar en inglés delante de mis compañeros…… ☐
25. Las clases transcurren con tal rapidez que me preocupa quedarme atrasado…… ☐
26. Comparativamente, estoy más tenso y me siento más nervioso en la clase de inglés que en otras clases o que en mi propio trabajo…… ☐
27. Me pongo nervioso mientras hablo en clase…… ☐
28. Antes de entrar a clase, me siento seguro y relajado…… ☐
29. Me pongo nervioso cuando no entiendo cada una de las palabras que mi profesor dice…… ☐
30. Me abruma la cantidad de reglas que hay que aprender para poder hablar inglés…… ☐
31. Temo que mis compañeros de clase se rían de mí cuando hablo en inglés…… ☐
32. Creo que me sentiría a gusto hablando entre nativos que hablan inglés…… ☐
33. Me pongo nervioso cuando el profesor pregunta cosas para las que no me he podido preparar…… ☐

Gracias por su participación en este estudio.

Appendix B

Formulario de consentimiento

Estimado estudiante:

Para mi tesis de maestría, estoy llevando a cabo un estudio acerca de cómo los estudiantes del CELEX se sienten durante el proceso de aprendizaje de inglés. Es posible que los resultados de este estudio sean publicados en el futuro.

Por medio del presente, le invito a ser parte de la prueba previa para asegurar la calidad del cuestionario del estudio. Debo indicar que:

- Su participación en la prueba será voluntaria y anónima.
- Su participación implica llenar un formulario y cuestionario, y dar sus opiniones acerca de ellos.
- Su participación o su decisión de no participar, no afectará su nota final en la materia que está cursando. No habrá beneficio o perjuicio por haber o no haber participado.
- El cuestionario no será compartido con otra persona o institución, y será destruido después de seis meses.
- Usted puede quedarse con una copia de este formulario.

Cualquier duda se puede contactar al correo **epedley@espol.edu.ec** o número de teléfono **0993178859**.

Si quiere participar en el estudio, por favor firme la declaración que sigue.

Yo ……..…… he leído y entendido la información detallada arriba sobre esta prueba previa y consiento a participar en el mismo.

Firma …… **Fecha** ……..

Appendix C

Esta es una prueba preliminar para un estudio. Necesito saber si mi cuestionario y formulario de consentimiento estén bien redactados y diseñados. Quiero que lean y llenen los dos como si fueran participantes del estudio y después hablaremos acerca de los dos documentos.

¿Cuánto tiempo tomaron leer y llenar el formulario y cuestionario?

¿Entendieron las instrucciones e información? ¿Hubo algo que no estaba claro?

¿Cómo les parece la fuente y diseño del cuestionario?

¿Les molestaría un espacio al final para comentarios?

¿Se ustedes fueran parte de la muestra para este estudio, tomarían el tiempo para participar?

Appendix D

Formulario de consentimiento

Estimado estudiante:

Para mi tesis de maestría, estoy llevando a cabo un estudio acerca de cómo los estudiantes del CELEX se sienten durante el proceso de aprendizaje de inglés. Es posible que los resultados de este estudio sean publicados en el futuro.

Por medio del presente, le invito a ser parte de este estudio. Debo indicar que:

- Su participación en el estudio será voluntaria y anónima.
- Su participación implica llenar el cuestionario adjunto.
- Su participación o su decisión de no participar, no afectará su nota final en la materia que está cursando. No habrá beneficio o perjuicio por haber o no haber participado.
- Los cuestionarios de este estudio no serán compartidos con otra persona o institución, y serán destruidos después de tres años.
- Usted puede retirarse del estudio en cualquier momento y solicitar la destrucción de su cuestionario.
- Usted puede quedarse con una copia de este formulario.

Cualquier duda se puede contactar al correo **epedley@espol.edu.ec** o número de teléfono **0993178859**.

Si quiere participar en el estudio, por favor firme la declaración que sigue.

Yo …….…… he leído y entendido la información detallada arriba sobre este estudio y consiento a participar en el mismo.

Appendix E

FLCAS Scores with Percentages of Students Selecting Each Alternative[8]

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.				
	10.3	40.2	26.6	15.0	8.0
2	I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.				
	15.9	26.2	15.3	34.2	8.3
3	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.				
	9.0	25.2	25.5	21.6	18.9
4	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.				
	12.3	35.9	17.6	21.9	12.3
5	It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes.				
	33.2	26.2	26.9	8.3	5.3
6	During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.				
	11.6	25.9	26.6	23.6	12.3
7	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.				
	16.9	27.6	32.6	14.6	8.3
8	I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.				
	13.0	33.9	37.5	12.3	3.3
9	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.				
	23.6	45.2	14.6	12.3	4.3
10	I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.				
	55.1	23.6	10.6	5.0	5.6
11	I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes.				
	23.3	28.2	31.6	13	4
12	In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.				
	11.6	33.9	17.3	21.6	15.6
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.				
	19.3	30.6	21.3	17.6	11.3
14	I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.				
	19.6	25.2	25.9	21.6	7.6
15	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.				
	14.0	38.2	24.9	14.3	8.6
16	Even if I am well-prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.				

[8] The wording of these items is taken directly from the original FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) with "language" or "the foreign language" changed to "English". For the actual Spanish wording on the questionnaire used, please see Appendix A)

	9.3	23.6	20.9	24.6	21.6
17	I often feel like not going to my English class.				
	11.6	19.3	30.6	20.9	17.6
18	I feel confident when I speak in English class.				
	7.0	22.9	35.2	26.9	8.0
19	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.				
	8.6	18.6	27.9	23.3	21.6
20	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on English class.				
	10.3	32.2	22.9	20.3	14.3
21	The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.				
	4.3	7.3	19.3	26.6	42.5
22	I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.				
	15.0	24.9	33.2	18.3	8.6
23	I always feel that the others students speak English better than I do.				
	16.6	31.2	30.9	15.3	6.0
24	I feel very conscious about speaking English in front of other students.				
	11.3	32.2	25.2	19.3	12.0
25	English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.				
	7.0	18.6	30.6	25.6	18.3
26	I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.				
	12.3	18.3	24.6	18.9	25.9
27	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.				
	7.6	32.2	27.2	20.9	12.0
28	When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.				
	30.2	27.6	24.6	13.6	4.0
29	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.				
	10.0	31.2	26.6	20.9	11.3
30	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English.				
	16.9	25.6	21.6	23.3	12.6
31	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.				
	10.0	22.3	27.9	20.6	19.3
32	I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English.				
	20.9	21.6	34.2	17.3	6.0
33	I get nervous when the English teacher makes questions which I haven't prepared in advance.				
	18.6	40.2	21.9	10.3	9.0